

Political Economy of Tourism:  
Residents' Power, Trust in Government, and Political Support for Development

by

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### **Author's Declaration**

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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## Abstract

Citizens' trust in government institutions and their political support for development are important preconditions for a democratic and sustainable form of development. In the context of tourism, it is important that residents of a destination endorse development and tourism policies of the government to ensure sustainability and good governance of the sector. Recognition that communities are central to tourism development and one of the most important groups of stakeholders has led researchers to conduct numerous studies on residents' support for tourism development and its antecedents. While early studies on this topic were of an atheoretical nature, researchers have increasingly made use of theories such as social exchange theory (SET), originally drawn from sociology, to understand the ways in which residents' react to tourism development and the circumstances that prompt them to do so. While on one hand use of SET has strengthened the theoretical base of and has made significant contributions to this area of research, on the other hand, some researchers have found the theory to lack predictive power in explaining residents' support for tourism development. This is probably because researchers have failed to consider all important variables of the theory simultaneously in an integrative framework. Key constructs such as power and trust have been left out by the majority of studies on this topic. It is also important that SET is complemented with other theoretical approaches so that new insights are uncovered in this area of study.

Grounded in political economy, this study attempted to make a 'complete' use of SET by integrating its key components (trust, power, benefits, costs, and support) in a model that predicted residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism and their political support for the sector's development. The research drew widely from the political science literature and made use of two competing theories to investigate the determinants of residents' trust in government actors: institutional theory of political trust and cultural theory of political trust. Based on the three different theories (SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust), the conceptual model of the study was developed.

As postulated by SET, the model posited that political support is determined by residents' trust in government actors, perceived benefits of tourism, and perceived costs of tourism. The latter two variables were also proposed to influence trust in government actors. An inverse relationship between perceived benefits and perceived costs of tourism was also hypothesized. The model further suggested that residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influenced their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism development. As predicted by institutional theory of political trust, residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of local government actors and their perceived level of power in tourism were proposed to influence their trust in those actors. Drawing from cultural theory of political trust, interpersonal trust was hypothesized to be positively related to residents' trust in government actors. Twelve hypotheses emanated from the model and were tested using responses collected from 391 residents of Niagara Region, Ontario, Canada, using an online panel. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the proposed hypotheses. In addition, the mediating effects implied in the proposed model were investigated (although no formal hypotheses were originally proposed) using Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommended steps and the Sobel  $z$  test.

Findings provided support for eight of the twelve proposed hypotheses. Contrary to what researchers have assumed so far, residents' trust in government actors was a better predictor of political support than their perceptions of the costs of tourism development. Perceived benefits remained the best predictor of political support as advocated in several studies. Residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism were also inversely related to perceived costs, suggesting that interactions among residents' perceptions of the different impacts of tourism exist. Residents' perceived level of power in tourism was a significant determinant of perceived benefits, but did not significantly predict perceived costs. Residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors in tourism was the strongest predictor of their trust, followed by their perceptions of the economic performance of government actors, and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism development. Residents' perceived level of power in tourism, their perceptions of the costs of tourism, and interpersonal trust were found to be insignificant predictors of their trust in government actors. Findings also suggested that residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their trust in government actors partially mediated the relationships between perceived benefits of tourism and political support. The results partially supported SET because some of the theory's postulates and predictions were not empirically supported. Findings also confirmed the superiority of institutional theory of political trust over cultural theory of political trust. The theoretical and practical implications of the study's findings were discussed. The limitations of the study were recognized and some recommendations for improving future research were made.

Overall, the study suggested that political trust is a promising construct in studies on community support for development policies and deserves further attention by researchers, scholars, and practitioners given the paucity of research on this topic in the tourism literature. The search also suggests that researchers should recognize that residents' trust in government actors and their support for tourism development are complex issues that are determined by several factors. A single theory is unlikely to provide a comprehensive understanding of these concepts, raising the need for researchers to investigate these issues from different theoretical perspectives.

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## **Dedication**

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Tourism is a growing contributor to many national economies. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimates that the contribution of travel and tourism to gross domestic product is expected to rise from 9.2% (US\$ 5,751 billion) in 2010 to 9.6% (US\$ 11, 151 billion) by 2020. The contribution of this sector to total employment is also expected to increase from 8.1% in 2010 to 9.2% in 2020 (WTTC, 2011). In view of its economic implications, many countries desire an expansion in tourism which is a sector that few governments can afford to neglect. At a destination level, tourism is a major contributor to economic development, generates income and foreign exchange, creates new employment opportunities for local people, and helps diversify the local economy (Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Yu, Chancellor, & Cole, 2011). Rural communities experiencing economic decline and hardships have also adopted tourism as a new economic development strategy (Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Wang & Pfister, 2008). The tourism sector has also been considered as a vehicle for preserving the environment, culture, and heritage of the host destination. In view of the economic, environmental, and socio-cultural implications of tourism development, residents often consider the sector as a way of strengthening the local economy and improving their quality of life (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Hao, Long, & Kleckley, 2011).

However, development of tourism is also accompanied by several economic, social, cultural, and environmental costs that affect the lives of local residents (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1987, 1990; Ward & Berno, 2011). The tourism sector has been found to disturb, disrupt, destroy local

communities and bring changes that negatively affect residents' daily lives (Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Stronza & Gordillo, 2008). The negative consequences of tourism development have led to growing concerns for the conservation and preservation of natural resources, human well-being, and the long-term economic prosperity of host communities (Haramlambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Healy, 1994; Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Saarinen, 2006). If the negative impacts of tourism are not managed, local population easily turns to open hostility toward the sector's development, eventually contributing to the destination's decline (Harrill, 2004). Residents' negative perceptions toward tourism development also affect tourist satisfaction and the image of a destination (Cooke, 1982; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1998).

These concerns have meant that researchers and destinations practitioners have placed increasing emphasis on the notion of sustainable tourism development (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005, 2006; Saarinen, 2006). Butler (1993) defined sustainable tourism as:

Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities (p. 29).

In order to achieve sustainable development of tourism in a destination, community leaders, developers, and planners should view tourism as a 'community industry' (Murphy, 1985) in the sense that central to the sustainability of the sector are residents' sense of involvement, feeling of responsibility, and practical involvement (Campbell, 1999). Residents' participation in decisions affecting their lives is part of the foundation for a democratic tourism system (Loukissas, 1983). It is now widely accepted among researchers, scholars, and destination practitioners that sustainable tourism requires residents to have the opportunity to be

actively involved in the planning and development process, to display positive perceptions toward tourism, and to actively support the sector's development (Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; Hung, Sirakaya, & Ingram, 2011; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d, 2011a, 2011b, 2012; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011; Sirakaya, Ekinci, & Kaya, 2008; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Vargas-Sanchez, Plaza-Meija, & Porras-Bueno, 2009; Vargas-Sanchez, Porras-Bueno, & Plaza-Meija, 2011).

Consequently, research on this topic has been very popular in the literature since the early 1980s and continues to attract the attention of tourism scholars and researchers (*e.g.* Andriotis, 2005; Ap, 1990; Ap & Crompton, 1998; Allen, Hafer, Long, & Perdue, 1993; Allen, Long, Perdue, & Kieselbach, 1988; Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy *et al.*, 2002; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo, Gursoy, & Juwaheer, 2010; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d; 2011a 2011b, 2012; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011; Vargas-Sanchez *et al.*, 2009, 2011; Ward & Berno, 2011; Yu *et al.*, 2011). The premise of these studies rest on the assumption that residents' perceptions of tourism are at least as important as the actual benefits and costs resulting from the sector's development, if not more so (McGehee & Andereck, 2004).

Early studies on residents' support for tourism were criticized for being atheoretical because it was unclear why residents of a destination perceived and responded to tourism as they did, and under what conditions they reacted to the impacts of tourism by supporting or opposing the sector's development (Husbands, 1989). In response to these criticisms, researchers started making use of several theories to explain community support for tourism and the antecedents of

such support. Some of these theories include social exchange theory (SET) (Ap, 1992; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2010), tourist area life cycle (Butler, 1980), irridex model (Doxey, 1975), intrinsic/extrinsic framework (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997), identity theory (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2010), social representation theory (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000, 2001), growth machine theory (Martin, 1999), and theory of planned behavior/theory of reasoned action (Delamere, 2001; Lepp, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010c; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011; Zhang, Inbakaran, & Jackson, 2006).

Although each theory has contributed in its own way to this area of investigation, SET has been the most widely utilized in explaining residents' support for tourism and has made significant theoretical contributions to this field of study (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010; Lee, Kang, Long, & Reisinger, 2010; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a). Ap (1992) described SET as "a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation" (p. 668). Applied to a tourism context, SET posits that residents' support is determined by their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism development. The popularity of SET can be attributed to the fact that the theory recognizes the heterogeneous nature of a host community where different groups of individuals exhibit different levels of support for tourism, depending on their perceptions of the benefits and costs arising from the sector's development.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Central to SET are the concepts of power (Emerson, 1962) and trust (Blau, 1964) between the actors in an exchange process. The dynamics of power and trust in social exchanges can be understood through Michael Foucault's theoretical lens which is useful because it combines



power and trust in social relationships in a single perspective. Michael Foucault's analysis of modern power relates to his claim that in all social relations, 'power is always there', and that one is never 'outside' it (Lynch, 1998). Foucault (1978) noted that "power is everywhere not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere ... it is produced from one moment to the next, at the very point, or rather in every relation from one point to another" (p. 92-93). He argued that power should be understood as the multiplicity of force relations immanent in the sphere in which they operate and which constitutes their own organization. Power exists in a set of specific relationships and actors are positioned within this network of power relations (Foucault, 1978). Power is also present in institutions of all kinds, from those which have economic significance to non-political ones (Foucault, 1980). The Foucauldian approach contradicts the traditional perspective on power where power is seen as a matter of one person or group exercising sovereign control over another; where one person or group gives orders and others obey; where someone imposes his/her will on others (Stein & Harper, 2003; Taylor, 1986).

Thus, Foucault (1978, 1980) conceptualized power as a fluid concept rather than what is portrayed by an inventory of formal laws and rules or by the notion of exercised power by one dominant group over the other. Michael Foucault replaced the traditional notion of power with a different one where power exists and is manifested in all social relations – be they linguistic, institutional, economic, religious, *etc.* (Stein & Harper, 2003). Foucault's conceptualization that power is a relational construct which is omnipresent in all social relations is inherent to SET (Stillman, 2003; Zafirovski, 2005). In line with Foucault's perspective, Ap (1992) argued that power in social exchanges is not used in the context of authoritarian rule, but rather in a way to achieve mutual benefits between the actors involved in the exchange process. He further noted

that inclusion of power in social exchanges is necessary because it determines the partners' ability to take advantage of the outcomes of the exchange.

Foucault (1984) also linked power with truth in social relations and in doing so, he provided a useful basis for understanding truth in societies and among social actors. He argued that "truth isn't outside power, or lacking in power ... Truth is a thing in this world .... And it induces regular effects of power (p. 131). Foucault (1984) considered that truth is the construct of political and economic forces within the societal web. He identified the creation of truth in contemporary society along the following traits: the centering of truth on scientific discourse; the accountability of truth to economic and political forces; the diffusion and consumption of truth via societal apparatuses; and the control of the distribution of truth by political and economic apparatuses. He went on to argue that truth arises from political debate and social confrontation. Foucault (1984) further suggested that each society has its regime of truth, its "general politics" of truth (p. 131). For Foucault (1984, 1980), truth should be understood as a system of ordered procedures for the production, regulation, distribution, and operation of statements.

Michael Foucault's notion that truth is omnipresent in all aspects of a society is reinforced by Stein and Harper (2003) who argued that social discourses should not be understood only in terms of power, but they should also be viewed as comprising of trust among social actors. The researchers further asserted that a theoretical privileging of the concept of power only may blind researchers and scholars to other realities and could bring despair and suspicions among social actors, undermining their trust. They noted that an acute awareness of power may also induce paralysis and create a feeling of disempowerment for those who already see themselves as less powerful in the development process. An over focus on power may also

be dangerous to planning theories as it may mean that everything is interpreted within a reductionist framework of power. Trust is useful in reducing conflicts and promoting effective collaboration and partnerships in planning and development (Beierle & Konisky, 2000; Swain & Tait, 2007; Laurian, 2009). For these reasons, Stein and Harper (2003) urged researchers to pay equal attention to the vocabulary of trust in social relations.

Alongside with power, trust has also been recognized as an important theoretical construct of SET (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Molm, Takahashi, & Peterson, 2000). The concept is considered as the most important among the key variables of SET by social exchange theorists (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958). Its fundamental role in social exchanges is reinforced because exchange of benefits is a voluntary action and entails unspecified future obligations (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Benefits in a social exchange do not occur on a calculated or *quid pro quo* basis (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Consequently, the persistence and extension of social exchange are based on implicit trust among the actors involved in an exchange relationship (Blau, 1964; Zafirovski, 2005).

An important conclusion that can be drawn from the discussion above is that social exchange relationships are based on a mixture of both power and trust (Bachmann, 2001). These two concepts complement one another to predict social actors' behaviors across different contexts and situations. They should therefore be considered simultaneously in any theory of social relations (Cook, Hardin, & Levi, 2005; Oberg & Svensson, 2010). SET provides a mechanism that connects Foucault's notion of power and trust in a single empirically testable framework. It is important that studies making use of SET to explain social relations and actors'

behaviors include both constructs simultaneously as this may enhance the predictive power of the theory.

Unfortunately, this has not been the case with existing research that uses SET to understand community support for tourism. Ap's (1992) seminal work on this topic, although valuable to researchers, scholars, and practitioners, failed to consider the role of trust between actors in the exchange process. The numerous empirical studies that followed Ap's work have largely neglected trust as a key component of the social exchange relationship between residents of a destination and tourism actors (*e.g.* Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Latkova & Vogt, in 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2010; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d, 2011b; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011; Ward & Berno, 2011). Although some studies have considered residents' perceptions of their level of power as an important determinant of their perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of tourism (*e.g.* Madrigal, 1993; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Latkova & Vogt, 2012), research on trust as a central construct of SET has been virtually silent in the literature on this topic. In this context, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a) argued that:

The core ideas of trust and power that comprise the SET have yet to be adequately integrated in a single framework in research on community responses to tourism. Tests of the SET, as well as its application by researchers investigating residents' attitudes have been based on an incomplete specified set of ideas, leaving out important theoretical constructs relevant to the theory (p. 966).

### **1.3 STUDY PURPOSE AND RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS**

#### **1.3.1 The Conceptual Model of the Study**

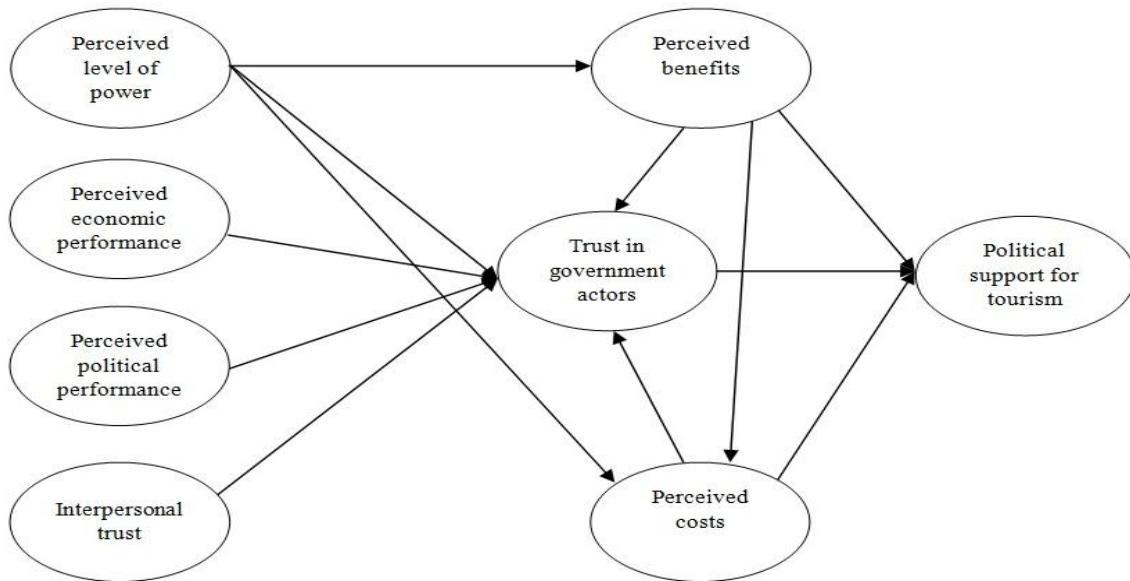
This study attempts to fill the gaps identified above by making a 'complete' use of SET. Ap (1992) considers SET as "a useful theoretical framework, which can account for both the

positive and negative impacts of tourism as perceived by the host community” and is a “logically and intuitively appealing one that may be used to explain why residents develop positive or negative perceptions of tourism impacts” (p. 685). However, the full potential of the theory can only be achieved if its core construct (*e.g.* trust and power) are included in a single conceptual model that explains residents’ reactions to tourism. Unlike existing studies, this study achieves this by incorporating the concepts of trust and power in an integrative model that predicts residents’ trust in government actors and their political support for tourism development.

Grounded in a political economy perspective, the study investigates these concepts in the context of a social exchange relationship between residents’ and local government actors involved in tourism development Niagara Region, Ontario, Canada. For the purpose of this study, local government is defined as the lowest tier of the public administration system and includes the different institutions that have a role in tourism development and planning in Niagara Region. Political economy suggests that government has a central role in tourism development, planning, and regulation of the sector (Bramwell, 2011). It controls development through formal ministries, departments, or councils (Elliot, 1997). Thus, residents’ exchange partner in tourism development is the local government and trust is conceptualized as residents’ trust in local government actors involved in tourism planning and development. In political science, citizens’ trust in government actors is also referred to as political trust, or institutional trust, or citizens’ trust in institutions (Luhiste, 2006, Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005). These terms are used synonymously in this research and hereafter. Political trust is the belief that the political system or some of it will produce preferred outcomes (in tourism development) even in the absence of constant scrutiny (Miller & Listhaug, 1990; Shi, 2001). Power in this study refers to

the residents' perceptions of their level of influence in decisions related to tourism development in their community (Madrigal, 1993).

Using existing theoretical postulates and empirical evidences found in the tourism and political science literature, the conceptual model of the study is developed (Figure 1.1). The model has its theoretical basis SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust. The latter two theories have commonly been used to study citizens' trust in government institutions by political scientists (*e.g.* Luhiste, 2006; Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005; Wong, Wan, & Hsiao, 2011). These theories provide different perspectives on political trust and its determinants. The conceptual model of the study is based on theoretical reasoning and empirical findings from the tourism and political science literature.



**Figure 1.1. The Proposed Model of the Study**

In the line with SET, the model proposes that residents' political support for tourism is influenced by their perceptions of the impacts (benefits and costs) of tourism (Ap, 1992; Gursoy

& Rutherford, 2004; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a, 2011b, 2012). Some evidence also suggests that residents' perceptions of tourism impacts are not mutually exclusive and a change in the perceptions of one type of impact is likely to influence perceptions of other types of impacts (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Based on this assertion, the model also proposes that residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism influence their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

Residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism planning and development is another important construct in the model. SET and the findings of many empirical studies in political science suggest that citizens' trust in government institutions is a significant determinant of political support for government policies and strategies (Backstrom & Edlund, 2012; Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Hetherington, 2004; Marien & Hooghe, 2011; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). Using the latter studies as basis, the conceptual model posits that residents' trust in government actors in tourism influences their level of support for tourism development. SET and the empirical findings of some other studies suggest that positive and negative outcomes resulting from an exchange process influence the level of trust between actors (Blau, 1964; Farrell, 2004; Lambe, Wittmann, & Spekman, 2001). Thus, the conceptual model further proposes that residents' trust in government actors is influenced by their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism which is largely determined by the tourism policies and strategies of the government. As SET predicts, residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism is further proposed to be influenced by their perceptions of the level of power in tourism development (Ap, 1992; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Madrigal, 1993).

The study also investigates the determinants of residents' trust in government actors. Institutional theory of political trust suggests that public trust is endogenous (internal) to the political system, determined by citizens' evaluations of the economic and political performance of government institutions (Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005; Wong *et al.*, 2011) and the extent to which these institutions share power with citizens in decision-making (Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009). Thus, the conceptual model also proposes that residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors in tourism development and their perceptions of their level of power in tourism decision-making are predictors of their level of trust in those actors. On the contrary, cultural theory of political trust posits that citizens' trust is exogenous to the political system and is determined by a society's cultural values and norms (Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005). Accordingly, based on existing empirical studies in political science (*e.g.* Delhey, Newton, & Welzel, 2011; Kaase, 1999; Luhiste, 2006), the conceptual model suggests that residents' trust in tourism actors is influenced by interpersonal trust, that is, the extent to which society members trust one another.

### **1.3.2 Research Propositions**

The conceptual model leads to the development of eight research propositions that the study seeks to answer. Table 1.1 provides the theoretical and empirical foundations of each research proposition. Each proposition is developed based on the postulates of one of the three theories that underlie this study: SET, institutional theory of political trust, and the cultural theory of political trust. These propositions are answered by testing empirically a number of hypotheses that emerge from the model.



**Table 1.1**  
**Research Propositions and Their Theoretical and Empirical Foundations**

Research Propositions (RP)	Theoretical Foundation	Empirical Foundation	Nature of Research Propositions in Relation to Existing Tourism Literature
RP1: Residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their political support for tourism development.	Social exchange theory	Gursoy & Rutherford (2004); Nunkoo & Gursoy (2012); Latkova & Vogt (2012); Nunkoo & Ramkissoon (2011a, 2011b, 2012)	Confirming proposition
RP2: Residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism influence their perceptions of the costs of tourism.	Social exchange theory	Gursoy & Rutherford (2004); Gursoy & Kendall (2006)	Contributing proposition
RP3: Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influence their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism.	Social exchange theory	Madrigal (1993); Nunkoo & Ramkissoon (2011a); Latkova & Vogt (2012)	Confirming proposition
RP4: Residents' trust in government actors influences their political support for tourism development.	Social exchange theory	Hetherington (2004); Hetherington & Globetti (2002); Rudolph & Evans (2005); Gabriel & Trudinger (2011)	Contributing proposition
RP5: Residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their trust in government actors.	Social exchange theory	Blau (1964); Citrin (1974); Farrell (2004)	Contributing proposition
RP6: Residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors influence their trust in these actors.	Institutional theory of political trust	Luhiste (2006); Mishler & Rose (2001, 2005); Wong <i>et al.</i> , (2011)	Contributing proposition
RP7: Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influence their trust in government actors.	Institutional theory of political trust	Freitag & Buhlmann (2009); Oberg & Svensson (2010)	Contributing proposition
RP8: Interpersonal trust among residents influences their trust in government actors.	Cultural theory of political trust	Delhey <i>et al.</i> , (2011); Kaase (1999); Luhiste (2006); Mishler & Rose (2001); Dowley & Silver (2002)	Contributing proposition

## **1.4 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY**

### **1.4.1 Theoretical Contributions**

Table 1.1 outlines the theoretical contributions that the study's research propositions make to existing literature. A large number of studies have investigated residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism (*e.g.* Allen *et al.*, 1993; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Lankford, 1994; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Lepp, 2007, 2008; Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b, 2012; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Yu *et al.*, 2011). Yet, very few researchers (*e.g.* Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004) have investigated whether interactions exist among residents' perceptions of the different impacts of tourism. Investigating such relationships is important because evidence suggests that perceptions of tourism impacts are not mutually exclusive, that is, perceptions of one type of impact is likely to influence the ways in which residents' perceive the other types of impacts (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). By investigating the relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism by testing empirically Research Proposition 2 (Table 1.1), this study adds to the limited research on this area of investigation.

The study also contributes to the very limited literature on residents' trust in government actors in the context of tourism development and planning. "Trust relationships are fundamental to the stability of democratic societies and to the orderly conduct of social and economic affairs, and they have become a central topic of concern in the social science" (Cook, 2001, p. xxviii). Trust is also an essential component of civic culture (Marien & Hooghe, 2011) and an important mechanism for social coordination, problem solving, and functioning of modern and complex societies (Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011). In a political context, trust is important because it ensures a democratic political system (Almond & Verba, 1963) and citizens' political support for

development (Earle, Siegrist, & Gutscher, 2007; Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Marien & Hooghe, 2011).

However, despite the centrality of trust for the development of a modern and democratic society, there is a paucity of research on political trust in tourism studies. In fact, the literature on the politics of tourism has been traditionally dominated by the concept of power (*e.g.* Altinay & Bowen, 2006; Beritelli & Laesser 2011; Bramwell, 2006; Bramwell & Meyer, 2007; Cheong & Miller, 2000; Doorne, 1998; Elliott, 1983; Fallon, 2001; Ford, Wang, & Vestal, 2012; Hall, 1994, 2003, 2010; Hannam, 2002; Macleod & Carrier, 2010; Moscardo, 2011; Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010; Obenour & Cooper, 2010; Reed, 1997). However, researchers have paid very little attention to trust as an important ingredient of tourism planning and development. Stein and Harper (2003) warned that an over focus of power is dangerous to planning theories and they invited researchers and scholars to consider trust as an important ingredient in development planning. The study of trust is more than ever important because scientists have expressed concerns about citizens' declining trust in government institutions and planning procedures (Beierle & Konisky, 2000; Catterberg & Moreno, 2005; Cook, 2001; Hooghe, 2011; Laurian, 2009; Nye, Zelikow, & King, 1997; Scheidegger & Staerke, 2011; Swain & Tait, 2007), including those related to tourism (Bramwell, 2011).

Research on residents' support for tourism also suffers from a paucity of studies on trust. Although a number of researchers and scholars have developed and tested different models of community support for tourism based on SET (*e.g.* Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b; 2010c, 2010d, 2011b; Latkova & Vogt, 2012), trust as a key variable of the theory has been omitted in the majority of

studies. Social exchange theorists describe trust as the most important of the key variables in social exchanges (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Holmes, 1981). Yet, the role of trust in the context of a social exchange relationship between residents and government actors in tourism is not well-known to researchers.

This is despite the fact that several studies in political science suggest that residents' trust in government institutions is a strong determinant of their political support for development (*e.g.* Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Hetherington, 2004; Hetherington & Globetti, 2002; Marien & Hooghe, 2011). Although a few researchers (*e.g.* Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a, 2012; Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, & Gursoy, 2012) have investigated the role of trust in tourism development, these studies contain some theoretical limitations that need to be addressed. Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a, 2012) provide valuable insights on the role of trust in fostering community support for tourism. However, their studies are limited because the models tested are based solely on the postulates of SET and do not provide any insights on the determinants of residents' trust in government actors in tourism. On the contrary, Nunkoo *et al.*'s (2012) used institutional theory of political trust and cultural theory of political trust to investigate the antecedents of residents' trust in government actors. However, the study considered trust as the only determinant of support for tourism and failed to take into account two important variables of SET (residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism) that have been found to be strong predictors of support in many previous studies (*e.g.* Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Ko & Steward, 2002; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012).

The implications of these are that existing research on this topic is based on incomplete theoretical propositions and may be lacking in predictive power. It is therefore important that

these studies are enhanced and made theoretically more robust so that a more accurate analysis of residents' support for tourism is made. This study addresses this gap in existing literature by testing empirically Research Proposition 4 (RP4, Table 1.1). The study also contributes theoretically to the literature by investigating the determinants of residents' trust in government actors by testing empirically Research Propositions 5, 6, 7, and 8 (RP5, RP6, RP7, and RP8, Table 1.1) that have been developed based on the postulates of SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust. So far, the latter two theories have remained under-utilized in tourism studies.

Another noteworthy theoretical contribution of this study relates to the simultaneous inclusion of the concepts of trust and power in a single study. Social scientists have been urging for more research on the relationship between power and trust than hitherto has been carried out on trust, and note that, theoretically, they should be studied jointly (Oberg & Svenssoon, 2010). Cook *et al.* (2005) argued that “power inequalities are ubiquitous in modern societies; thus, any treatise of trust must take them seriously. They cannot be assumed away in any theory that deals with the world of social relations and social institutions” (p. 40). These researchers stressed the need for more empirical research on the relationship between power and trust because this remains poorly investigated. However, so far, there is scant empirical evidence on the relationship between power and trust in the broader social science literature, including that of tourism. Social scientists are still unsure whether one needs to be powerful to be trusted or whether power drives out trust (Cook *et al.*, 2005; Hardin, 2004).

Therefore, it is important that both constructs are considered simultaneously in a single conceptual model. This research addresses this gap by incorporating the concepts of power and

trust in a single model investigating the empirical relationship between them. This is achieved by testing empirically Research Proposition 8 (RP8, Table 1.1). It is to be noted that it is not the purpose of this research to discredit existing studies which adopt a power perspective to study the political dimensions of tourism. On the contrary, this research builds on these previous studies by considering trust (in addition to power) as a new perspective in the study of the politics of tourism. By understanding the dynamics of power and trust in the context of tourism development, partners involved in the exchange can strategically adjust social relations to achieve mutually desired outcomes. By considering these concepts jointly, this research provides researchers and scholars with a better theoretical understanding of why residents are, or are not positively/negatively disposed toward tourism development.

Finally, the theoretical basis of the model (Figure 1.1) should also be seen as a contribution to the literature. Nunkoo, Smith, and Ramkissoon (in press) reviewed 140 studies on residents' support for tourism published in *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Tourism Management*, and *Journal of Travel Research* and reported that the majority of studies on the topic made use of SET. However, unlike existing studies, the present research develops and tests a political support model for tourism based not only on SET, but also on the institutional theory of political trust and cultural theory of political trust. The latter theories of political trust complement SET which has been found to suffer from a number of weaknesses and a lack of predictive power (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2010; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Pearce, Moscardo, & Ross, 1996; Ward & Berno, 2011). While some researchers found full support for SET (*e.g.* Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a, 2011b, 2012), other studies found only partial support for the theory (*e.g.* Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Andereck *et al.* (2005) encouraged researchers to

investigate community support from other theoretical perspectives because of the weaknesses of SET. Thus, the present study is potentially theoretically more robust than existing ones as it embraces the concept of theoretical triangulation that involves using multiple theoretical perspectives to interpret a single set of data (Dezin, 1978). Decrop (1999) provided a number of well-rehearsed arguments in favor of theoretical triangulation.

#### **1.4.2 Practical Contributions**

Findings from this study have important implications for practitioners and for tourism policy-making. Residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism and their support for the sector's development have a significant influence on tourism development policies in a destination (Yu *et al.*, 2011). Policy-makers, destination managers, tourism planners, and local government officials could benefit from a better understanding of how residents react to tourism development in a destination (Sirakaya *et al.*, 2008). Planners and developers can make use of the research results to mitigate the negative impacts of tourism development on local communities while enhancing the positive ones in an attempt to ensure the sustainability of the sector. The model of study proposes that community support for tourism development is influenced by several factors. Thus, the study's findings can assist tourism planners and developers in understanding the determinants of community support for tourism. Such an understanding can be used to formulate those types of tourism policies and strategies that are likely to be endorsed by the local community members. Results of this study can also provide important information to local officials on citizens' evaluation of the performance of local government actors in tourism development and the determinants of their trust in those actors. Officials can make use of the

study's findings to gain residents' trust in tourism institutions to ensure a more democratic and sustainable form of tourism development and to increase legitimacy of local government.

## **1.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter defined the research problem, discussed the objectives of the study, and presented the conceptual framework of the research and the research propositions of the study. The theoretical and practical contributions of the study were also outlined. The next chapter (Chapter 2) provides support for the inclusion of each variable and relationships depicted in the proposed model of the study (Figure 1.1). The research hypotheses that will be tested empirically to answer the research propositions are also introduced.



## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter is devoted to providing support for the proposed model of the study and to reviewing the contributions of previous studies relevant to the conceptual and methodological aspects of this research. The first part of the chapter introduces political economy and discusses its usefulness in studying tourism development and governance processes. The second section defines SET and discusses the core constructs of the theory (benefits, costs, power, trust, and support). The next section of this chapter draws widely from the political science literature and introduces readers to institutional theory of political trust and cultural theory of political trust as basis to study the antecedents of residents' trust in government actors. This chapter also provides theoretical and empirical justifications for each proposed relationship depicted in the model of the study. The hypotheses developed to test empirically the research propositions presented in Chapter 1 (Table 1.1) are also introduced in this chapter

#### **2.2 POLITICAL ECONOMY OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT**

Political economy, a broad social theory that has been widely used in social science, is concerned with the political nature of decision-making and with how politics affects choices in a society. It encompasses a wide variety of approaches to studying the relationship between the 'the economy' and its 'non-economic' (*i.e.* political, socio-cultural, psychological, and geographical) context and provides an understanding of structures and social relations that form societies in order to evoke social change toward more equitable and democratic conditions (Mosedale, 2011). Political economy provides a useful perspective to study tourism development and

governance processes, yet it has been an uncommon approach in tourism studies (Bramwell, 2011). Nevertheless, some researchers have successfully applied it to study tourism development (*e.g.* Bianchi, 2009; Hall, 2006; Mosedale, 2011). Williams (2004) noted that important theoretical developments in political economy have been largely neglected in tourism studies. Mosedale (2011) argued that “political economy (in its various guises and transfigurations) still has much to offer tourism analyses and should not be ignored or indeed written off in favor of a more fashionable approach to studying and analyzing tourism” (p. 7).

The political economy approach considers that the state has an influential role in managing and promoting tourism development (Webster, Ivanov, Illum, 2011). Although some researchers argue that the role of government in tourism has been declining, its role in the sector’s development and regulations should in no circumstances be neglected (Bramwell, 2011; Newman & Clarke, 2009). In fact, government is the principal actor in the political process of tourism development (Bramwell, 2011; Hall, 1994) and has usually adopted a more interventionist approach in tourism development than in other sectors (Ruhanen, *in press*). Government controls the industry through formal ministries and other institutions (Elliot, 1997), and intervenes in tourism development for environmental, political, and economic reasons (Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010). Hall (2005) is of the view that governments have seven functions in tourism development: coordination, planning, legislation and regulation, entrepreneurship, stimulation, social tourism, and public interest protection roles.

Traditionally economic gains in the form of tax revenues, income, and employment were the principal reasons for government to intervene in tourism by developing infrastructure and services and committing considerable funds to destination marketing and promotion (Bramwell,

1994; Charlton & Essex, 2000; Faulkner, 1994; Joppe, 1996; Laws, Scott, & Parfitt, 2002; Middleton, 1994; Murphy, 1985). Overtime, the negative effects of tourism development and local residents' opposition and reluctance to accept tourism have meant that government's roles in the sector have extended beyond economic considerations to address the environmental and social consequences of development (Inskeep, 1988; Ruhanen, in press). The diffusion of the sustainable development concept in the 1980s has also led governments to assume greater roles and responsibilities in tourism planning and development (Ruhanen, in press). Governments now usually attempt to secure a balance between economic priorities, the environment, and the local society in order to gain political support for tourism development (Bramwell, 2011). Wearing and Neil (2009) asserted that only governments and public authorities can coordinate efforts to achieve sustainable tourism.

Political economy does not only focus on government intervention in tourism development, but this approach also emphasizes on the importance of the state's relationship with society. Jessop (2008) argued that political economy "starts from the proposition that the state is a social relation" and is "socially embedded" (p. 1, 5). Government's responsiveness to its citizens is a key issue in political economy (Besley & Burgess, 2002). Bramwell (2011) argued that the state is well-placed to work in the interests of the citizens who may often hold it accountable for policy decisions. The public can also call upon the government to improve coordination in a range of issues on policy-making for sustainable tourism. Thus, a politically stable relationship between the state and the citizens is important to maintain political legitimacy and effective authority (Purcell & Nevins, 2005) and to ensure the state's ability to reflect the popular will (Bramwell, 2011).

O'Neil (2007) distinguished among four types of political economy, each characterized by varying roles and degree of intervention of government in tourism. His view provides a useful basis to study tourism development and governance processes across different societies. The four different political economic systems and their characteristics are shown in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1**  
**Political Economic Systems and their Characteristics**

	<b>Liberalism</b>	<b>Social democracy</b>	<b>Communism</b>	<b>Mercantilism</b>
<b>Role of government</b>	Little; minimal welfare state	Some government regulation; large welfare state	Total state ownership; extensive welfare state	Much state ownership; small welfare state
<b>Role of the market</b>	Paramount	Important but not sacrosanct	None	Limited
<b>Government autonomy</b>	Low	Moderate	Very high	High
<b>Importance of equality</b>	Low	High	High	Low
<b>How is policy made?</b>	Pluralism	Corporatism	Government/party	Government
<b>Possible flaws</b>	Inequality; monopolies	Expense of the welfare state; inefficiency	Authoritarianism and inefficiency	Can tend toward authoritarianism; can distort market
<b>Examples</b>	United States; United Kingdom; Canada	Germany, Sweden; Finland	Cuba; Soviet Union; China	Japan; South Korea; India

*Adapted from O'Neil (2007)*

The liberal model is characterized by minimal welfare state, low state involvement in tourism, and high levels of social and economic inequality. This political economic system is based on the assumption that the market is the best mechanism to allocate tourism resources among society members in the best possible and most efficient ways. However, one of the drawbacks of such an economic system is that it leads to an unequal distribution of wealth and other resources among tourism actors and it has weak institutions to deal with the tourism sector (Webster *et al.* 2011). In contrast to liberal regimes, the communist model is characterized by

total state ownership, extensive welfare state, and a high emphasis on social and economic equality. In such an economic system, almost no emphasis is placed on market forces as a mechanism for resource allocation. Private ownership of resources is also minimized to allow for greater equality in economic and social outcomes among tourism actors (Webster *et al.* 2011).

Mercantilist political economies allow for private ownership of resources, but with a great deal of state intervention and low emphasis on equality (Webster *et al.* 2011). In such an economic system, political leadership largely influences the ways in which the market is managed and resources are allocated. While such an economic system ensures that the country is strong economically and militarily, some degree of inequality among social actors is evident. The social democratic model is characterized by some level of government intervention in the economy, the existence of a large welfare state, and a high focus on equality. Mercantilists and social democratic political economies tend to have stronger public agencies to deal with the challenges of the tourism sector than other political economic systems. Mercantilist states also have a high tendency toward privatization of tourism services, whereas social democratic political economies focus on how tourism development can result in benefits for the society (Webster *et al.* 2011).

Webster *et al.* (2011) argued that few economies would fit completely into any one category and some overlaps may exist. Nevertheless, the researchers noted that the ways in which government respond to tourism development is largely influenced by the type of political economic system prevailing. They argued that “organizational responses to tourism are

inherently political decisions dealing with quantity and quality of regulation that the state will have upon the tourism industry” (p. 60).

While political economy is a broad theory that provides a valuable perspective to study state’s activities in tourism development, distribution of tourism benefits among society members, power relationships among tourism stakeholders, citizens’ trust in government actors and its determinants, and political support for tourism (Bramwell, 2011; Dredge & Jenkins, 2007; Korczynski, 2000; Mosedale, 2011; Wang & Bramwell, 2012), SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust enable an empirical testing of the relationships among the key concepts of political economy. In doing so, these theories shed further lights on the relationship between government actors and residents in tourism development. More specifically, SET allows an understanding of how residents’ perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism, their perceived level of power in tourism development, and their trust in government actors interact to influence their political support for tourism development, while institutional theory of political trust and cultural theory of political trust provide valuable insights on the institutional and cultural determinants of residents’ trust in government actors in tourism.

### **2.3 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY**

Early studies on residents’ support for tourism were criticized for being atheoretical and as a result, it was unclear why residents perceived and responded to tourism as they did, and under what conditions they reacted to the impacts of the industry (Husbands, 1989). In an attempt to address these shortcomings and provide a better explanation of residents’ perceptions of and their support for tourism, researchers started making use of a number of theoretical frameworks to guide their research. Among these theories, SET has been very instrumental in strengthening

the theoretical foundation of this field of investigation. Originally developed in sociology to explain social interactions, SET has been found to be one of the most applicable and relevant theories in explaining community support for tourism development (Andereck *et al.*, 2005). Emerson (1981) noted that social exchange involves a minimum of two persons, each of whom provides some benefits to the other, and contingent upon rewards from the other. A few seminal studies that have contributed to the development of SET worth mentioning include that of Homans (1958), Thibaut and Kelley (1959), Emerson (1962), and Blau (1964). Homans (1958) emphasized on social behavior in the exchange process. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) discussed how actors in an exchange relationship weigh the benefits of the exchange relation. Emerson's (1962) work related to the concept of power between the actors in an exchange relationship, while Blau (1964) emphasized social interaction as an exchange process.

SET is based on the premise that human behavior or social interaction is an exchange of activity, tangible and intangible, particularly of rewards and costs (Homans, 1961). It analyzes how the structure of rewards and costs in a relationship affects patterns of interaction (Molm, 1991). SET considers exchange as the basis of human behavior (Homans, 1961). Actors in an exchange process are dependent on one another for outcomes they value. They behave in a way that increases outcomes they positively value and decreases outcomes they negatively value, and if the benefits from the exchange exceed the costs, actors engage in recurring exchanges over time (Cook, Molm, & Yamagishi, 1993). SET posits that all individuals' decisions to engage in an interaction process are based on the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. Individuals engage in an exchange process once they have judged the rewards and the costs, and will enter relationships in which they can maximize benefits and minimize costs. Actors will engage in an exchange if the resulting rewards are of value to them

and the perceived costs do not exceed the perceived benefits (Ap, 1992). Interactions are likely to continue only if both parties feel that they are benefitting more from the exchange than they are giving up.

Social exchanges differ from economic ones in several fundamental ways. While benefits involved in economic exchanges are formal and often contractual, such benefits and their exact nature are rarely negotiated in social exchanges (Blau, 1964). Exchange of benefits is a voluntary action and entails unspecified future obligations (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Whitener *et al.*, 1998). Benefits do not occur on a calculated or *quid pro quo* basis (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). There is also no guarantee that there will be a reciprocation of benefits. Thus, social exchanges involve uncertainty, particularly in the early stages of the relationship (Whitener *et al.*, 1998). Like economic exchanges, in social exchanges, there exists an expectation of some future returns for contributions between the exchange partners, although the exact nature of the returns is not known or negotiated in social exchanges (Blau, 1964). Social exchanges are also characterized by long-term fairness in contrast to short-term fairness that underpins economic exchanges (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). According to SET, social exchange involves benefits with economic and/or social outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976; Lambe *et al.*, 2001). Whitener *et al.* (1998) noted that exchanges without any objective utility may have a significant impact on the social dimension of the relationship.

From a tourism perspective, Sutton (1967) argued that the encounter between the host community and the guests “may provide either an opportunity for rewarding and satisfying exchanges, or it may stimulate and reinforce impulses to exploitation on the part of the host” (p. 221). Supporting his assertion, a number of studies (*e.g.* Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy *et*



*al.*, 2010; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b; Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2001) found that the economic, social, and environmental elements resulting for the host-tourism exchange process affect residents' support for tourism development. The findings of these studies suggest that the value attributed to the elements of the exchange influences the way in which residents of a destination perceive tourism and determines the level of community acceptance of tourism development. "The way that residents perceive the economic, socio-cultural and environmental elements of exchange affects the manner in which they react to tourism" (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003, p. 173). Such reactions are manifested in residents' support for or opposition to tourism development. The findings of existing studies suggest that in a host-tourism context, the elements in an exchange process include not only economic benefits and costs, but also social, cultural and environmental ones.

SET is particularly appealing to study community support for tourism because it takes into account those benefits and costs to explain support. Support is defined as an "attitude by which a person orients himself to an object either favorably or unfavourably, positively or negatively" (Easton, 1965, p. 436). Here, the "object" refers to tourism development. Government requires a certain amount of political support for its policies to persist or flourish (Gregory & Gibson, 1992). In a tourism context, political economy suggests that it is important for government to maintain legitimacy and influence on governance processes by ensuring that the local population supports its policies (Wang & Bramwell, 2012).

### **2.3.1 Residents' Perceived Benefits of Tourism**

Residents' support for tourism development is influenced by their perceptions of the benefits and costs of the sector (Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon,

2011a, 2011b). Previous studies suggest that residents perceive tourism to result in employment opportunities, better infrastructure, more business and investment opportunities (Dyer, Gursoy, Sharma, & Carter, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b), more public development, and improvement in the local economy (Latkova & Vogt, 2012). The majority of studies investigating the relationship between perceived economic benefits and support report a positive relationship between the two constructs (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010). The positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism as perceived by residents also are well documented. Studies suggest that tourism provides opportunities for cultural exchanges between hosts and guests (Besculides, Lee, & McCormick, 2002), increases entertainment opportunities for local people (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Latkova & Vogt, 2012), encourages development of cultural activities (Gursoy *et al.*, 2010), improves the image of a destination (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2007), and leads to the preservation of cultural and historic sites (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2010b).

SET postulates that individuals are likely to support tourism development if they believe that they are likely to gain from the development (Ap, 1992; Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010d). In support of SET, several studies report a positive relationship between perceived benefits and support for tourism (Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b). Based on the preceding theoretical and empirical discussion from the literature, it can logically be proposed that stronger perceptions of the benefits of tourism are likely to lead to higher support for tourism development while weaker perceptions of the benefits of tourism is likely to lead to lower support for development. Hence, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.*

### **2.3.2 Residents' Perceived Costs of Tourism**

Development of tourism also results in several costs on local communities that may threaten legitimacy of government and political support (Wang & Bramwell, 2012). Tourism has been found to increase cost of living (Liu & Var, 1986; Perdue *et al.*, 1990), price of land and housing (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Husbands, 1989; Liu *et al.*, 1987; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Pizam, 1978; Tovar & Lockwood, 2008) and price of goods and services (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Husbands, 1989; Jackson & Inbakaran, 2006; Pizam, 1978). Existing studies also suggest that tourism development often leads to a lack of economic diversification (Jackson & Inbakaran, 2006), negatively affects the occupational distribution by sector and adversely affects a community's traditional employment pattern (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012). Residents also perceive that tourism destroys the natural environment, increases environmental pollution (Dyer *et al.*, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b), causes litter, leads to overcrowding, creates traffic congestion (Dyer *et al.*, 2007; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b), increases prostitution in a destination area (Dyer *et al.*, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a), causes vandalism, changes local culture, increases pressure on local services (Dyer *et al.*, 2007), and contributes to crime and substance abuse (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b).

SET posit that residents' who perceive tourism development to result in costs are likely to be less supportive of the sector's development. Findings of some empirical studies confirm this

postulate of SET and suggest that residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism is negatively related to their support for its development (e.g. Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Perdue *et al.*, 1990). However, some other research reveals an insignificant relationship between the two constructs (e.g. Dyer *et al.*, 2007; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy *et al.*, 2002). Thus, findings have generally been inconclusive, suggesting the need for further research to confirm the relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their support for the sector. The theoretical and empirical evidences from the literature led to the development of the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2 (H2): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.*

The above discussion suggests that residents perceive tourism to result in different types of impacts. Some community members are apt to tourism as having both positive and negative impacts; other residents perceive tourism development to result in negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts; and some others are inclined to view tourism as having positive impacts of the local economy, the environment, and the society (Yoon *et al.*, 2001). Some researchers argue that residents' perceptions of tourism impacts are not mutually exclusive, that is, a change in the perceptions of one type of impact is likely to influence other types of impacts.

Gursoy and Kendall (2006) argued that "the most salient impact is likely to influence the perceptions of all other impacts" (p. 610). For example, if residents' perceive the benefits of tourism to be more important than the costs, then perceptions of these benefits are likely to influence their perceptions of the costs. Although the relationship between perceived benefits

and costs is not well established in the literature (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006), there is some evidence confirming that interactions exist among residents' perceptions of the different impacts of tourism. For example, Gursoy and Kendall's (2006) study revealed a significant negative relationship between perceived benefits and costs. The research by Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) also suggested that perceived benefits and costs of tourism interact and the study revealed a negative relationship between them. Based on the above theoretical and empirical evidence from the literature, the following hypothesis is developed:

*Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.*

### **2.3.3 Residents Perceptions of their Level of Power in Tourism**

Power is a central concept of SET (Emerson, 1962) and an underlying theme of political economy (Mosedale, 2011). It has been a subject of discussion in the social science literature since the days of the Ancient Greece (Hall, 2010). However, it remains elusive despite the increasing number of studies on the concept. Although it is widely used in social science research, there is little agreement as to what constitute power, how to conceptualize it, and how to operationalize the research process (Doorne, 1998). Its elusiveness is demonstrated by the disagreement with respect to the definition and locus of power between sociologists and political scientists (Bachrach & Baratz, 1962). Political scientists argue that power is widely diffused in society and among social actors, while sociologically oriented researchers note that power is highly centralized. Consequently, the latter group styles itself as 'elitist' while the former as 'pluralist'. The divergent views on power have led researchers to conclude that it is an essentially contested concept.

Wolf (1999) provided an interesting perspective on power that highlights the omnipresence of power in society and in social relations by arguing that:

Power is often spoken of as if it were a unitary and independent force, sometime incarnated in the image of a giant monster such as Leviathan or Behemoth, or else as a machine that grows in capacity and ferocity by accumulating and generating more powers, more entities like itself. Yet it is best understood neither as an anthropomorphic force nor a giant machine but as an aspect of all relations among people (p. 4).

Dahl (1968) also referred to power in modern social science as “subsets of relations among social units such that the behaviors of one or more units ... depend in some circumstances on the behavior of other units” (p. 407). Both, Wolf (1999) and Dahl (1968) consider power as a relationship construct. Their definitions also highlight the manner in which power works differently in interpersonal and institutional relationships and society as a whole (Hall, 2011b).

Power is ubiquitous in tourism (Cheong & Miller, 2000) and it governs the interactions among actors influencing or trying to influence the formulation of tourism policy and the ways in which it is implemented (Hall, 1994). All decisions affecting tourism development, nature of government intervention, management of tourism, and community tourism issues emerge from a political process, involving the values of actors in a struggle for power (Hall, 2003). Thus, power among actors involved in tourism policy and planning has remained a central theme of many recent studies (*e.g.* Beritelli & Laesser 2011; Bramwell & Meyer, 2007; Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010). The debate on the structure of power in tourism is driven by a number of key questions: (1) What organization, group or class in the social structure under study receives the most of what people seek and value (who benefits)? (2) What organization, group or class is over-represented in the decision-making process (who sits)? (3) What organization, group or

class wins in the decision-making process (who wins)?, and (4) Who is considered to be powerful by others (who has a reputation for power)? (Domhoff, 2007).

The concept of power between social actors is a central component of SET (Emerson, 1962). Wrong (1979) noted that a common approach to conceptualize power in social exchanges is to enumerate the resources that enable an actor to exercise power on another. Thus, power in an exchange situation is determined by the actors' level of control over resources that another actor needs and values. A resource can be anything such as property, money, competence, knowledge, and skills owned by a person and that can be made available to others as instrumental to the satisfaction of their needs (Wolfe, 1959). March (1966) also suggested that power is a function of resources (*e.g.* economic, social, cultural, environmental, political), position (*e.g.* office, role), and skill (*e.g.* type of behavior, alliances, and coalitions). Thus, from a social exchange perspective, the word 'resources' is used very broadly and includes both materialistic and non-materialistic aspects, unlike in economic exchanges where the focus is on 'wealth' as a resource for the partners.

A partner with power is someone who owns and controls different resources which are available for exchange with the other partner. The greater these resources, the greater is the level of power of one actor over the other. In this context, Ap (1992) noted that "power is vested in the number and availability of valued resources that may be used as concessions to influence another (p. 680). It is also important to note that power in social exchanges is not used in the context of authoritarian rule, but rather in a way to achieve mutual benefits between the actors involved in the exchange process (Ap, 1992). Such a conceptualization of power is in line with Foucault's (1978) notion that power is not "a general system of domination exerted by one group

over another, a system whose effects, through successive derivations, pervade the entire social body” (p. 92). Ap (1992) argued that inclusion of power in social exchanges is necessary because it determines the partners’ ability to take advantage of the outcome of the exchange.

The level of power of actors has a considerable influence on the social exchange process (Ap, 1992; Baldwin, 1978; Cook & Emerson, 1978; Molm, 1991). Society comprises of different stakeholder groups, with some having more influence on the governance processes affecting tourism development than others (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007). The resources owned by the community members are important sources of power as they influence residents’ ability to influence tourism development in a community in order to satisfy their needs. These resources determine residents’ willingness and ability to enter an exchange process with tourism actors which in turn influence their perceptions of tourism impacts in the community (Ap, 1992; Kayat, 2002; Moscardo, 2005). Residents are often less powerful in tourism development than other actors, and there is often an unequal distribution of power among groups within the local community (Moscardo, 2011; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a). This is because residents often relinquish resources such as land and infrastructure to external businesses (Sulaiman, 1996), a lack of democratic tourism processes (Y. Li, 2004), reliance on external consulting companies to develop local tourism plans (Augustyn, 1998), and a lack of community understanding of tourism development and its consequences (Chakravarty, 2003; Pearce *et al.*, 1996; Reid, Mair, & George, 2004; Timothy, 1999).

Ap (1992) asserted that “when the form of relation involves an imbalance and is asymmetrical, the disadvantaged host actors’ perceptions will be negative” (p. 683). His argument is confirmed by a number of empirical studies. Supporting Ap’s (1992) proposition,



Madrigal's (1993) study indicated that residents' positive perceptions of tourism were positively related to their perceived personal influence over tourism development, but negatively related to perceived business influence over tourism. Kayat's (2002) research also suggested that powerful residents had favorable perceptions of tourism and were supportive of future development. More recently, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon's (2011a) study findings indicated that residents' power was positively related to perceived benefits and negatively related to perceived costs of tourism. However, inconsistent with these studies and SET, Latkova and Vogt's (2012) recent study revealed that power was not a significant determinant of residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism development. The empirical and theoretical discussion from the literature led to the development of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism.*

Hypothesis 5 (H5): *There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.*

#### **2.3.4 Residents' Trust in Government Actors**

Trust is a relational construct (Markova, Linell, & Gillespie, 2008) that is inherent to SET (Blau, 1964). Trust between actors (*e.g.* residents and government) is fundamental to the emergence and maintenance of social exchanges between two parties (Blau, 1964; Clark & Mills, 1979; Holmes, 1981; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Molm *et al.*, 2000). However, trust is a complex construct that is difficult to define and operationalize (Simpson, 2007). Consequently, it has remained an elusive term in the social science literature and has often been used in different and

not always compatible ways. However, despite such divergences, it is universally accepted that trust is a psychological condition defined as “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another” (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998, p. 395).

The psychological dimensions of trust are embedded in the majority of definitions put forward by researchers from the different social science disciplines. For example, Garfinkel (1963) and Luhmann (1988) considered trust as a general attitude or expectancy about other people and the social systems in which they are embedded. Other researchers suggest that trust is a more complex and multidimensional construct comprising of affective and motivational components (Bromiley & Cummings, 1996; Kramer, Brewer, & Hanna, 1996). However, some social scientists argue that psychological definitions of trust are insufficient in explaining trust because they are narrowly too cognitive and ignore the emotional and social influences on trust decisions (Kramer, 1999). Consequently, these researchers suggest that it is important to conceptualize trust in terms of individuals' choice behavior in various trust dilemma situations (Miller, 1992). March (1994) argued that an advantage of conceptualizing trust as a choice behavior relates to the fact that decisions become observable behaviors and further noted that such a conceptualization of trust fits well with existing conceptual frameworks (*e.g.* SET) useful for empirical testing and theoretical development.

Studies on trust in the social science literature can be grouped into two categories. Early work on the subject adopted a dispositional (person-centered) view to trust and considered trust as general beliefs and attitudes about the degree to which other people are likely to be reliable, cooperative, or helpful in daily life contexts (Rotter, 1971). The second category of studies on

trust (emerged in the early 1980s) conceptualized and measured trust in specific partners and relationships (interpersonal trust) (Holmes & Rempel, 1989; Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). A number of studies in the latter category have made use of SET to understand actors' trust on one another (*e.g.* Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Lambe *et al.*, 2001; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a, 2012; Nguyen & Rose, 2009). From this perspective, trust is defined as a psychological state or orientation of an actor (the truster) toward a specific partner (the trustee) with whom the actor is in some way interdependent to attain valued outcomes or resources. Trust stimulates cooperation among actors (Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande, 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), creates goodwill that preserves the relationship (Kumar, 1996), decreases fear and greed (Hwang & Willem, 1997), reduces risk in the transaction (Morgan & Hunt, 1994), and enhances the partners' satisfaction with and commitment to the exchange (Anderson, & Narus, 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Trust is not only about a set of positive expectations, but it also includes the willingness to act on those beliefs (Luhmann, 1979). These trust beliefs shape attitudes and behaviors of the actors in social exchanges (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). Such a conceptualization of trust is useful to understand citizens' relationships with government actors. Citizens' trust in government actors is often referred to as political trust or institutional trust (Luhiste, 2006). Political trust is an important, but overlooked ingredient of the politics of tourism, although it remains an important area of research in the political science literature (*e.g.* Backstrom & Edlund, 2012; Campbell, 2004; Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009; Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Hetherington, 2004; Hetherington & Globetti, 2002; Kaase, 1999; Marien & Hooghe, 2011; Mishler & Rose, 1997, 2001, 2005; Rohrschneider & Schnitt-Beck, 2002; Wong *et al.*, 2011). Research on political trust is driven by the importance of linking citizens to institutions, the

desire to achieve good governance and legitimacy of government and the need to gain public support for development (Luhiste, 2006; Scheidegger & Staerke, 2011). Political trust is important because it conveys a message to the governing elites whether or not their policy decisions conform to the normative expectations of the governed (Citrin & Luks, 2001).

Considering the centrality of trust for good governance and sustainable development, one may expect that the topic would have received widespread theoretical and empirical attention by tourism researchers. Surprisingly, research on political trust in the context of tourism development has remained virtually silent in the literature. Bramwell and Lane (2011) noted that because government has a primary influence on governance and on policy-making for sustainable tourism, there is a need for further research on the roles and activities of the state that affect tourism and the sustainable development of the industry in destinations. The political economy approach to the study of tourism development provides a useful basis for understanding government's involvement in tourism and the importance of citizens' trust in government tourism institutions, and in doing so, it emphasizes on the need for further research on this topic.

Although, state's intervention in tourism and addressing sustainable development concerns is widely supported by the political economy approach (Godfrey, 1998; Hall, 1998; Hardy & Beeton, 2001; Hunter, 1997; Liu, 2003; Weaver, 2006), governments may not always promote democracy, ensure equitable outcomes, work in the best interests of the society, and further the objectives of sustainable tourism (Bramwell, 2011). Governments have been criticized for implementing tourism policies that are short-term and lack overall direction and coordination (Madrigal, 1995; Vogel & Swanson, 1988), for imposing tourism planning on the local communities, particularly in developing countries (Keogh, 1990), for adopting top-down

tourism planning and decision-making, and for exercising excessive power in tourism policy and planning (Bramwell, 2011; Moscardo, 2011). Some researchers also criticize governments for not overtly releasing statements and providing complete and accurate information on their hidden political agendas (Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010). These raise suspicions and cause distrust among citizens, challenging legitimacy of governments and compromising a democratic and sustainable form of tourism development. Trust is further compromised because state's activities increasingly happen through arm's length relationships, with a growing role for agencies and public-private sector partnerships. These threaten legitimacy of government institutions and create political and social instability, making it difficult for the government to sustain economic activities (Bramwell, 2011). It is for these reasons some researchers claim that public trust in government in the context of tourism development is declining (Bramwell, 2011).

The need for more research on political trust in tourism development is further reinforced because of the shift in approach in tourism policy-making from the notion of 'government' to that of 'governance' (Beaumont & Dredge, 2010; Hall, 2011a) which is another key aspect in political economy (Bramwell, 2011). "Governance involves the processes for the regulation and mobilization of social action and for producing social order" (Bramwell & Lane, 2011, p. 412). Governance within a destination includes the arrangements and character of institutions, rules and processes through which tourism policy decisions are made and authority is exercised that affect that destination (Bevir, 2009). Bramwell (2010) argued that agencies of elected local institutions have considerable influence over governance processes. Good governance is necessary for destinations to achieve sustainable tourism, and cannot be understood without taking into account the state's relationship with society (Bramwell, 2010; Bramwell & Lane, 2011). A number of studies suggest that citizens' trust in institutions is important for achieving

good governance and a democratic planning process (*e.g.* Bouckaert & van de Walle, 2003; Park & Blenkinsopp, 2011). Discussing the importance of public trust in government for a democratic society, Nye *et al.* (1997) noted that:

If people believe that government is incompetent and cannot be trusted, they are less likely to provide [critical] resources. Without critical resources, government cannot perform well, and if government cannot perform, people will become more dissatisfied and distrustful of it. Such a cumulative downward spiral could erode support for democracy as a form of governance (p. 4).

The above discussion suggests that there are good reasons to study political trust in the context of tourism development. Lack of political trust in government is likely to lead to an unsustainable form of tourism development and an erosion of government legitimacy. However, research on political trust is sadly lacking in the tourism literature and is an area in need of further study, particularly in the context of understanding citizens' political support for tourism development.

Citizens' acceptance of government policies and decisions depends on political trust (Marien & Hooghe, 2011) because individuals rely on their trust in institutions before making judgments about the acceptability of development projects and policies (Bronfman, Vazquez, & Dorantes, 2009). Hetherington and Globetti (2002) noted that even if people are not well aware of the intricacies of government policies and strategies, they do develop a general impression about the mandate of government, and this impression acts as a decision rule for supporting or opposing government activities. Residents' trust strengthens their feelings that government institutions are acting fairly and providing equitable benefits to all citizens, and if governments are seen as acting in these ways, it engenders political trust. If people perceive the government as untrustworthy, they are likely to reject its policies, and if they consider it as trustworthy, they

tend to support its policies (Bronfman *et al.*, 2009; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). Harisalo and Stenvall (2002) also argued that if residents trust ministries, they tend to support governmental policies and keep their demands reasonable. Easton (1965) also noted that citizens' trust in institutions affects their attitudes toward government policies.

A number of studies in political science, social psychology, and organizational theory confirm the significant influence of trust on people acceptance of policies (Hetherington & Globetti, 2002). Simon (1974) and Barnard (1958) noted the importance of trust in gaining employees' acceptance of decisions made by organizations. Tyler and Degoe's (1995) study also revealed that trust had the largest influence on people's willingness to accept decisions of management and political authorities. Hetherington and Globetti's (2002) study also reported a positive relationship between trust in government and support for governmental policies. More recently, Backstrom and Edlund (2012) noted a significant positive relationship between trust in government institutions and support for welfare policies. Using SET as a theoretical base, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon's (2012) and Nunkoo *et al.*'s (2012) study revealed that residents' trust in tourism institutions positively influenced their level of support for tourism development. A number of other studies have validated the relationship between trust in government and political support for government policies (*e.g.* Earle, Siegrist, & Gutscher, 2007; Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Hetherington, 2004; Marien & Hooghe, 2011; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). Taking into account the predictions of SET and the empirical findings from the literature, it is reasonable to suggest that residents' trust in government actors is likely to be a determinant of their level of support for tourism development. Hence, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 6 (H6): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' trust in government actors and their political support for the sector's development.*

SET posits that trust between exchange partners can be generated through regular discharge of obligations and through the gradual expansion of exchanges over time (Blau, 1964). The extent to which a partner has proven to be reliable in previous social interactions with another actor determines the level of trust between them. Trust is also determined by the expectations of one partner (*e.g.* residents) from another (*e.g.* government) in a social exchange relationship (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Lewicki & Bunker, 1994) and the extent to which the partner (*e.g.* government) appear benign (Yamagishi & Yamagishi, 1994). An exchange partner uses several cues such as benevolence, positive and negative outcomes to assess the trustworthiness of another partner (Bhattacharya, Devinney & Pillutla, 1998; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998).

Positive economic and social outcomes resulting from an exchange increase the partners' trust on each other and their commitment to maintaining the relationship (Blau, 1964; Lambe *et al.*, 2001). Farrell (2004) also asserted that the economic and non-material benefits resulting from an exchange relationship influence the level of trust between the actors. In a political context, Citrin (1974) suggested that cumulative outcomes between political authorities and citizens determine the level of public trust in government institutions. He further argued that institutions create policies and in exchange, they receive trust from citizens who are satisfied with these policies and cynicism from dissatisfied individuals. Based on the theoretical postulates of SET and the arguments that positive and negative outcomes from an exchange influence trust, it is reasonable to extrapolate that residents' trust in government actors is likely



to be predicted by residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism development. Higher perceptions of benefits are likely to lead to higher levels of trust in government actors, while higher perceptions of costs may adversely influence trust. Based on these arguments, the following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 7 (H7): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 8 (H8): *There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their trust in government actors.*

## **2.4 INSTITUTIONAL THEORY OF POLITICAL TRUST**

The above discussion reviewed the core ideas of SET in the context of tourism development. The review suggests trust in government actors is likely to be an important determinant of residents' support for tourism development. Studies from the political science literature suggest that a number of factors influence citizens' trust in government institutions. Researchers have made use of two competing theories to explain the determinants of citizens' trust in government institutions: the institutional theory of political trust and the cultural theory of political trust. The institutional theory of political trust considers that citizens' trust in institutions is endogenous to the political system (Mishler & Rose, 2005; Wong *et al.*, 2011). It is based on the assumption that trust stems from the extent to which people perceive political institutions to work effectively. An implicit assumption of many citizens is that governmental institutions should perform satisfactorily (Hetherington, 1998). Here, trust is dependent on how people evaluate the performance of institutions with respect to their demands (Luhiste, 2006; Mishler & Rose, 2001).

Citizens' trust in government institutions is rational, implying that when institutions perform well, they generate trust among the public, while those performing poorly create distrust and skepticism.

Institutionalists therefore emphasize on the importance of policy outcomes and citizens' evaluation of these outcomes. From this perspective, political trust is dependent on the government's ability to deliver effective policies in the eyes of the people (Wong *et al.*, 2011). Thus, the performance explanation of institutional trust is based on the assumption that people trust things they perceive to be working effectively (Luhiste, 2006). This is important for tourism development because citizens often hold the government responsible for policy decisions and for improving tourism policy-making, particularly in democratic societies (Bramwell, 2011). The institutional theory of political trust has received considerable support in many studies (*e.g.* Chen, Zhong, Hillard, & Sched, 1997; Luhiste, 2006; Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005; Wang, 2005; Wong *et al.*, 2011).

#### **2.4.1 Residents' Perceived Economic Performance of Government Actors**

There is considerable debate about which aspects of institutional performance are important. However, political scientists generally agree that the economic performance of institutions has a strong impact on citizens' trust (Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005). The economic performance hypothesis focuses on the government's ability to meet citizens' expectations in the economic domain (Luhiste, 2006). Thus, institutions are trusted based on the extent to which they produce desired economic outcomes. Political economy suggests that a key role for the government is intervention to encourage the conditions for capital accumulation and economic expansion (Bevir, 2009). In the context of tourism development, government often gives priority to

economic outcomes and on securing immediate economic returns, although it intervenes to protect environmental and socio-cultural resources (Bramwell, 2011; Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010; Wang & Bramwell, 2012). Priority is often given to the economy because this produces wealth for the citizens and fosters political support for development (Jessop, 2008).

A number of empirical studies confirm that a significant relationship exists between economic performance of government institutions and citizens' trust in government. For example, Wang's (2005) findings suggested that the legitimacy of political institutions in China as perceived by the citizens was largely determined by the economic performance of those institutions. Chen *et al.*'s (1997) study found a positive relationship between citizens' evaluation of economic performance of government institutions and trust in those political institutions. Wong *et al.*'s (2011) research on six Asian societies also revealed that the citizens' perceived economic performance of government institutions was a significant determinant of their trust in government. Several other studies have validated a significant positive relationship between perceived economic performance of government institutions and citizens' trust in those institutions (*e.g.* Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Citrin & Green, 1986; Hetherington, 1998; Miller & Borelli, 1991; Mishler & Rose, 2001). Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence from the literature, it is reasonable to extrapolate that residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism is likely to be influenced by their perceptions of the economic performance of those actors in tourism. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 9 (H9) – *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.*

#### **2.4.2 Residents' Perceived Political Performance of Government Actors**

The political performance of government institutions is usually measured by the extent of corruption in institutions (Wong *et al.*, 2011) and government's capacity to produce procedural goods and desired output such as equal and fair treatment to citizens, protection of civil liberties, and a transparent and an effective administration (Luhiste, 2006). Although tourism is often considered to be a solution for several economic and social challenges, in reality, it rarely lives up to community expectations (Moscardo, 2011). Tourism development is often accompanied by community conflict and concerns, and is often criticized for marginalizing local residents in the process (Moscardo, 2011). External businesses and society's elites often derive most of the benefits from development, resulting in inequality among social actors, including local community members. These issues are likely to hinder the development of residents' trust government actors in tourism because factors such as inequality, extent of universalism of institutions, and fairness in development have been found to adversely influence citizens' trust in previous studies (*e.g.* Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009).

In general, research suggests that citizens' positive evaluation of the political performance of government actors is positively related to citizens' trust in those actors. Luhiste's (2006) study in the Baltic States suggested that the political performance of government institutions was a significant determinant of citizens' trust in those institutions. Mishler and Rose (2005) also reported a positive relationship between the political performance of government actors and citizens' trust in those actors. Such a relationship has been validated by several other studies carried out in advanced democracies (*e.g.* Aberbach & Walker, 1970; Citrin & Green, 1986; Miller & Borelli, 1991; Hetherington, 1998; Newton, 1999) as well as post-communist countries (*e.g.* Johnson, 2005; Mishler & Rose, 1997; Rose, Mishler, &

Haerpfer, 1998). Thus, based on the above review, it can reasonably be proposed that the political performance of government actors involved in tourism development is likely to be a determinant of residents' trust in those actors. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 10 (H10) - *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.*

### **2.4.3 Residents Perceptions of their Level of Power and Trust in Government Actors**

An important, but neglected aspect of the political arrangements of government institutions is the influence of the power-sharing aspects of those institutions on the development of public trust (Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009). Issues of power and trust become important because government institutions are often distant from the daily lives of people (Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Hetherington & Globetti, 2002), and political outcomes and intentions of government are not always fully known to the public (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). In this context, Luhiste (2006) argued that "in situations where one does not have full information about the intentions and outcomes of governance, one is still confident that government would not misuse its power and would not willingly harm one" (p. 478). The researcher went on to argue that trust in government is the belief that political institutions would not misuse power.

The relationship between power and trust is considered to be complementary and opposing components of social behavior (Ireland & Webb, 2007). They function as alternative ways of controlling an exchange relationship, although with different effects (Walker, Bisset, & Adam, 2007). However, power is often a precondition rather than an alternative to trust (Bachmann, Knights, & Sydow, 2001). Power determines trust because it influences the

partners' evaluation of the relative worth of the exchange relationship and the kinds of cooperation that take place on the basis of truth (Farrell, 2004). Cook *et al.* (2005) noted that power inequalities create "fertile ground for distrust" (p. 40) and "commonly block the possibility of trust" (p. 42). Farrell (2004) also argued that trust is difficult to achieve when disparity of power exists. Institutions face lack of trust from citizens if their arrangements hinder citizens' participation in decision-making and the community feels singled out from the policy processes (Gabriel, Kunz, Rossdeutscher, & Deth, 2002). Evidence suggests that institutions which are characterized by power-sharing and consensual decision-making by integrating citizens in decision-making processes contribute to the development of public trust (Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009). Some studies, although few in numbers, suggest that power positively influences the level of trust one actor places on the other actor in a social exchange relationship (Oberg & Svensson, 2010; Oskarsson, Svensson, & Oberg, 2009). Based on the above review, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 11 (H11): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their trust in government actors.*

## **2.5 CULTURAL THEORY OF POLITICAL TRUST**

In contrast to institutional theory of political trust that suggests trust is endogenous to the political system, cultural theory posits that political trust is exogenous to the political system. That is, trust does not originate from within the political spheres, but outside of it, in the long standing and deeply seeded beliefs about people that are rooted in cultural norms and values in a society (Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005; Wong *et al.*, 2011). Cultural theorists posit that trust is a phenomenon linked to basic forms of social relationships and are shaped by cultural orientations

that assign meanings and values to events (Eckstein, Fleron, Hoffman, & Reisinger, 1998; Mishler & Rose, 2001; Shi, 2001). Culturalists further note that trust in institutions varies across cultures and societies (Fukuyama, 1995; Inglehart, 1997). For example, Shi (2001) reported considerable variations in political trust in People's Republic of China and Taiwan which the researcher attributed to cultural value differences that exist between the two nations. Although proponents of cultural theory do not deny the influence of institutional variables on political trust, they argue that cultural influences on trust are deeper and more profound. They even assert that citizens' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government institutions are culturally determined (Mishler & Rose, 2005). Cultural theory of political trust has received some degree of support in different types of economies and societies, although with some degree of contradictions (Christensen & Laegreid, 2005; Inglehart, 1997; Norris, 1999b).

### **2.5.1 Interpersonal trust**

In a modern society which involves interactions of people of different backgrounds, interpersonal trust is inherent to civic culture and is the basis for social connectedness, peaceful collective action, inclusiveness, trust in government, and democracy itself (Delhey Newton, Welzel, 2011; Helliwell & Putman, 2004; Inglehart, 1999; Putman, 2000; Uslaner, 2002). Consequently, interpersonal trust has become an important topic of debate among social scientists (Delhey *et al.*, 2011).

Proponents of cultural theory of political trust argue that trust is generated by non-political factors such as a general disposition to trust or distrust in others (Luhiste, 2006). Culturalists argue that institutional trust is an extension of interpersonal trust learned in life, and later projected onto political institutions. From birth, individuals learn to trust or distrust others

and are influenced by how others treat them, and how others, in return, react to their behaviors (Mishler & Rose, 2001). Trust starts within the immediate family, and eventually, the set of interactions extends to include, friends, colleagues, and neighbors. Over time, trust is further extended in the context of the individual and political institutions. Thus, cultural theorists postulate a hierarchy of trust which first starts with an individual's interpersonal bond with the family arising through socialization. At a second level, the individual's trust is extended to 'other' people not personally known to him/her. On a third level, the individual extends the trust to political institutions. The latter reflects the spill-over effects of interpersonal trust to institutional trust. Such spill-over effects underlie the relationship between interpersonal trust and political trust as confirmed by a number of empirical studies.

Luhiste's (2006) study findings on the Baltic States suggested that institutional trust depended on the extent to which individuals trust other people. There is also evidence to suggest that interpersonal trust is positively related to trust in political institutions in democratic economies (*e.g.* Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Newton, 2001) as well as post-communist societies (*e.g.* Mishler & Rose, 2001; Dowley & Silver, 2002). However, contradicting the above observations, some studies found no significant relationship between interpersonal trust and political trust in institutions (*e.g.* Rohrschneider & Schmitt-Beck, 2002), while still others revealed a negative relationship between interpersonal trust and trust in institutions (*e.g.* Aberg, 2000; Kim, 2005). Based on the postulates of cultural theory of political trust and the empirical evidences from the literature, it is reasonable to suggest that interpersonal trust among residents is likely to be a determinant of their level of trust in government actors involved in tourism planning and development. The above review led to the development of the following hypothesis:



Hypothesis 12 (H12): *There is a direct positive relationship between interpersonal trust and residents' trust in government actors.*

## **2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter defined the constructs to be studied and the hypotheses established by the proposed model illustrated in Figure 1.2. The chapter also reviewed related research on those constructs. While there are other factors that are likely to influence residents' trust in government actors and their support for tourism development, it is believed that this study incorporates the necessary variables necessary to answer the eight research propositions stated in Chapter 1.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The preceding chapters defined the research problem and the conceptual model that comprises the constructs to be addressed by this study. This chapter details the methodology that was used to test the research hypotheses. The chapter begins with an overview of the research paradigm – positivism, which guided this study and discusses its philosophical assumptions. The second section presents the theoretical model of the study and the research hypotheses that were tested empirically. The third section introduces the study site and describes the method that was employed to collect data. Then, the scales utilized to measure the constructs are introduced. The fifth section addresses the pilot study of the survey instrument. The final section presents the statistical methods that were used in the study. Reliability and validity issues are also discussed in this section.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM: POSITIVISM**

The past decades witnessed a spirited debate on the appropriate philosophical and methodological foundations for social science research. Any research is based on a set of philosophical assumptions that guide the approach used to investigate and provide answers to research questions. These have been described as paradigms or world views (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). A paradigm is “a basic set of beliefs that guides actions, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). A paradigm is characterized by the way researchers respond to three basic questions that relate to ontology (what is the nature of reality?), epistemology (what is the nature of the relationship

between the knower and the known?), and methodology (how should the inquirer go about finding out knowledge?) (Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1990; Jamal & Hollinshead, 2001). The answers to these questions are termed paradigms and are the starting points that determine what inquiry is and how it should be conducted (Guba, 1990). Researchers classify these paradigms into positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism, critical theory, constructivism, feminism, and post-modernism (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Jamal & Hollinshead, 2001; Jennings, 2001). While some researchers and scholars subscribe to one specific paradigm and its related methods, others favor an approach that encourages use of multi-methods to answer research questions (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Lenzo, 1995; Schultz & Hatch, 1996; Stonich, 1998).

The present research follows the philosophical assumptions of the positivist paradigm. This approach has its origin in a school of thought within the philosophy of science known as 'logical positivism' or 'logical empiricism' (Lee, 1991). An important tenet of the positivist approach to social science research is its "thesis of the unity of science" (Kolakowski, 1968, p. 178). The basic premise of positivism is embedded in realist ontology where it is assumed that there exists a reality driven by immutable natural laws. The purpose of positivist research is to discover the 'true' nature of reality and how it 'truly' works, with the ultimate aim of predicting and controlling natural phenomenon (Guba, 1990). Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996) argued that "positivist research is grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an independent reality and are relatively constant across time and settings" (p. 28).

Positivist researchers are constrained to practice an objective reality (Guba, 1990). Objectivism is based on the belief that knowledge of the world is relatively fixed, exists outside the knower, and that the inquirer can come to know the world as it really is. As Pratt (1998)

noted, “knowledge exists independent of the learners’ interest in it, or awareness of it...basic theories, principles, and rules which govern our lives and world exist quite separately from our experience of them; knowledge about the world exists ‘out there’ waiting to be discovered” (p. 22). Objectivism is based on the belief that scientific knowledge connects directly with reality (Ryan & Aikenhead, 1992). The basic belief system of positivistic inquiry is summarized in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1**  
**The Basic Belief Systems of Positivism**

<b>Belief systems</b>	<b>Description</b>
Ontology	<i>Realist</i> – reality exists “out there” and is driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms. Knowledge of these entities, laws, and mechanisms is conventionally summarized in the form of time and context-free generalizations. Some of these latter generalizations take the form of cause-effect laws
Epistemology	<i>Dualist/objectivist</i> - it is both possible and essential for the inquirer to adopt a distant, noninteractive posture. Values and other biasing and confounding factors are thereby automatically excluded from influencing the outcomes
Methodology	<i>Experimental/manipulative</i> – questions and/or hypotheses are stated in advance in propositional form and subjected to empirical tests (falsification) under carefully controlled conditions

*Source: Guba (1990, p. 20)*

In summary, the positivist approach involves the manipulation of theoretical propositions using the rules of formal logic (where scientific explanation is expressed in formal propositions/hypotheses) and the rules of hypothetical-deductive logic (where the researcher needs a distinct sets of procedural rules with which to relate his/her propositions/hypotheses to the empirical reality being investigated) so that the theoretical propositions satisfy the requirements of falsifiability, logical consistency, relative explanatory power, and survival (Lee, 1991). This approach has been recognized and advocated as the ‘natural science model’ of social science research (Lee, 1991) and has been widely applied in tourism research (Davies, 2003;

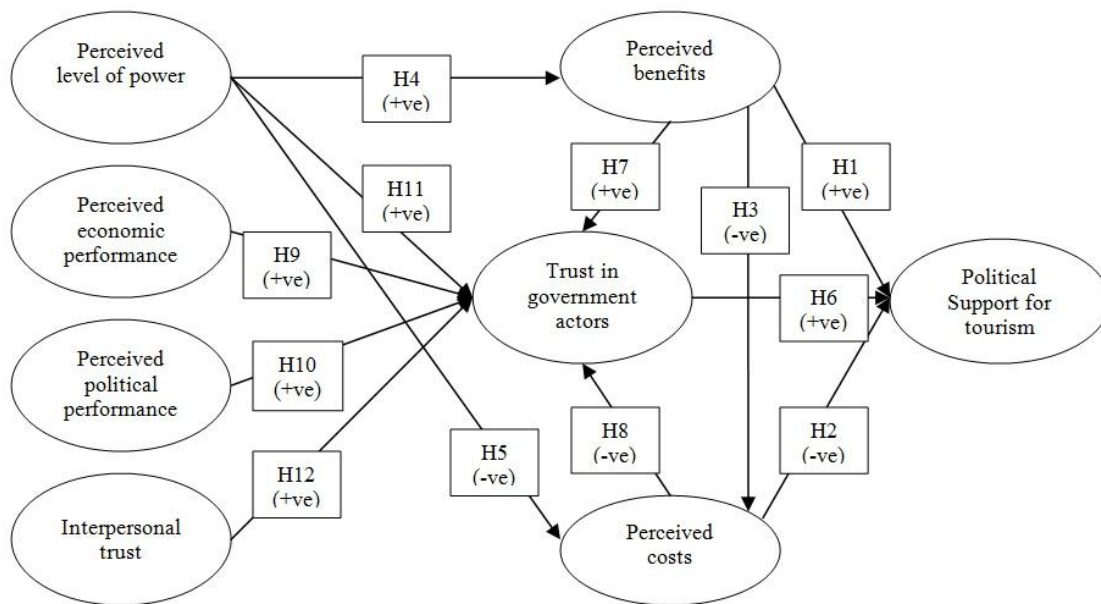
Riley & Love, 2000; Walle, 1997). In the context of studies on residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and their support for the sector's development, the majority of researchers have adopted the positivistic paradigm by making wide use of quantitative approaches based on a variety of statistical techniques for testing theories and hypotheses (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009; Nunkoo *et al.*, in press). However, it should be acknowledged that researchers are increasingly making use of other approaches to investigating residents' reactions to tourism (*e.g.* Dyer, Aberdeen, & Schuler, 2003; Horn & Simons, 2002; Lepp, 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a), although positivism still predominates (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a; Nunkoo *et al.*, in press; McGehee & Andereck, 2004).

### **3.3 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK**

As stated in Chapter 1, there are eight research propositions that are addressed by this study. The first proposition examines the influence of residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism on their level of political support. The second proposition addresses the influence of residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism on their perceptions of the costs of tourism. The third research proposition examines the influence of residents' perceived level of power in tourism on their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism. The fourth research proposition examines the influence of residents' trust in government actors on their political support for tourism. The fifth research proposition addresses the influence of residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism on their level of trust in government actors. The sixth research proposition examines the influence of residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors on their level of trust in those actors. The seven research proposition addresses the influence of residents' perceptions of their level power in tourism on

their level of trust in government actors. Finally, the eighth research proposition addresses the influence of interpersonal trust on residents' trust in government actors.

In order to test empirically these research propositions, a proposed model (Figure 1.1) was developed based on the postulates of SET, institutional theory of political trust, cultural theory of political trust, and empirical findings of studies drawn from the tourism and political science literature. The results of these review provided justification for the proposed model. Figure 3.1 presents the theoretical model and the research hypotheses that were tested empirically.



Note: (+ve) positive relationship; (-ve) negative relationship

**Figure 3.1. The Proposed Model with Hypotheses**

### 3.3.1 Research Hypotheses

The following is the list of research propositions presented in Chapter 1 and the hypotheses that have been formulated to test these propositions and the proposed model (Figure 3.1).

*RP1: Residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their political support for tourism development.*

Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.

*RP2: Residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism influence their perceptions of the costs of tourism.*

Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

*RP3: Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influence their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism.*

Hypothesis 4 (H4): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

*RP4: Residents' trust in government actors influences their political support for tourism development.*

Hypothesis 6 (H6): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' trust in government actors and their political support for the sector's development.

*RP5: Residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 7 (H7): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their trust in government actors.

Hypothesis 8 (H8): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their trust in government actors.

*RP6: Residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors influence their trust in those actors.*

Hypothesis 9 (H9) – There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.

Hypothesis 10 (H10) - There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.

*RP7: Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influence their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 11 (H11): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their trust in government actors.*

*RP8: Interpersonal trust among residents influences their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 12 (H12): There is a direct positive relationship between interpersonal trust and residents' trust in government actors.



### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

#### **3.4.1 Study Location and Context**

This study was conducted in Niagara Region which is located in Southern Ontario, between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. It borders the United States and covers a geographic area of around 1,854 square kilometers, and has a population of 431,346 inhabitants (Statistics Canada, 2012). The average income is around \$29,150 and the number of residents with post-secondary education is estimated to be around 161,425. Over the last five years, unemployment rate has averaged 7.03% (Niagara Economic Development Corporation, 2012a). Niagara Region is one of the fastest growing areas in Canada and tourism is a major sector of the economy.

The tourism product of Niagara Region is diverse and includes multi-attraction complexes (incorporating themed restaurants, sports and/or cultural facilities, multiplex theatres), hotel accommodations, casinos, a new convention facility, leisure/recreational activities, specialty retailers, live entertainment, shopping, cultural, eco-tourism, agri-tourism (especially wine tourism) and nature-based tourism products, including the world famous Niagara Falls. Tourism in Niagara Region accounts for more than 40% of Ontario's tourism industry (MacLaurin & Wolstenholme, 2008). The region received around 10 million visitors in 2009, out of which 4 million were overnight visitors and 6 million day visitors, resulting in around \$1.4 billion in visitor spending (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport, 2009). Over the last few years, Niagara Region's economy has experienced tremendous tourism-related growth and development. Many of the most significant capital projects have been related to tourism. These include massive investments in roads and bridges to improve access, construction of new accommodations to cater for the increasing number of visitors, and other infrastructural developments to service both the tourism sector and the local community.

A review of existing policy documents for Niagara Region indicates that although tourism has made significant contributions to the economic and social development of the region and enhances the quality of life of residents, development of the sector has also led to a number of adverse consequences. Research conducted by IBI Group (2004) noted that residents have expressed concerns that the neighborhoods have undergone changes as a result of tourism and that the communities have been marginalized in tourism development. The report also noted a certain degree of conflict between residents and tourism development on issues relating to off-site parking lots for hotels which is seen as a threat to residential neighbors. Concerns have also been expressed over land use incompatibility issues and noise pollution arising from tourism development. Residents also expressed concerns that tourism commercial development pressures may create additional pressures for the neighboring communities. IBI Group (2004) also reported that residents of Niagara Region were concerned about the lack of information provided to them on new hotel and resulting infrastructural developments. The report also suggested that there was a public desire to understand ideas underlying tourism development in the region.

The Premier-Ranked Tourism Destination Framework of Niagara Region (2005), a report guided by the Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sports, noted that the benefits and costs of tourism are not equitably distributed across the different municipal boundaries of the region. The report noted that smaller cities and towns of the region which offers core or supporting attractions struggle to benefit from tourism development. In addition to these concerns, there was substantial resentment against the development of the Fallsview Casino that required the city to allocate much of its infrastructure budget to redesigning the street network around the casino, delaying much-needed sewer and road upgrades in other parts of the community. Besides these

socio-economic problems, Healy (2006) noted that tourism development in Niagara Region has led to a number of environmental problems, including the overuse of natural resources and crowding.

Planning authorities in Niagara Region recognize the need for community involvement in the planning process to ensure the sustainable development of the region. This desire has been expressed in a number of policy documents (*e.g.* IBI, 2004, Regional Municipality of Niagara, 2006, 2009). One of the ways of involving community in the tourism development process is to understand their views, desires, perceptions of tourism, and their support for the sector's development and incorporate their concerns in the planning process of the sector (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). Although a number of studies have been published on tourism development in Niagara Region (*e.g.* Carmichael, 2005; Getz, 1992; Hashimoto & Telfer, 2003; Healy, 2006; Jayawardena, 2008; Jayawarderna, Patterson, Choi, & Brain, 2008; MacLaurin & Wolstenholme, 2008; Telfer, 2000, 2001), no studies have yet investigated how residents' perceive tourism development and their attitudes to local government actors in tourism development. Jayawarderna *et al.* (2008) noted that there is a paucity of research on sustainable tourism specific to Niagara Region. The socio-economic and political issues in Niagara Region make it an interesting site to carry out this study.

### **3.4.2 Data Collection and Sample**

Data were collected from residents of Niagara Region using an online panel provided by TNS Global Marketing Research, Canada. Online survey research has evolved from a mere data collection technique to a full-fledged research mode (McDevitt & Small, 2002). This is partly driven by technological development, increased Internet penetration, falling response rates in

traditional survey methods (Baker *et al.*, 2010; Hansen & Pedersen, 2012), and partly by the reluctance of individuals to participate in traditional types of research such as telephone and postal surveys. (Farrell & Petersen, 2010; Vocino & Polonsky, 2011). In the case of phone surveys, although random digital dialing was considered ideal for accurately representing the general population since the mid-1970s (Dillman, 2000), recent research suggests that social changes in attitudes to phone surveys make it difficult for researchers to reach potential respondents (Farrell & Petersen, 2010). Consequently, use of Internet for conducting surveys is now common among researchers, and increasing use of online surveys for social science research can be expected. Substantial improvement in online research methodologies have been made over the past years (Cooper, 2000). A number of studies show that online surveys can yield valid results (*e.g.* Chung & Petrick, in press; Goritz, 2002; Goritz & Schumacher, 2000; McGraw, Tew, & Williams, 2000). A review by Hung and Law (2011) of 30 tourism and hospitality journals retrieved 76 research articles based on data collected online. The researchers argued that online data collection will become more and more common in tourism and hospitality research.

One of the methods available for carrying out web-based surveys is online access panel which is the dominant form of web-based research (Couper, 2000). An online access panel “consists of people who have registered to occasionally take part in web surveys. Panelists can be recruited through the same means as one-time participants” (Goritz, 2004, p. 411). Panel members can be recruited online, offline or through a combination of both methods so that low-frequency users of the internet also have the chance of being selected. Online panels have reshaped survey research (Vocino & Plonsky, 2011) and are increasingly being used as a mode of data collection for market research (Postoaca, 2006; Comley, 2007), social research (Tortora,

2009), geographic research (Brown, Weber, Zanon, & de Bie, in press), psychological research (Goritz, 2007), and tourism research (Chung & Petrick, in press; Dolnicar, Yanamandram, & Cliff, 2012). According to United Sample Inc. (2010) estimate, around 50% of quantitative data in the United States are collected through online panels.

Although researchers report some limitations with online panels such as under-coverage of the target population, high non-response within the panel, and self-selection bias, some studies suggest that online panels generally do not suffer from higher levels of sample bias than traditional mail surveys (Chung & Petrick, in press; Dolnicar, Laesser, & Matus, 2009). There is increasing evidence that Internet research such as online panels can produce representative data given the increasing number of households that have access to Internet (Farrell & Petersen, 2010). For example, Statistics Canada (2011) estimated that 8 out of 10 Canadian households (79%) and around 81% of households in Ontario had home access to Internet in 2010. It is probably because of the high penetration of Internet among households that some studies report modest differences when comparing results from online panels with traditional methods of data collection (*e.g.* Ansolabehere & Schaffner, 2011; Sanders, Clark, Stewart, & Whitely, 2007). Other researchers even find that data collected through an online panel display higher reliability than those collected by telephone surveys (*e.g.* Braunsberger, Wybenga, & Gates, 2007). Online panels are also known for their cost-efficiency, short turnaround time, automatic correction of errors, selective samples by socio-demographic attributes, lower rate of missing data, and their ability to lessen the problem of social desirability bias toward interviewers (Alvarez & Beselaere, 2005; Chung & Petrick, in press; Hung & Law 2011; Kreuter, Presser, & Tourangeau, 2008).

TNS Global Marketing Research has a long history in online panel development and management. The company asserts that their panels are actively managed. People who join the panel have made a conscious decision to participate in online surveys and are likely to provide accurate and complete information. The Canadian panel of TNS consists of more than 110, 000 individuals and supports approximately 350 online studies annually. TNS recruits potential panelists from a variety of methods to avoid systematic bias and to enable the targeting of diverse population groups. Recruitment methods include online methods (*e.g.* opt-in email invitations, online opt-in referrals, etc.), invitations appended to the company's telephone omnibus surveys, and viral recruitment where existing panel members are rewarded for referring friends to the panel. Beyond these modes of recruitment, panel members that started with the company's traditional telephone/email panel have also been added as participants of the online panel. As suggested by researchers, such a multi-method recruitment reduces sample bias in online panels (Loosveldt & Sonck, 2008). TNS asserts that its online panels are good representation of the census population and samples are selected to represent respondents from different socio-demographic and socio-economic groups that match the census population. For each survey, the company selects the appropriate sample and invitations to take the survey are sent to each member.

The researcher initiated contact with TNS Global Marketing Research, Canada in September 2011 to discuss the possibility for the company to conduct the survey on behalf of the researcher using its online panel. The requirements in terms of sample frame and size were provided to TNS. After verifying whether the online panel could generate the required number of responses from Niagara Region, TNS agreed to conduct the survey in return for an acknowledgment of the company's assistance in any publications/presentations based on the data

and subject to the researcher presenting the study's findings in appropriate forums such as Travel and Tourism Research Association's conferences.

Nunnally (1967) recommended that a sample of between 300 and 400 respondents is necessary with a moderate number of predictor variables for sound use of multiple regression. A more commonly used rule of thumb for sample size in multiple regression analysis is that the ratio of subject to predictors should be at least 10:1 (Maxwell, 2000). The sample size of this study was selected based on these recommendations to satisfy the sample requirements for sound use of multiple regression analysis. To verify for representativeness, the demographic and socio-economic profile of the study sample were compared to that of the census population.

### **3.4.3 Measurement of Constructs**

The measurement of variables in the model represents the scale of items for each construct to be measured. Each construct in the proposed model (Figure 3.1) is designated either as an endogenous or an exogenous variable. An exogenous construct is one whose value is independent from other variables in the model, that is, a variable that does not receive a directional influence from other constructs in a model (MacCallum, 1995). For example, in the proposed model (Figure 3.1), perceived level of power, perceived economic performance of government actors, perceived political performance of government actors, and interpersonal trust are the exogenous constructs. They are proposed as exogenous constructs because they are not influenced by any other variables in the model, but they influence some other variables (MacCallum, 1995). On the other hand, an endogenous variable is one which receives a directional influence from other constructs and which may also emit directional influence to some other variables in the model (MacCallum, 1995). For example, perceived benefits of

tourism, perceived costs of tourism, and trust in government actors are the endogenous constructs in the model because they are influenced by some other variables in the model. Political support for tourism development is given as the ultimate dependent variable of the model.

For most of the constructs in the proposed model, scales that were used in other studies were adopted to measure the variables. If no standard measurement scale was available to measure a construct, a new measurement scale was proposed to assess the variable. However, the measurement scales to measure a construct was refined and modified where deemed appropriate to suit the context of the study. Validity and reliability of the scales used to operationalize the different constructs were assessed through a pilot study. The pilot study procedure is discussed after the explanation of the measurement scales. The following section of the chapter details the scales and scale items that were employed in the measurement of the constructs in the proposed model.

#### ***3.4.3.1 Political Support for Tourism***

Political support for tourism development is the ultimate dependent variable of the model. This construct was measured by nine items asking respondents to indicate their level of support for different types of tourism development. The items were used to create an index measuring political support for tourism. An index is a set of items or questions that structures or focuses multiple, yet distinctively related aspects of a dimension. The items used were:



1. Casino development
2. Attractions designed for large number of tourists (*e.g.* theme parks)
3. Hotel development
4. Convention and meeting facilities
5. Historic-based attractions (*e.g.* visitor centers at historic sites, museums)
6. Culinary events (*e.g.* local food festivals, Niagara culinary trails)
7. Cultural events (*e.g.* CAA Winter Festival of Lights, concerts, arts, crafts)
8. Nature-based tourism development (*e.g.* nature parks, gardens, conservation areas)
9. Wine tourism development

These forms of tourism development were chosen because they are relevant to Niagara Region. The measurement of this construct is based on existing studies that measured support by asking respondents to indicate their level of opposition to and support for specific types of tourism development (*e.g.* Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy *et al.*, 2002; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Yoon *et al.*, 2001; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012). Measuring support for tourism by asking residents to indicate their level of support/opposition for different types of tourism development is considered to be a methodologically sound way to measure the construct (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). All items in this scale were measured on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented “strongly oppose” and 5 represented “strongly support”. Higher scores on this scale indicated higher support for tourism development.

### ***3.4.3.2 Trust in Government Actors***

Four items were proposed to measure trust in government actors. These items were:

1. How much do you trust tourism decisions made by local government?
2. How much do you trust local elected officials to make the right decisions in tourism development?
3. How much do you trust local government to do what is right in tourism development without you having constantly to check on them?
4. How much do you trust local government to look after interests of the community in relation to tourism development

Citizens' trust in government has both institutional and personal dimensions. People may trust the political system, political leaders, and actors in the administration of public sector (Christensen & Laegreid, 2005). Thus, the measurement scale for trust in government actors reflects the institutional and personal aspects of trust. The first three items are adopted from Shi (2001) and the fourth item is borrowed from Luhiste (2006). The items were modified to suit the context of the present study. All items were measured on a scale where 1 represented "do not trust them at all" and 5 represented "trust them completely". Higher scores on this scale represented higher levels of trust in government actors involved in tourism development and planning.

### ***3.4.3.3 Perceived Benefits of Tourism***

Ten items were proposed to measure residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism. These items are developed from the relevant literature and were chosen because they reflect the positive

economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism development in Niagara Region. They also capture the different impacts of tourism espoused in the tourism literature. These items were:

1. Tourism leads to more employment opportunities for local people.
2. Tourism creates more opportunities for local businesses.
3. Tourism increases standard of living of local people.
4. Tourism generates revenues for local government.
5. Tourism generates revenues for provincial government.
6. Tourism encourages more investment in public development (*e.g.* road development, transportation).
7. Tourism provides incentives for the development of nature parks.
8. Tourism provides incentives for protection of natural resources.
9. Tourism helps preserve the cultural identity of the community.
10. Tourism improves the quality of life of residents.

The first four items have been adopted from Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a), Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), and Gursoy *et al.* (2002). The fifth item was designed specifically for the purpose of the study. The remaining items have been borrowed from Latkova and Vogt (2012). All items were measured on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented “strongly disagree” and 5 represented “strongly agree”. Higher scores on this scale indicated higher perceptions of the benefits of tourism.

#### ***3.4.3.4 Perceived Costs of Tourism***

Ten items were proposed to measure residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism. These items are developed from the relevant literature and were chosen because they reflect the negative economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism development in Niagara Region. They also capture the different impacts of tourism espoused in the tourism literature. These items were:

1. Tourism increases traffic problem.
2. Tourism results in more litter.
3. Tourism related jobs are low paid.
4. Tourism causes my community to be overcrowded.
5. Tourism unfairly increases property taxes.
6. Tourism increases the rate of crime.
7. Tourism increases the price of goods and services.
8. Tourism increases the price of land and property.
9. Tourism increases environmental pollution.
10. Tourism increases the depletion of natural resources.

The first six items have been adopted from Latkova and Vogt (2012), while items seven to nine have been borrowed from Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a), Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) and Gursoy *et al.* (2002). The tenth item has been developed specifically for the purpose of this study and reflects Healy's (2006) concern that tourism development in Niagara Region has led to an overuse of natural resources. All items were measured on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". Higher scores on this scale indicated higher perceptions of the costs of tourism.

### ***3.4.3.5 Perceived Level of Power***

Five items were used to measure residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development. These items were:

1. I have some personal influence in tourism planning and development.
2. I have the opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development.
3. Tourism businesses have too much influence in tourism planning and development.
4. Local elected officials have too much political influence in tourism planning and development.
5. Non-government organizations (*e.g.* environmental or cultural groups) have too much influence over tourism planning and development.

The first item is borrowed from Madrigal (1993) and Latkova and Vogt (2012). The second item is based on the study by Latkova and Vogt (2012) and Hung *et al.* (2011). The Asia Barometer Survey (<http://www.asianbarometer.org/>) which is a comprehensive study that measures public opinion on political values, democracy, and governance in several countries also makes use of a similar item to measure citizens' power in development. The third item is borrowed from Madrigal (1993). The fourth and fifth items have been developed specifically for the purpose of this study. The latter three items were reverse coded in SPSS. All items were measured on a scale where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". The responses were coded such that higher scores indicated greater residents' power in tourism development.

#### ***3.4.3.6 Perceived Economic Performance of Government Actors***

Residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors were measured by five items borrowed from the political science literature. These items were:

1. Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with current economic problems.
2. Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with future economic problems.
3. Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce unemployment.
4. Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty.
5. Local government effectively uses tourism to respond to current economic opportunities.

The first three items are adopted from Luhiste (2006), Mishler and Rose, (2001), and Wong *et al.* (2011). However, these items have been slightly modified to suit the context of the present study. The fourth and fifth items have been developed specially for the purpose of the present study. All items were measured on a scale where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". The responses were coded such that higher scores would indicate more positive perceptions of the economic performance of government actors in tourism.

#### ***3.4.3.7 Perceived Political Performance of Government Actors***

Residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors were measured by four items borrowed from the political science literature. These items were:

1. Local government treats residents fairly in the tourism development process.
2. Local government ensures that there is an adequate representation of residents in the tourism development process.
3. Local government is responsive to the needs of the residents in tourism development.

4. Corruption and bribe-taking are uncommon among local elected officials.

The first three items have been borrowed from Luhiste (2006) and Wong *et al.*, (2011). However, they were modified to suit the context of the present study. The fourth item has been developed specifically for the purpose of this study. These items were measured on a scale where 1 represented “strongly disagree” and 5 represented “strongly agree”. The responses were coded such that higher scores would indicate more positive perceptions of the political performance of government actors.

#### ***3.4.3.8 Interpersonal Trust***

Six items were proposed to measure interpersonal trust. These items were developed from the relevant literature and are presented below. Respondents were asked the following question:

To what extent do you trust

1. Your immediate family members? (*e.g.* parents, siblings)
2. Your relatives? (*e.g.* cousins, uncles, aunties)
3. Your friends?
4. People in general who you do not know?
5. People you meet for the first time?
6. People (whom you do not know) of an ethnicity different to your own?

The items used to measure interpersonal trust in this study represents an improvement over the question traditionally used to measure this variable: “Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?” This question, devised by Noelle-Neumann in 1948 has been adopted by many researchers (*e.g.*

Campbell, 2004; Luhiste, 2006; Mishler & Rose, 2005). However, in a recent study, Delhey *et al.* (2011) demonstrated that the phrase “most people” is undefined and its radius varies considerably across societies, substantially narrower in some, but wider in others. Consequently, they argued the term “most people” in measures of interpersonal trust may be lead to methodological ambiguities, and they suggested the need for a “radius-adjusted trust” scale (p. 800).

Delhey *et al.* (2011) empirically demonstrated that it is theoretically and methodologically more appropriate to ask people to state their level of trust in individuals from various groups instead of using the phrase “most people”. Consequently, this research followed the recommendations of Delhey *et al.* (2011) and adopted the items they used to measure interpersonal trust. The World Values Survey (<http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/>), a comprehensive survey which measures changing values and their impact on social and political life in several economies, also makes use of a similar scale. However, some slight modifications were brought to the scale items to suit the context of the present study. All items used were measured on a scale where 1 represented “do not trust them at all” and 5 represented “trust them completely”. Higher scores on this scale represented higher levels of interpersonal trust among respondents.

#### **3.4.4 Pilot Study**

This study followed the recommendations of Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991) for developing the measurement scales and a standardized survey instrument. The initial task in developing a scale is to devise an item pool (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Liu *et al.*, 1987; Liu & Var, 1986). A total of 53 items were developed or identified from the literature: five to measure



residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism; five to measure residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors; four to measure residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors; six to measure interpersonal trust; four to measure trust in government actors; ten to measure residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism; ten to measure residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism; and nine to measure political support for tourism development. Before the main survey was administered, it was necessary to test the survey instrument through a pilot study.

The test was necessary to validate the scale items that were either developed specifically for this study or modified from previous studies. A pilot study ensures that the items represent the concepts that they are intended to measure, that the data produced represent "true" values for these measures and do not contain much variability, and that the measurement items are sensitive enough to measure important differences (Collins, 2003). A pilot study also allows the researcher to detect problems related to unwarranted suppositions, awkward wordings, ambiguous questions, or missing responses (Presser *et al.*, 2004), and to understand whether respondents can understand the questions or concepts in a consistent way and in a way the researcher intended (Collins, 2003). Researchers suggest that it usually takes between 20-50 cases to detect major flaws in a questionnaire (Sheatsley, 1983; Sudman, 1983). The pilot study was conducted in different ways.

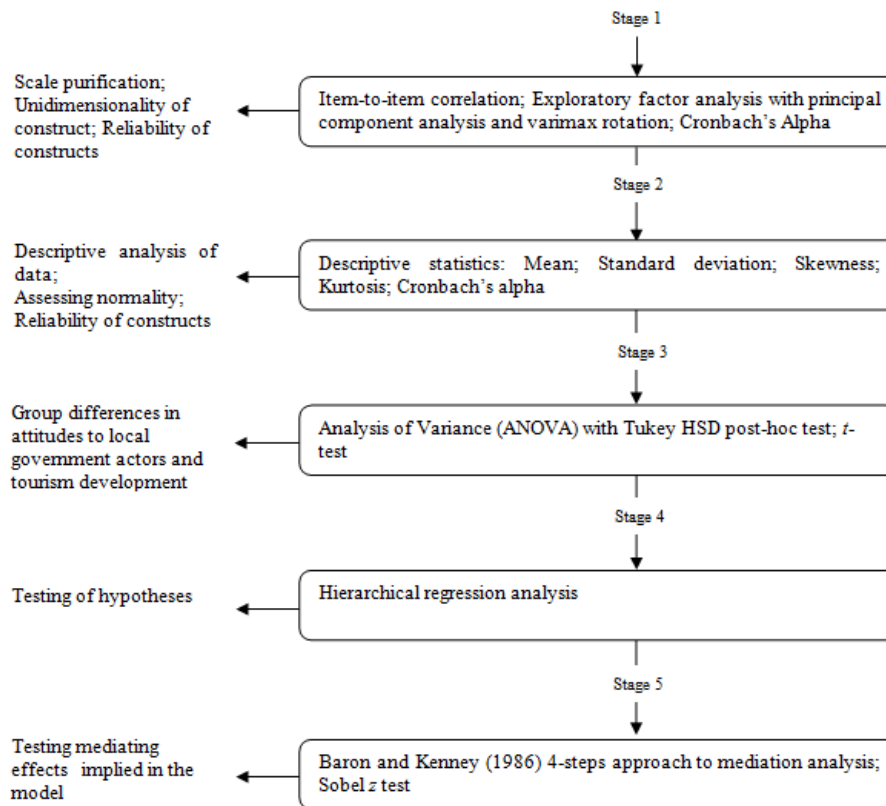
First, the survey instrument was distributed to faculty members, to graduate students of the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies, University of Waterloo, and to residents of the City of Waterloo. They were asked to provide feedback regarding the layout, wordings of the statements, and ease of understanding the statements that comprised the measurement scales.

The survey instrument was also sent to a number of tourism policy-makers and planners working in different tourism organizations involved in tourism planning and development in Niagara Region (e.g. Niagara Economic Development Corporation, Regional Municipality of Niagara). They were also asked to comment on the relevance of the items used to measure the different constructs to Niagara Region. The questionnaire was then revised based on the comments and feedback received.

The questionnaire was then sent by email to a number of tourism professors (including two from Niagara College) and researchers with expertise in political trust. They were asked to comment on the content and validity of the items used to measure the different constructs. They were also asked to provide feedback on the understandability of each of the measurement item, to edit and improve the phrasing of the items to ensure clarity, understandability, and readability, to identify any scale items that were redundant with other scales items, and to offer suggestions for improving the proposed scales. Their feedback and suggestions were taken into account and the scales were modified accordingly. The revised measurement scales were tested empirically using a convenience sample of students of the University of Waterloo. Responses from the pilot study were analyzed to test the reliability and validity of the measurement items. The questionnaire was revised based on the reliability and validity tests and the final version of the survey instrument was developed. The data analysis process is explained in the following section.

### 3.5 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE AND STATISTICAL METHODS

Data analysis followed a five-stage process depicted in Figure 3.2. Stage 1 used the pilot study data to purify the scale. In Step 2, a descriptive analysis of the main survey data were conducted. In Step 3, group differences in attitudes to local government actors and tourism development were analyzed. Step 4 involved testing of the proposed hypotheses. Step 5 analyzed the mediating effects implied in the model of the study. These steps are explained below.



**Figure 3.2. Five-stage Process to Data Analysis**

#### 3.5.1 Scale Purification and Exploratory Factor Analysis

Step 1 involved purification of the scale items using the pilot study data. One of the objectives of a pilot study is to establish a uni-dimensional scale for the measurement of a construct. First,

as recommended by Churchill (1979), items with item-to-item correlations lower than .30 were removed from the scale. Then, the remaining items were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to ensure uni-dimensionality. Uni-dimensionality refers to the existence of a single construct explaining a set of attributes. To detect scale dimensionality, EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation was conducted for each construct and sub-construct. According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), “factor analysis is a generic name given to a class of multivariate statistical method whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix” (p. 90). Factor analysis is used to determine linear combinations of variables that help in investigating their interrelationships. It is a statistical method to discover the basic structure of a domain and to add substantive interpretations to the underlying dimensions (Zikmund, 2003).

To determine the appropriateness for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined. A value of 0.60 or above from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test indicates that the data is adequate for EFA (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1989). A significant Bartlett's test of sphericity is also required. In order to make sure that each factor identified by the EFA had only one dimension and each attribute loaded only on one factor, attributes that had factor loadings of lower than .40 and attributes loading on more than one factor with a loading score of equal to or greater than .40 on each factor were eliminated from the analysis one at a time (Chen & Hsu, 2001; Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003; Hattie, 1985; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hung & Petrick, 2011). Using varimax rotation, factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted (Child, 1970; Fabrigar, Wegner, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). The reliability of each factor was then verified using Cronbach's alpha test (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). For a construct to be reliable, its Cronbach's

alpha value should be .70 or higher. The scales items were modified based on these results and the final version of the questionnaire was produced and administered to residents of Niagara Region using the online panel provided by TNS Global Marketing Research.

### **3.5.2 Descriptive Statistics**

Step 2 involved a descriptive analysis of the data collected from the main survey. The mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness, and kurtosis values were analyzed. The latter were important to verify the normality of the data which is a requirement for conducting regression analysis (discussed later). Although a reliability test was conducted for each construct using the pilot study sample, this test was repeated using data from the main sample to reconfirm the reliability of the constructs.

### **3.5.3 Analysis of Group Differences: *t*-test and ANOVA**

Stage 3 involved an analysis of group differences. The purpose of this data analysis stage was to investigate whether residents of different demographic and socioeconomic backgrounds differed in their attitudes to local government actors and to tourism development. Independent sample *t*-test and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to test the null hypothesis that the population mean is the same between two groups and among several groups of cases respectively. One way ANOVA displays multiple comparison statistics to evaluate the differences between all possible pairs of group mean (Norusis, 2006). However, the omnibus test (*F* test) produced by ANOVA does not provide information on the pattern of differences between the means (Abdi & Williams, 2010). Thus, if the overall *F* test indicated that subgroups means were different, Tukey honestly significant difference (HSD) post hoc test was used to

determine which categories of the factor variable were significantly different from other categories. Tukey HSD computes the honestly significant difference between two means using a statistical distribution which gives the exact sampling distribution of the largest difference between a set of means originating from the sample population (Abdi & Williams, 2010).

### **3.5.4 Multiple Regression and Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

Step 4 involved the testing of the formal hypotheses that were developed using hierarchical multiple regression which is a variant of the basic multiple regression procedure (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Multiple regression as a data analytic technique has become increasingly popular since 1967 in social sciences (Bashaw & Findley, 1968), including in tourism studies (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, in press). This statistical technique has been continuously refined and has evolved into a sophisticated and versatile tool for various kinds of data analyses (Nusair & Hua, 2010). Multiple regression is suited for analyzing collective and separate effects of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable (Pedhazur, 1997; Wampold & Freund, 1987). It is used to predict the variance in an interval dependent variable based on linear combinations of interval, dichotomous, or dummy independent variables (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Pedhazur, 1997; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The technique is well recognized for bridging the gap between correlation and analysis of variance in addressing research hypotheses (McNeil, Kelly, & McNeil, 1975). Ho (2006, p. 245) summarized the three main objectives of multiple regression as follows:

1. “The find the best prediction equation for set of variables; i.e., given X and Y (the predictors), what is Z (the criterion variable)?”

2. “To control for confounding factors to evaluate the contribution of a specific variable or set of variables, i.e. identifying independent relationships.”
3. “To find structural relationships and provide explanations for seemingly complex multivariate relationships, such as is done in path analysis.”

The multiple regression equation takes the following form:

$$Y' = A + B_1 X_1 + B_2 X_2 + \dots + B_n X_n$$

Where,

$Y'$  = the predicted variable;  $A$  = constant;  $B$  = unstandardized regression coefficient; and  $X$  = value of the predictor variable (Pedhazur, 1997).

Nusair and Hua (2010) argued that “the general model structure involves independent variable and dependent variables, assuming that independent variables cause dependent variable to change and the model error follows a certain known distribution” (p. 315). Multiple regression analysis follows a three-step process: (1) model specification based on previous theories and research to develop a theoretical regression model; (2) model identification which refers to deciding whether a set of unique parameter estimates can be estimated from the regression analysis; and (3) model estimation which involves estimating the parameters in the regression model by computing the sample regression weights for the independent variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Results from the multiple regression analysis indicate the explanatory power of all predictor variables with measures of  $R^2$  and adjusted  $R^2$  together with the relative importance of each individual predictor variable after calculating the  $\beta$  coefficients (Musil, Jones, & Warner, 1998).

The multiple regression coefficient  $R$  is an indication of the correlation between the weighted sum of the predictor variables and the criterion variable (Kachigan, 1986).  $R^2$  is the square of this measure of correlation and indicates the proportion of the variance in the criterion variable which is accounted for by the model. The closer the  $R^2$  value is to 1, the better is the model prediction accuracy (Nusair & Hua, 2010). The model prediction accuracy is measured by the value of the adjusted  $R^2$ , which is expressed as a percentage. It is an estimate of how the model would fit another dataset from the sample population (Norusis, 2006). Other components of the multiple regression analysis are the  $F$ -test and the  $t$ -test. The  $F$ -test indicates the strength of the regression model while the  $t$ -test assesses whether the independent variables predict the dependent variables.

Multiple regression has been one of the most popular statistical techniques to test theory in a number of academic disciplines (Hair, *et al.*, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004), including tourism (*e.g.* Ishii, 2012; Kim, 2012; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nusair & Hua, 2010; Sönmez, & Graefe, 1998; Wilkins, Merrilees, & Herington, 2006). Multiple regression has also widely been used in studies that investigate residents' support for tourism development (*e.g.* Haley, Snaith, & Miller, 2005; Hao *et al.*, 2011; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Madrigal, 1993; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Wang & Pfister, 2008).

Researchers are often interested in testing theoretical assumptions and analyzing the influence of several independent variables in a sequential way, such that the relative importance of an independent variable is judged on the basis on how much this independent variable contributes to  $R^2$  over and above that accounted for by other predictors (Petrocelli, 2003). In such a case, hierarchical multiple regression is particularly useful. While the standard multiple



regression analysis is used to evaluate the relationship between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable, hierarchical regression analysis is used to evaluate the relationship between a set of predictors and the dependent variable, controlling for the impact of a different set of predictors (control variables) on the dependent variable. According to Pedhazur (1997), two major purposes of hierarchical regression are: (1) to study the effect of a predictor variable(s) on the dependent variable after having controlled for another predictor(s) and (2) to study the relative effects of a set of predictors on the dependent variable. He further argued that “such an analysis is not intended to provide information about the relative importance of variables, but rather about the effect of a variable(s) after having controlled for another variable(s)” (p. 245).

Hierarchical regression analysis involves theoretically-based decisions on how predictors are entered into the regression equation (Petrocelli, 2003) and is specifically used to examine theoretically based hypotheses (Aron & Aron, 1999; Cohen, 2001). In a hierarchical regression, the  $k$  independent variables are entered cumulatively in a pre-specified sequence and the  $R^2$  and partial coefficients are determined as each independent variable joins the others (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Order of the entry of variables into the analysis is crucial and should be based on some kind of theoretical justifications (Pedhazur, 1997; Petrocelli, 2003). Hierarchical regression analysis partitions the variance accounted for by all the predictor variables (*i.e.*,  $R^2$ ) incrementally, while allowing for an understanding of the increment in the proportion of variance accounted for by each independent variable (or a set of predictors) at the point at which it is entered in the regression equation (Pedhazur, 1997). Change in  $R^2$  ( $\Delta R^2$ ) and its corresponding change in  $F$  ( $\Delta F$ ) following the entry of each predictor or set of predictors are the statistics of greatest interest when using hierarchical regression (Courville & Thompson, 2001; Petrocelli,

2003; Thompson & Borrello, 1985). Petrocelli (2003) further noted that it is also important that attention is paid to how predictor variables are reevaluated based on their corresponding beta values when other predictors are added to the analysis.

Effective use of hierarchical regression depends on the research question being asked, the hypotheses being tested, and the logic behind the research design (Petrocelli, 2003; Wampold & Freud, 1987). An atheoretical use of hierarchical regression is inappropriate (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Given that the purpose of this research is to test a number of hypotheses developed based on the postulates three different theories, hierarchical regression is suitable given that it is a theory driven data analytic method (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Petrocelli, 2003; Wampold & Freud, 1987). The ability of hierarchical regression to examine the significance in the incremental increases in  $R^2$  when more than one predictor variables or set of variables are of interest (Petrocelli, 2003), means that its use in the present research allows for an understanding of the change in predictability in the dependent variables (*e.g.* trust in government actors), associated with each set of predictor variables (*e.g.* interpersonal trust, perceived economic and political performance of government actors, perceived power, perceived benefits and costs) that were derived from the different theories (*i.e.*, cultural theory of political trust, institutional theory of political trust, and SET). In doing so, hierarchical regression shed light on the predictive power of SET, institutional theory, and cultural theory, both separately and jointly, in explaining residents' trust in government actors and their political support for tourism.

#### ***3.5.4.1 Assumptions of Regression Analysis***

Effective use of multiple regression and hierarchical multiple regression is based on a number of assumptions: normality and multicollinearity (Pedhazur, 1997; Ho, 2006). Normality of the error

distribution assumes that errors of the prediction, that is, the difference between the obtained and predicted dependent variable score are normally distributed (Ho, 2006). In order to assess the normality of the distribution of the data, the skewness and kurtosis values of each variable were examined. The critical value for both of these measures of normality is drawn from a  $z$ -distribution. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to generate skewness and kurtosis values for each of the variables in the model. A value of zero for skewness and kurtosis implies perfect normality in the data distribution. However, this is rarely achieved. For a data set to be normally distributed, the skewness and kurtosis values should fall between  $\pm 2$  (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Another important assumption when using regression analysis is that there should be no problem of multicollinearity. This occurs when two or more predictor variables are very highly correlated with each other, resulting in an overlap or sharing of predictive power. In such cases, the predictor variables share the same information (Ho, 2006). Multicollinearity is undesirable for many reasons. First, if the independent variables in a regression equation are highly correlated, none of them will have a substantial impact on the dependent variable, despite a good model fit (Ho, 2006; Wampold & Freund, 1987). This is also likely to result in an insignificant  $\Delta R^2$ . Thus, all the predictor variables taken together may contribute largely to the variance in the dependent variable, but individually they do not contribute significantly to the model (Ho, 2006). A second problem of high multicollinearity is that estimates of the population partial regression coefficients (*i.e.*  $\beta$  and  $\Delta R^2$ ) is likely to be unstable, resulting in decreased probabilities in obtaining significant relationships (Wampold & Freund, 1987).

Multicollinearity was verified by analyzing the tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values for each predictor variable in the model. The tolerance value indicates the percentage of the variance in the predictor variable that cannot be accounted for by the other predictors in the model. A very small tolerance value indicates overlap or sharing of predictive power. The VIF value is computed as  $1/\text{tolerance}$ . The acceptable boundaries of tolerance and VIF coefficient are  $> 0.3$  and  $< 10$  respectively (Field, 2000; Ho, 2006; Pedhazur, 1997).

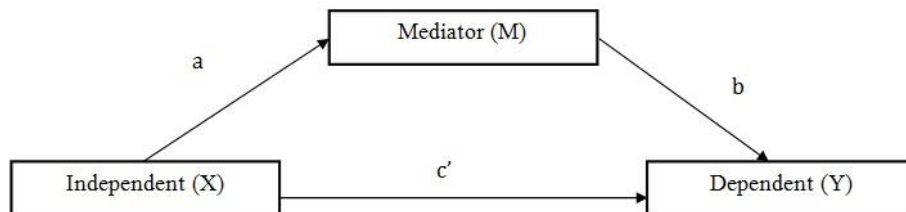
#### **3.5.4.2 Control Variables**

Once the above assumptions were met, a series of hierarchical regression equations were run to test the proposed hypotheses. In each regression model, basic demographic and socio-economic variables such as age, gender, income, employment, education, ethnicity, and political party affiliation were controlled systematically for three principal reasons. First, these variables are standard explanatory variables that have explained citizens' trust in government institutions in previous studies, although there is no universal pattern and results vary from society to society (*e.g.* Backstrom & Edlund, 2012; Campbell, 2004; Catterberg & Moreno, 2005; Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Kim, 2005; Johnson, 2005; Luhiste, 2006; Miller & Borelli, 1991; Norris, 1999b; Rohrschneider & Schmitt-Beck, 2002; Schoon & Chen, 2011; Sturgis, Brunton-Smith, Read, & Allum, 2010). Socioeconomic and demographic variables have also been found to explain residents' support for tourism in previous studies (*e.g.* Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Bastias-Perez & Var, 1996; Broughman & Butler, 1981; Chen, 2000; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Hsu, 1998; Husbands, 1989; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b; Ritchie, 1988). Second, control variables allow for a true estimation of the relationship between the predictors of theoretical interest and the dependent variables

(Ramkissoon, Smith & Weiler, in press). Third, controlling for these variables allows for an assessment of their unique contribution to the dependent variables, and may thus provide some useful explanation about the social mechanism causing variations in trust in government actors and political support for tourism.

### 3.5.5 Mediating Effects

The proposed model of the study suggests the presence of three mediating variables (perceived benefits, perceived costs, and trust in government actors), although no formal hypotheses have been proposed to test the mediating relationships. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a mediator is a variable that accounts for the relation between the predictor variable and the criterion variable. Thus, in a mediation model, the predictor variable is presumed to cause the mediator which in turn causes the outcome variable (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). A mediation analysis attempts to “identify the intermediary process that leads from the independent variable to the dependent variable” (Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt 2005, p. 852). The present research used Baron and Kenny’s (1986) approach to test for mediating effects. Although other design frameworks have been proposed to test for mediation, Baron and Kenny’s (1986) approach has received the greatest attention and is the most prevalent method (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed a four-step approach to mediation analysis which involves the estimation of three equations. This process is explained with the help of Figure 3.3.



**Figure 3.3. Illustration of a Mediating Design: *X* Affects *Y* indirectly through *M***

In Step 1, the independent variable ( $X$ ) is shown to be related to the dependent variable ( $Y$ ) (*i.e.*,  $c \neq 0$  in Figure 3.2). This step establishes if there is an overall direct effect that may be mediated. “ $i$ ” denotes the intercept coefficient and “ $e$ ” denotes the regression error. This step is analyzed by estimating the following equation:

$$Y = i_1 + cX + e \quad (1)$$

Step 2 establishes whether  $X$  significantly predicts the mediator ( $M$ ) (*i.e.*,  $a \neq 0$  in Figure 3.2). This step is analyzed by estimating the following equation:

$$M = i_2 + aX + e \quad (2)$$

Step 3 establishes whether  $M$  significantly predicts  $Y$ , controlling for  $X$  (*i.e.*,  $b \neq 0$  in Figure 3.2). This step is assessed by estimating the following equation:

$$Y = i_3 + c'X + bM + e \quad (3)$$

Step 4 posits that if the effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  decreases to zero (or becomes insignificant) with the inclusion of  $M$ , perfect mediation or complete mediation is said to have occurred. If the effect of  $Y$  decreases by a nontrivial amount, but not to zero, partial mediation is said to have occurred (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

Although this four-step approach establishes if mediation effect is in place, it is not a direct and formal statistical test of mediation (Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998; Kraemer, Wilson, Fairburn, & Agras, 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The four-step procedure is stated in terms of non-zero coefficient, and researchers note that a trivial coefficient can be statistically significant with a large sample, and a large coefficient can be non-significant when sample size is small.

Consequently, several statistically rigorous methods for testing mediating have been developed. One of the most commonly utilized methods is one described by Baron and Kenny (1986), known as Sobel  $z$  test (Sobel, 1982) that tests the statistical significance of mediating effects. Sobel test is used as a supplement to Baron and Kenny's approach (Hayes, 2009) and reduces Type I and Type II errors (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Sobel test ( $z$ ) involves the estimation of the following equation, where  $a$ ,  $b$ , and their squared standard errors ( $s$ ) are derived from equation 2 and equation 3 respectively:

$$z = \frac{a \times b}{\sqrt{b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 s_b^2}}$$

The performance of Sobel test has been discussed and demonstrated in a number of studies (*e.g.* Hoyle & Kenny, 1999; MacKinnon, 1994; MacKinnon & Dwyer, 1993; MacKinnon *et al.*, 2001; MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets' (2002) comparative study of 14 different methods for assessing mediation confirmed the superiority of Sobel test in terms of statistical power over other methods. In the present research, calculation for Sobel test was done through the interactive website provided by Kristopher Preacher and Geoffrey Leonardelli, available from <http://quantpsy.org/sobel/sobel.htm>.

### **3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter discussed the research methodology for the study and provided an overview of the study site of the research with the purpose of setting the context for the study. The research design, including data collection methods, the study sample, and the measurement scales used were presented. The statistical procedures used in this research were also discussed.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the result the study. The first section of the chapter provides a description of the pilot study sample and presents the results of the EFA. Then, the demographic and socioeconomic profile of the main survey sample is presented. This is followed by a presentation of the results of the preliminary statistical tests (descriptive statistics and group differences). The final section of the chapter presents the results of the hierarchical regression and mediation analysis.

#### **4.2 RESULTS**

As discussed in the previous chapter (Chapter 3), it was necessary to test the scale items that were used to measure the different constructs presented in Figure 1.1 (Chapter 1) through a pilot study. The pilot study of the survey instrument was conducted in several ways. The questionnaire was distributed to ten graduate students of the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies, University of Waterloo, five residents of the City of Waterloo, and three tourism practitioners working in the Niagara Region. They were asked to comment on the clarity of the statements and offer suggestions for improvement. Then, seven professors with expertise in tourism and political science were asked to assess the content adequacy of the items. The professors were requested to provide comments on content and understandability of each item. They were also asked to edit and improve the items to enhance their clarity, readability, and content adequacy, to identify any items that were redundant with other scale items, and to offer suggestions for improving the proposed scale. A range of suggestions were made and these were



taken into account, and the survey instrument was revised accordingly. Then, the newly developed questionnaire was tested empirically. This step of the pilot study is discussed in the following section.

#### **4.2.1 Profile of the Pilot Study Respondents**

A convenience sample was used to conduct the pilot study which took place in March 2011. The sample consisted of students from the REC 280 (Introduction to Tourism) course offered by the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies, University of Waterloo. Permission to carry out the pilot study with the students was obtained from the instructor. The survey was handed to the students at the beginning of the class. A letter explaining the purpose of this exercise was attached to the questionnaires. The surveys were collected immediately after completion. A total of 142 questionnaires were collected and five of them were eliminated because they were incomplete. This resulted in a final pilot study sample of 137 respondents. This sample satisfied the minimum sample size requirement for performing EFA which should be at least 100 (Hair *et al.*, 1998) and a ratio of at least five responses for every one variable in each scale being measured (Gursoy, 2001). Table 4.1 presents the demographic profile of the pilot study sample.

**Table 4.1: Demographic Profile of Pilot Study Respondents (N = 137)**

Category	N	%
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	67	48.9
Female	70	51.1
<b>Age</b>		
Under 20	33	24.1
20-24	102	74.5
25-29	2	1.5
<b>Ethnicity</b>		
White	69	50.4
Black	4	2.9
East Asian	42	30.7
South Asian	16	11.7
Latin American	1	0.7
Others	5	3.6
<b>Annual Household Income</b>		
Less than \$15,000	14	10.2
\$15,000 to \$24,999	12	8.8
\$25,000 to \$34,999	7	5.1
\$35,000 to \$44,999	13	9.5
\$45,000 to \$59,999	7	5.1
\$60,000 to \$79,999	14	10.2
\$80,000 to \$99,999	20	14.6
\$100,000 or more	50	36.5
<b>Benefit from Tourism</b>		
None	28	20.4
A little	51	37.2
Some	51	37.2
A lot	7	5.1
<b>Political Party Affiliation</b>		
Conservative	50	36.5
Liberal	49	35.8
National Democratic Party	25	18.2
Greens	13	9.5

Majority of respondents were female ( $n = 70$ , 51.1%) and the rest were male ( $n = 67$ , 48.9%). The age distribution of the pilot study sample was as follows: under 20 years of age ( $n = 33$ , 24.1%), between 20 to 24 years of age ( $n = 102$ , 74.5%), and between 25-29 years of age ( $n = 2$ , 1.5%). In terms of ethnicity, the sample was dominated by White ( $n = 69$ , 50.4%), followed by East Asian ( $n = 42$ , 30.7%), South Asian ( $n = 16$ , 11.7%), others ( $n = 5$ , 3.6%),

Black ( $n = 4$ , 2.9%), and Latin American ( $n = 1$ , 0.7%). The majority of the respondents reported an annual household income of \$100,000 or more ( $n = 50$ , 36.5%) and between \$80,000 and \$99,999 ( $n = 20$ , 14.6%). In terms of party affiliation, fifty respondents ( $n = 50$ , 36.5%) supported Conservative, and the remaining supported Liberal ( $n = 49$ , 35.8%), National Democratic Party (NDP) ( $n = 25$ , 18.2%), and Green ( $n = 13$ , 9.5%). Only a small number of respondents ( $n = 28$ , 20.4%) did not derive any benefits from tourism development.

#### **4.2.2 Scale Purification and Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Purification of a measurement instrument begins with the removal of items that have low item-to-item correlation and the computation of the coefficient alpha (Chen & Hsu, 2001; Churchill 1979). The criterion used in deciding whether to delete an item from the scale was the item's corrected item-to-total correlation. Items with an item-to-item correlation score lower than .30 were discarded from the scale as recommended by Churchill (1979). This process resulted in the deletion of several items that were originally proposed to measure the constructs. EFA was then conducted on the remaining items for each construct. This process is discussed below.

##### ***4.2.2.1 EFA for Political Support for Tourism***

Nine items were used to create an index of political support for tourism. Five items were deleted because they had values below .30 item-to-item correlation (Churchill, 1979). These items were (1) "historic-based attractions", (2) "wine tourism development", (3) "cultural events", (4) "nature-based tourism", and (5) "culinary events". The remaining four items: (1) "casino development", (2) "attractions designed for large number of tourists", (3) "hotel development", and (4) "convention and meeting facilities" were subjected to an EFA with a principal

component method and varimax rotation to give this index better construct validity. The results of the EFA are presented in Table 4.2 below. Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.61) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Four Items Measuring Political Support**  
**(N = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Hotel development	.81
Convention and meeting facilities	.73
Attractions designed to attract large number of tourists	.67
Casino development	.54
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha)</b>	.62
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	1.92
<b>Variance explained</b>	47.89
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.61
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

**Note:** Only factor loadings  $>.40$  are shown.  
 Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Results from the EFA suggested the existence of single factor that underlies the political support for tourism construct. This factor explained around 47.89% of the variance in the scale and comprised of four items: (1) "hotel development", (2) "convention and meeting facilities", (3) "attractions designed to attract large number of tourists", and (4) "casino development" (factor loadings of .81, .73, .67, and .54 respectively). The Cronbach's alpha test indicated a reliability score of .62, which is below the .70 guideline established in Chapter 3. However, it was determined to be close enough to consider due to the fact that reliability scores that are

between .60 and .70 represent the lower limit of acceptability (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Nunnally (1967) also suggested that Cronbach's alpha value should be at least .60 to be considered reliable. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed measurement scale to assess political support for tourism was reliable.

#### 4.2.2.2 EFA for Trust in Government Actors

Four items were proposed to measure trust in government actors. All items had an item-to-item correlation value of above .30 and as a result, no items were deleted from this measurement scale. The four items were subjected to an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. The results of the EFA are presented in Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Four Items Measuring Trust in Government Actors (N = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Trust in tourism decisions	.85
Trust in local elected officials	.83
Trust in local government to do what is right in tourism development	.75
Trust in local government to look after the interests of the community in tourism development	.70
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha)</b>	.79
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	2.45
<b>Variance explained</b>	61.21
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.76
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown; Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are shown.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.76) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis (Table 4.2). Results suggested the existence of a single factor comprising of four items. These items were: (1) "trust in tourism decisions", (2) "trust in local elected officials", (3) "trust in local government to do what is right in tourism development", and (4) "trust in local government to look after the interests of the community in tourism development" (factor loadings of .85, .83, .75, and .70 respectively). This factor explained around 61.21% of the variance in the scale (Table 4.3). The reliability test yielded a Cronbach's alpha score of .79, which exceeds the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed measurement scale to assess residents' trust in government actors was reliable.

#### ***4.2.2.3 EFA for Perceived Benefits of Tourism***

Ten items were originally proposed to measure residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism development. Five items were deleted from the measurement scales because they had values below .30 item-to-item correlation (Churchill, 1979). These items were: (1) "tourism generates revenues for the local government", (2) "tourism generates revenues for the provincial government", (3) "tourism increases the standard of living of local people", (4) "tourism provides incentives for the protection of natural resources", and (5) "tourism improves the quality of life of residents". The remaining 5 items were then subjected to the EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. The results of the EFA are presented in Table 4.4. Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.73) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis (Table 4.4).

**Table 4.4**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Five Items Measuring Perceived Benefits of Tourism (N = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Tourism leads to employment opportunities for local people	.84
Tourism creates more opportunities for local businesses	.84
Tourism encourages more investment in public development (e.g. road development, transportation, infrastructure)	.75
Tourism provides incentives for the development of nature parks	.65
Tourism helps preserve the cultural identity of the community	.55
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha)</b>	.75
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	2.70
<b>Variance explained</b>	53.98
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.73
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.000

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown  
Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are shown.

Results suggested the existence of a single factor comprising of five items. These items were: (1) “tourism leads to employment opportunities for local people”, (2) “tourism creates more opportunities for local businesses”, (3) “tourism encourages more investment in public development (e.g. road development, transportation)”, (4) “tourism provides incentives for the development of nature parks”, and (5) “tourism helps preserve the cultural identity of the community” (factor loadings of .84, .84, .75, .65, and .55 respectively). This factor explained around 53.98% of the variance in the scale (Table 4.4). The reliability test yielded a Cronbach’s alpha reliability score of .75, which exceeds the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed measurement scale to assess residents’ perceptions of the benefits of tourism was reliable.

#### ***4.2.2.4 Perceived Costs of Tourism***

Ten items were originally proposed to measure residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism development. Two items were deleted from the measurement scale because they had values below .30 item-to-item correlation (Churchill, 1979). These items were (1) "tourism related jobs are low paid" and (2) "tourism increases the depletion of natural resources". The remaining eight items were subjected to an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. EFA resulted in the deletion of two more items because of double loadings (Chen & Hsu, 2001). These items were (1) "tourism causes my community to be overcrowded" (2) "tourism increases the price of land and property". An EFA was run on the existing scale each time an item was removed from the analysis. The results are presented in Table 4.5.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.75) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis (Table 4.5). Results suggested the existence of a two factors. Factor 1 was comprised of the following four items (1) "tourism increases environmental pollution", (2) "tourism increases traffic problems", (3) "tourism results in more litter", and (4) "tourism increases the price of goods and services" (factor loadings of .79, .75, .72, and .61 respectively). This factor explained 42.58% of the variance in the scale. The reliability test for the items loading on Factor 1 yielded a Cronbach's alpha reliability score of .72, which exceeds the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. Factor 2 comprised of two items: (1) "tourism unfairly increases property taxes" and (2) "tourism increases the rate of crime" (factor loadings of .84 and .74 respectively). This factor explained around 17.25% of variance in the scale



**Table 4.5**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Eight items Measuring Perceived Costs of**  
**Tourism (N = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1	Factor 2
Tourism increases environmental pollution	.79	
Tourism increases traffic problems	.75	
Tourism results in more litter	.72	
Tourism increases the price of goods and services	.61	
Tourism unfairly increases property taxes		.84
Tourism increases the rate of crime		.74
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha)</b>	0.72	0.51
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	2.56	1.04
<b>Variance explained</b>	42.58	17.25
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.75	
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.000	

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown.  
Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are shown.

The reliability test for the items loading on Factor 2 yielded a Cronbach's alpha reliability score of .51 which is below the recommended guideline. Therefore, the items loading on Factor 2 were excluded from any further analysis. Thus, residents' perceptions of the cost of tourism were measured by the four items that loaded on Factor 1. Given that this scale displayed good reliability, it was concluded that the proposed items to assess residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism were reliable.

#### 4.2.2.5 EFA for Perceived Economic Performance of Government Actors

Five items were proposed to measure residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors. All items had an item-to-item correlation value of above .30, and as a result, no items were deleted from this measurement scale. The five items were subjected to an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. Results of the EFA are presented in Table 4.6 below.

**Table 4.6**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Five Items Measuring Perceived Economic Performance of Government Actors (N = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with current economic problems.	.76
Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with future economic problems.	.76
Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce unemployment	.76
Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty	.73
Local government effectively uses tourism to take advantage of current economic opportunities	.70
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha)</b>	.79
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	2.75
<b>Variance explained</b>	55.04
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.77
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown  
Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are shown.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.77) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis. Results suggested the existence of a single factor comprising of five items. These items were:

(1) “local government effectively uses tourism to deal with current economic problems”, (2) “local government effectively uses tourism to deal with future economic problems”, (3) “local government effectively uses tourism to reduce unemployment”, (4) “local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty”, and (5) “local government effectively uses tourism to take advantage of current economic opportunities” (factor loadings of .76, .76, .76, .73, and .70 respectively). This factor explained around 55% of the variance in the scale (Table 4.6). The reliability test yielded a Cronbach’s alpha reliability score of .79, which exceeds the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed measurement scale to assess residents’ perceptions of the economic performance of government actors was reliable.

#### ***4.2.2.6 EFA for Perceived Political Performance of Government Actors***

Four items were proposed to measure residents’ perceptions of the political performance of government actors. All items had an item-to-item correlation value of above .30, and as a result, no items were deleted from this measurement scale. The five items were subjected to an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. The results of the EFA are presented in Table 4.7. Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.75) and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis (Table 4.7).

Results suggested the existence of a single factor comprising of four items. These items were: (1) “local government treats residents fairly in the tourism development process”, (2) “local government ensures that there is an adequate representation of residents in the tourism development process”, (3) “local government is responsive to the needs of the residents in tourism development”, and (4) “corruption and bribe-taking are uncommon among local elected

officials” (factor loadings of .82, .78, .72, and .67 respectively). This factor explained around 56.27% of the variance in the scale (Table 4.7). The Cronbach’s reliability test yielded a Cronbach’s alpha reliability score of .73, which exceeded the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed measurement scale to assess residents’ perceptions of the political performance of government actors was reliable.

**Table 4.7**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Four Items Measuring Perceived Political Performance of Government Actors (N = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Local government treats residents fairly in the tourism development process	.82
Local government ensures that there is an adequate representation of residents in the tourism development process	.78
Local government is responsive to the needs of the residents in tourism development	.72
Corruption and bribe-taking are uncommon among local elected officials	.67
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha)</b>	.73
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	2.25
<b>Variance explained</b>	56.27
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.75
The Bartlett’s test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown  
Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are shown.

#### ***4.2.2.7 EFA for Perceived Power in Tourism***

Five items were originally proposed to measure residents’ perceptions of their level of power in tourism development. Three items were deleted from the measurement scales because they had values below .30 item-to-item correlation (Churchill, 1979). These items were (1) “tourism businesses have too much influence in tourism planning and development” (2) “local elected

officials have too much political influence in tourism planning and development”, and (3) “non-governmental organizations (*e.g.* environmental or cultural groups) have too much political influence in tourism planning and development”. The remaining two items were subjected to an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. Findings of the EFA are presented in Table 4.8.

**Table 4.8**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Two Items Measuring Residents’ Perceived Power in Tourism Development (*N* = 137)**

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Personal influence in tourism planning and development	.83
Opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development	.83
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha)</b>	.53
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	1.36
<b>Variance explained</b>	68.22
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.60
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown  
 Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.60) and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis. Findings suggested the existence of a single factor comprising of two items. These items were: (1) “personal influence in tourism planning and development” and (2) “I have the opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development” (factor loadings of .83 and .83 respectively). This factor explained around 68.22% of the variance in the scale (Table 4.8).

The Cronbach’s reliability test yielded a Cronbach’s alpha reliability score of .53, which was below the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. However, this scale was deemed to be acceptable

for the following reasons. First, the scale has shown good internal reliability in previous studies (e.g. Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Madrigal, 1993). Second, Nunnally (1967) considered Cronbach's alpha values between .50 and .60 as acceptable for a preliminary study. Third, the low Cronbach's alpha value is acceptable given the relatively small number of items measuring this construct (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Researchers argue that alpha coefficients can be much smaller than the required norm and still be acceptable for scales with few items (Cortina, 1993; Engs & Hanson, 1994; Hou, Lin, & Morais, 2005; Petrick & Backman, 2002). It is for these reasons that it was decided that the items to measure residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism could be deemed as acceptable.

#### ***4.2.2.8 EFA for Interpersonal Trust***

Six items were originally proposed to create an index for interpersonal trust. Two items were deleted because they had values below .30 item-to-item correlation (Churchill, 1979). These items were (1) "trust in immediate family" and (2) "trust in relatives". The remaining four items were subjected to an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation to ensure unidimensionality. Findings of the EFA are presented in Table 4.9.

Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy test (.66) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p = .00$ ) indicated that the data were acceptable for factor analysis. Results from Table 4.9 suggested the existence of a single factor comprising of four items. These items were: (1) trust in people you meet for the first time, (2) trust in people who in general you do not know, (3) trust in friends, and (4) trust in people of a different ethnicity (factor loadings of .85, .81, .60, and .60 respectively). This factor explained around 52.23% of the variance in the scale (Table 4.9). The Cronbach's reliability test yielded a Cronbach's alpha

reliability score of .70, which met the .70 guideline set in Chapter 3. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed measurement scale to assess interpersonal trust was reliable.

**Table 4.9**  
**Factor Analysis Result from the Pretest of the Four Items Measuring Interpersonal Trust**  
*(N = 137)*

Scale items/Factors	Factor 1
Trust in people you meet for the first time	.85
Trust in people in general whom you do not know	.81
Trust in friends	.60
Trust in people of a different ethnicity	.60
<b>Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha)</b>	.70
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	2.09
<b>Variance explained</b>	52.23
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.66
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

**Note:** Only factor loadings >.40 are shown  
Only those items that loaded only on one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are shown.

## 4.3 MAIN SURVEY

### 4.3.1 Sample and Response Rate

The sample population of the study consisted of individuals residing in Niagara Region and who were at least 18 years of age or older. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study was attached to the questionnaire (Appendix 1). The questionnaire was divided into nine sections: Section A measured residents' level of political support for tourism development; Section B asked respondents about their level of trust in government actors involved in tourism planning and development; Section C and Section D measured residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism respectively; Section E and Section F measured residents' perceptions of the

economic and political performance of government actors respectively; Section G measured interpersonal trust among respondents; Section H measured residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development; and the final section of the survey instrument (Section I) gathered information on the demographic and socioeconomic background of respondents.

The questionnaire was sent to 3271 residents of Niagara Region through TNS Global Marketing Research's online panel. The survey was opened to participants for 10 days, between 28th May and 6th June 2012. A total of 408 participants responded to the survey, resulting in a response rate of 12.5% (Table 4.10). Seventeen (0.5%) online panelists logged into their account to take the survey, but did not complete it. These incomplete responses were deemed unusable and were eliminated from any further analysis to avoid statistical biases (Hair *et al.*, 1998). After eliminating the incomplete questionnaires, three hundred and ninety-one responses ( $N = 391$ ) were retained for further analysis.

**Table 4.10**  
**Response Rate**

	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Total survey population	3271	100.00%
Total responses	408	12.50%
Less incomplete surveys	(17)	0.50%
Total usable responses (N)	391	12%

The low response rate obtained for this study is not surprising. Previous research has generally reported that web surveys such as online panels produce a lower response rate than traditional survey methods (*e.g.* Cole, 2005; Couper, Blair, & Triplett, 1999; Kiesler & Sproull, 1986; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Schuldt & Totten, 1994; Tse *et al.*, 1995; Weible & Wallace, 1998), although some other studies note the opposite (*e.g.* Guterbock; Meekins, Weaver, & Fries,



2000). The low response rate noted in this study is also consistent with the findings of Hung and Law's (2011) review of Internet-based survey research in tourism and hospitality studies that revealed the majority of research reported a response rate of between 10% and 19%. The low response rate in this study can potentially be explained by the short period of time (10 days) the survey was opened to participants. However, these figures also indicate a fast turnaround time for completion of the survey, confirming past evidences that suggest web-based surveys have a substantially shorter average response time than other data collection methods (*e.g.* Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000; Kiesler & Sproull, 1986; Kwak & Radler, 2002; McDevitt & Small, 2002; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Weible & Wallance, 1998).

### **4.3.2 Profile of Respondents**

To provide a descriptive profile of the final survey respondents, their demographic and socio-economic characteristics (gender, age, marital status, ethnicity, level of education, level of income, employment, and political affiliation) were analyzed. Results are presented in Table 4.11.

#### **4.3.2.1 Gender**

Survey respondents were asked to indicate their gender. The sample was dominated by female respondents: 65.7% ( $n = 257$ ) versus 34.3% ( $n = 134$ ). Although, traditionally, males are more likely to sign up for online panels and respond to web-based surveys (*e.g.* Palmquist & Stueve, 1996; Reissman, 1990), our findings suggested otherwise. This is probably because gender equality in this area is beginning to emerge (Atkin, Jeffres, & Neuendorf, 1998; Lin 1998). This assertion is confirmed by some studies that reported higher rate of female participation in web-based surveys such as online panels (*e.g.* Cole, 2005; Sax, Gilmartin & Bryant, 2003).

**Table 4.11**  
**Profile of Main Survey Respondents**

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Number (n)</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<i>Gender (N = 391)</i>		
Male	134	34.3%
Female	257	65.7%
<i>Age (N = 391)</i>		
18-24 years old	17	4.3%
25-34 years old	32	8.2%
35-44 years old	65	16.6%
45-54 years old	77	19.7%
55-64 years old	126	32.2%
65-74 years old	57	14.6%
75-84 years old	17	4.3%
<i>Marital status (N = 391)</i>		
Widowed	19	4.9%
Single	69	17.6%
Common-law	36	9.2%
Married	210	53.7%
Divorced/separated	57	14.6%
<i>Ethnic origin (N = 383)</i>		
Non-minorities	366	95.6%
Visible minorities)	17	4.4%
<i>Level of education (N = 391)</i>		
Less than high school	19	4.9%
High school	145	37.1%
Apprenticeship/trade certificate	26	6.6%
College	129	33.0%
University	72	18.4%
<i>Level of income (N = 337)</i>		
Low income groups (\$34,999 or less)	116	34.4%
Middle income groups (\$35,000 – \$79,999)	98	29.1%
High income groups (\$ 80,000 - \$ 99,999)	86	25.5%
Very high income groups (\$100,000 and above)	37	11.0%
<i>Employment (N = 301)</i>		
Professional	39	12.6%
Business executive/owner	18	5.8%
Administrative	17	5.5%
Retail services	28	9.0%
Managerial	11	3.5%
Clerical worker	17	5.5%
Skilled worker	31	10.0%
Retried	114	36.8%
Unemployed	26	8.4%
Student	9	2.9%
<i>Employment in tourism industry (N = 391)</i>		
Yes	19	4.9%
No	372	95.1%
<i>Political party affiliation (N = 277)</i>		
Conservative	93	33.6%
Liberal	61	22.0%
National Democratic Party	100	36.1%
Greens	23	8.3%

#### **4.3.2.2 Age**

Participants were asked to state in which age cohort they fall. Respondents between the age of 55 and 65 years dominated the sample (32.2%,  $n = 126$ ), followed by those in the age group of 45 to 54 years (19.7%,  $n = 77$ ), 35 to 44 years (16.6%,  $n = 65$ ), 65-74 years (14.6%,  $n = 57$ ), and 25 to 34 years (8.2%,  $n = 32$ ). There was an equal number of responses from those between the age of 18-24 years (4.3%,  $n = 17$ ) and those between the age of 75 to 84 years (4.3%,  $n = 17$ ). Although some studies suggest that the population of online panels tend to be younger (*e.g.* Atkin *et al.*, 1998; Lin, 1998), findings from this study suggested that older adults were equally well represented in the sample. This is probably because older respondents have more time and skill required to respond to online surveys (Loosveldt & Sonck, 2008).

#### **4.3.2.3 Marital Status**

Respondents were asked to provide information on their marital status by checking one of the following choices: “widowed”, “single”, “common-law”, “married” or “divorced/separated”. The vast majority of the individuals who completed the survey were married (53.7%,  $n = 210$ ), followed by 17.6% ( $n = 69$ ) who were single, 14.6% ( $n = 57$ ) who were divorced/separated, 9.2% ( $n = 36$ ) who were common-law partners, and 4.9% ( $n = 19$ ) who were widowed.

#### **4.3.2.4 Ethnic Origin**

Respondents were asked to provide information on their ethnic origin by checking one of the following choices: “White”, “Black”, “East Asian (*e.g.* Chinese, Korean, and Japanese)”, “South Asia (*e.g.* Pakistani, Indian, Sri Lankan, and Bangladeshi), and “Latin American”. This information was used to classify respondents as non-minorities and visible minorities. This

classification was derived from Statistics Canada's definition on visible minority as described in the Employment Equity Act:

Visible minority refers to whether a person belongs to a visible minority group as defined by the Employment Equity Act and, if so, the visible minority group to which the person belongs. The Employment Equity Act defines visible minorities as "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour." The visible minority population consists mainly of the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab, West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese and Korean (<http://www.statcan.gc.ca/concepts/definitions/minority-minorite1-eng.htm>).

Based on the above definition, non-minorities included respondents who indicated they are "White" while visible minorities included respondents who indicated otherwise. Out of the total number of respondents who provided this information ( $N = 383$ ), the vast majority were non-minorities (95.6%,  $n = 366$ ), while the rest were visible minorities (4.4%,  $n = 17$ ).

#### **4.3.2.5 Level of Education**

The survey asked respondents to indicate the highest level of education they completed. The majority of respondents completed high school (37.1%,  $n = 145$ ), followed by 33.0% ( $n = 129$ ) who completed college level education, 18.4% ( $n = 72$ ) who completed university education, and only 4.9% ( $n = 19$ ) who completed less than high school. These findings suggested that the majority online panel respondents were educated, confirming the observations of other researchers who note that the population of online panels are generally skewed toward more educated respondents (*e.g.* Atkin *et al.*, 1998; Lin, 1998).

#### **4.3.2.6 Level of Income**

Respondents were asked to provide the approximate annual income of their household. This information was used to classify them into four income groups. Low income group included respondents with an annual household income of \$34,999 or less; middle income group included those with an annual household income of between \$35,000 and \$79,999; high income group included those with an annual household income of between \$80,000 and \$99,999; and very high income group included those respondents with an annual household income of \$100,000 or more. Out of the total number of respondents who provided this information ( $N = 337$ ), 34.4% ( $n = 116$ ) fell in the low income group, 29.1% ( $n = 98$ ) fell in the middle income category, while 25.5% ( $n = 86$ ) and 11.0% ( $n = 37$ ) of respondents fell in the high and very high income categories respectively.

#### **4.3.2.6 Employment**

Information was collected on the employment characteristics of the respondents by asking them to indicate the type of occupation that best describes their job or to state if they were in full-time education or were retired. Out of those respondents who provided this information ( $N = 301$ ), 36.8% ( $n = 114$ ) were retirees, 12.6% ( $n = 39$ ) were professionals, 10.0% ( $n = 31$ ) were skilled worker, 9.0% ( $n = 28$ ) worked in retail services, 5.8% ( $n = 18$ ) were business executives/owner, 5.5% ( $n = 17$ ) were clerical workers, 5.5% ( $n = 17$ ) were administrative workers, 3.5% ( $n = 11$ ) indicated they worked in managerial positions, while the rest (2.9%,  $n = 9$ ) were in full time education. Unemployed individuals accounted for 8.4% ( $n = 26$ ) of the sample. Participants were also asked to indicate whether they worked in the tourism sector. The majority of

respondents (95.1%,  $n = 372$ ) did not work in the tourism sector while only 4.9% ( $n = 19$ ) were employed in the sector.

#### ***4.3.2.7 Political Party Affiliation***

Respondents were asked to indicate the political party they support. Out of the total number of respondents who provided this information ( $n = 277$ ), 36.1% ( $n = 100$ ) supported NDP, 33.6% ( $n = 93$ ) supported Conservative, 22.0% ( $n = 61$ ) supported Liberal, while the remaining (8.3%,  $n = 23$ ) supported Greens.

#### **4.3.3 Representativeness of the Sample Data**

The extent to which a survey sample is representative of the population is critical in statistical research. A representative sample is one that has strong external validity in relation to the target population the sample is meant to represent. A representative sample enables findings from a survey to be generalized with confidence to the population of interest (Davern, 2008). Biases may arise if a survey sample does not adequately represent the population. The strength of a statistical inference is determined by the degree to which the sample respondents are representative of the population in some important target variables (Telhaj, Hutton, Davies, Adnett, & Coe, 2005). To verify the representativeness of the study sample, the demographic and socio-economic profile (age, ethnicity, level of education, marital status, and gender) of the sample respondents were compared to that of the census data available on the Niagara Region. Findings are presented in Table 4.12.

**Table 4.12**  
**Survey Data Compared to Census Data**

Variables	Sample Data	Census Data*
Age <sup>a</sup>		
18-24 years old	4.3%	9.01%
25-34 years old	8.2%	10.58%
35-44 years old	16.6%	12.21%
45-54 years old	19.7%	15.84%
55-64 years old	32.2%	14.18%
65-74 years old	14.6%	9.68%
75-84 years old	4.3%	6.45%
Ethnicity <sup>b</sup>		
Non-minorities	95.6%	93.74%
Visible minorities	4.4%	6.26%
Level of education <sup>b</sup>		
Less than high school	4.9%	NA
High school	37.1%	29.93%
Apprenticeship	6.6%	9.85%
College	33.0%	20.34
University	18.4%	15.96
Marital status <sup>b</sup>		
Widowed	4.9%	7.73%
Single	17.6%	28.76%
Common-law	9.2%	7.07%
Married	53.7%	51.89
Divorced/separated	14.6%	11.62%
Gender <sup>a</sup>		
Male	34.3%	48.39%
Female	65.7%	51.61%

*Notes*

<sup>a</sup> Based on 2011 census figures provided by Statistics Canada (2012)

<sup>b</sup> Based on 2006 census figures provided by Statistics Canada (2007). More recent statistics were not available for this category

\* Sum may not always equal 100%

NA: Data not available

As shown in Table 4.12, the demographic profile of the sample respondents adequately represented the profile of the census population with respect to the majority of variables (e.g. age, ethnicity, and marital status). However, some differences were also noted. For example, while the study sample comprised of 34% male and 65.7% female, the census data comprised of 48.3% male and 51.61% female. Thus, readers should interpret the findings of this study taking into account such differences.

#### **4.3.4 Preliminary Statistical Analysis**

This section presents the results of the preliminary statistical analysis. First, the mean score for each item used, the composite mean score, the skewness and kurtosis values and the Cronbach's alpha value for each construct are presented. Then, inter-construct correlations are analyzed using Pearson's correlation analysis. Finally, differences between/among residents' demographic and socio-economic groups are analyzed using *t*-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA).

##### ***4.3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics for Political Support for Tourism***

The results of the descriptive statistics for the political support for tourism construct are presented in Table 4.13 below. This index was measured using four items that measured residents' support for the different types of tourism development taking place in the Niagara Region. Respondents were asked to state their level of support for each type of tourism development on a Likert scale where 1 represented "strongly oppose" and 5 represented "strongly support".



**Table 4.13**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Political Support for Tourism Construct (N = 391)**

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<b><i>Political support for tourism</i></b>	<b>3.50</b>	<b>.79</b>	<b>-.29</b>	<b>.47</b>	<b>.75</b>
Attractions designed for large number of tourists	3.78	1.02	-.74	.17	
Convention and meeting facilities	3.78	.87	-.63	.61	
Hotel development	3.48	.98	-.44	.05	
Casino development	2.97	1.25	-.10	-.96	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = strongly oppose and 5 = strongly support*

The Cronbach's alpha test indicated that this construct was reliable ( $\alpha = .75$ ) as the score exceeded the minimum recommended value of .70 established in Chapter 3. The skewness (-.29) and kurtosis (.47) values for this construct also indicated that it has a normal distribution because the scores fall within the  $\pm 2$  range (Hair *et al.*, 1998). As indicated in the table, respondents reported an average of 3.50 ( $SD = .79$ ) regarding their level of political support for tourism. The highest level of support was for attractions designed for large number of tourists ( $\bar{x} = 3.78$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ), followed by convention and meeting facilities ( $\bar{x} = 3.78$ ,  $SD = .87$ ), hotel development ( $\bar{x} = 3.48$ ,  $SD = .98$ ), and casino development ( $\bar{x} = 2.97$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ).

#### ***4.3.4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Trust in Government Actors***

The results of the descriptive statistics for the trust in government actors construct are presented in Table 4.14 below. Four items measured on a scale where 1 represented "do not trust them at all" and 5 presented "trust them very much" were used to operationalize this construct. The Cronbach's alpha test indicated a reliability score of .95, which was well above the .70 guideline established in Chapter 3, suggesting that this construct was reliable. The skewness (-.23) and kurtosis (-.77) values were also within acceptable range, ruling out any problem of non-normality.

**Table 4.14**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Trust in Government Actors Construct (N = 391)**

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Trust in government actors</i>	<b>2.97</b>	<b>1.04</b>	<b>-.23</b>	<b>-.77</b>	<b>.95</b>
How much do you trust tourism decisions made by local government?	3.01	1.11	-.20	-.84	
How much do you trust local government to look after the interests of the community in relation to tourism development?	2.98	1.13	-.23	-.90	
How much do you trust local elected officials to make the right decisions in tourism development?	2.96	1.13	-.24	-.94	
How much do you trust local government to do what is right in tourism development without you having constantly to check on them?	2.94	1.09	-.18	-.89	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = do not trust them at all and 5 = trust them very much*

Participants reported an average trust level of 2.97 ( $SD = 1.04$ ). Respondents were almost neutral concerning their trust in tourism decisions made by local government ( $\bar{x} = 3.01$ ,  $SD = 1.11$ ), in their trust in local government to look after their interests in tourism development ( $\bar{x} = 2.98$ ,  $SD = 1.13$ ), in their trust in local elected officials to make the right decisions in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 2.96$ ,  $SD = 1.13$ ), and in their trust in local government do to what is right in tourism without having constantly to check on them ( $\bar{x} = 2.94$ ,  $SD = 1.09$ ).

#### **4.3.4.3 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Benefits of Tourism**

Perceived benefits of tourism was measured using five items on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented “strongly disagree” and 5 represented “strongly agree”. The descriptive statistics for each item and the composite measure are provided in Table 4.15.

**Table 4.15**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Benefits of Tourism Construct (N = 391)**

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Perceived benefits of tourism</i>	<b>3.96</b>	<b>.75</b>	<b>-.90</b>	<b>1.47</b>	<b>.88</b>
Employment opportunities	4.28	.82	-1.38	2.55	
Opportunities for local businesses	4.27	.78	-1.22	2.30	
Investment in public development	3.96	.97	-1.05	1.06	
Incentives for development of nature parks	3.73	.97	-.60	.02	
Preservation of cultural identity	3.57	.99	-.40	-.30	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree*

The Cronbach's alpha test indicated a reliability score of .88, which was well above the .70 guideline established in Chapter 3, suggesting that this construct was reliable. The skewness (-.90) and kurtosis (1.47) values indicated that non-normality was not a problem. Respondents reported an average of 3.96 ( $SD = .75$ ) regarding their perceptions of the benefits of tourism. Employment opportunities ( $\bar{x} = 4.28$ ,  $SD = .82$ ) was the most important benefits of tourism perceived by respondents, followed by opportunities for local businesses ( $\bar{x} = 4.27$ ,  $SD = .78$ ), investment in public development ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ ,  $SD = .97$ ), incentives for development of nature park ( $\bar{x} = 3.73$ ,  $SD = .97$ ), and preservation of cultural identity ( $\bar{x} = 3.57$ ,  $SD = .99$ ).

#### ***4.3.4.4 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Costs of Tourism***

Perceived costs of tourism was measured using four items on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". The results of the descriptive statistics for this construct and its measurement items are presented in Table 4.16 below. The Cronbach's alpha test indicated that this construct was reliable ( $\alpha = .85$ ) as the score exceeded the minimum recommended value of .70 established in Chapter 3. The skewness (-.37)

and kurtosis (.25) scores for this construct indicated that non-normality was not an issue because these values fell within the  $\pm 2$  range (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

**Table 4.16**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Costs of Tourism Construct (N = 391)**

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Perceived costs of tourism</i>	<b>3.66</b>	<b>.78</b>	<b>-.37</b>	<b>.25</b>	<b>.85</b>
Increases traffic problem	3.88	.88	-.78	.70	
Results in more litter	3.64	.96	-.44	-.38	
Increases prices of goods and services	3.59	.98	-.37	-.42	
Increases environmental pollution	3.54	.92	-.29	-.33	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree*

Respondents reported an average of 3.66 ( $SD = .78$ ) regarding their perceptions of the costs of tourism in the Niagara Region. Traffic congestion ( $\bar{x} = 3.88$ ,  $SD = .88$ ) was the most important cost of tourism perceived by respondents, followed by litter problems ( $\bar{x} = 3.64$ ,  $SD = .96$ ), increase in the prices of goods and services as a result of tourism development ( $\bar{x} = 3.59$ ,  $SD = .98$ ), and environmental pollution ( $\bar{x} = 3.54$ ,  $SD = .92$ ).

#### **4.3.4.5 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Level of Power in Tourism**

Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development was measured by two items on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". The descriptive statistics for this construct and its measurement items are presented in Table 4.17. The Cronbach's alpha test indicated a reliability score of .83, which was well above the .70 guideline established in Chapter 3, suggesting that this construct was reliable. The skewness (-.60) and kurtosis (-.23) values were also within acceptable range, ruling out any non-normality problems. Respondents reported a very low level of power in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 1.99$ ,  $SD =$

.91). They generally did not feel that they had the opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development ( $\bar{x} = 2.10$ ,  $SD = .1.02$ ) and they disagreed that they had any personal influence in tourism development ( $\bar{x} = 1.88$ ,  $SD = .94$ ).

**Table 4.17**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Power Tourism Construct (N = 391)**

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Perceived power in tourism</i>	<b>1.99</b>	<b>.91</b>	<b>.60</b>	<b>-.23</b>	<b>.83</b>
Opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development	2.10	1.02	.56	-.58	
Personal influence in tourism planning and development	1.88	.94	.83	-.00	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree*

#### **4.3.4.6 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Economic Performance of Government Actors**

Residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors in tourism was measured using five items on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". Results of the descriptive statistics of the construct and its measurement items are presented in Table 4.18. The Cronbach's alpha test indicated a reliability score of .90, which was well above the .70 guideline established in Chapter 3, suggesting that this construct was reliable. The skewness (-.29) and kurtosis (.11) values were also within acceptable range, ruling out any problems relating to non-normality. Respondents generally had unfavorable perceptions of the economic performance of local government in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 2.75$ ,  $SD = .80$ ).

**Table 4.18**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Economic Performance of Government Actors Construct**  
**(N = 391)**

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<b><i>Perceived economic performance of government actors</i></b>	<b>2.75</b>	<b>.80</b>	<b>-.29</b>	<b>.11</b>	<b>0.90</b>
Local government effectively uses tourism to take advantage of current economic opportunities	2.96	.98	-.22	-.28	
Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce unemployment	2.89	.99	-.19	-.57	
Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with current economic problems	2.75	.93	-.05	-.20	
Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with future economic problems	2.75	.90	-.13	-0.6	
Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty	2.42	.96	.34	-.24	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree*

They were almost neutral in their opinion regarding the effectiveness of local government to use tourism to take advantage of current economic opportunities ( $\bar{x} = 2.96$ ,  $SD = .98$ ), regarding the effectiveness of local government to use tourism to reduce unemployment ( $\bar{x} = 2.89$ ,  $SD = .99$ ), regarding the effectiveness of local government to use tourism to deal with current economic problems ( $\bar{x} = 2.75$ ,  $SD = .93$ ), and regarding the effectiveness of local government to use tourism to deal with future economic problems ( $\bar{x} = 2.75$ ,  $SD = .90$ ). They also generally did not perceive that local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty in Niagara Region ( $\bar{x} = 2.42$ ,  $SD = .96$ ).

#### ***4.3.4.7 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Political Performance of Government Actors***

The results of the descriptive statistics for the perceived political performance of government actors' construct are presented in Table 4.19 below. This construct was measured using four

items on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented “strongly disagree” and 5 represented “strongly agree”. The Cronbach’s alpha test indicated that this construct was reliable ( $\alpha = .84$ ) as the score exceeded the minimum recommended value of .70 established in Chapter 3. The skewness (-.18) and kurtosis (-.00) values for this construct indicated that it had a normal distribution because they fell within the  $\pm 2$  range (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

**Table 4.19**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Political Performance of Government Actors Construct**  
(*N* = 391)

Construct and Items	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach’s Alpha
<i>Perceived political performance of government actors</i>	2.72	.80	-.18	-.00	.84
Local government treats residents fairly in tourism development	2.75	.93	-0.06	-.22	
Corruption and bribe-taking are uncommon among local elected officials	2.73	1.10	0.07	-.57	
Local government is responsive to the needs of residents in tourism development	2.72	.96	.12	-.17	
Local government ensures that there is an adequate representation of residents in tourism development	2.68	.90	-.12	-.17	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree*

Respondents generally had unfavorable perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism development ( $\bar{x} = 2.72$ ,  $SD = .80$ ). Participants reported an average of 2.75 ( $SD = .93$ ) regarding their perceptions of how local government treats residents in tourism, an average of 2.73 ( $SD = 1.10$ ) regarding their perceptions of the extent of corruption and bribe taking among local elected officials, an average of 2.72 ( $SD = .96$ ) regarding their perceptions the responsiveness of local government to the needs of residents in tourism, and an average of 2.68 ( $SD = .90$ ) regarding their perceptions of the adequacy of residents’ representativeness in tourism development.

#### 4.3.4.8 Descriptive Statistics for Interpersonal Trust

Residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors in tourism was measured using five items on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". Results of the descriptive statistics of the construct and the measurement items are presented in Table 4.20.

**Table 4.20**  
**Descriptive Analysis of Interpersonal Trust Construct (N = 391)**

<b>Construct and Items</b>	<b>Mean (<math>\bar{x}</math>)</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
<b><i>Interpersonal Trust</i></b>	<b>3.49</b>	<b>.62</b>	<b>-.57</b>	<b>1.20</b>	<b>.78</b>
Your friends	4.52	.72	-1.15	2.28	
People of an ethnicity different to your own	3.31	.83	-.17	.73	
People you meet for the first time	3.09	.79	-.58	.66	
People in general whom you do not know	3.03	.84	-.61	.44	

*Note: Measurement scale: 1 = do not trust them at all and 5 = trust them very much*

The Cronbach's alpha test indicated a reliability score of .78, which was well above the .70 guideline established in Chapter 3, suggesting that this construct was reliable. The skewness (-.57) and kurtosis (1.20) values were also within acceptable range, ruling out any problems of non-normality. Respondents reported an average of 3.49 ( $SD = .62$ ) regarding interpersonal trust. They displayed a high level of trust in their friends ( $\bar{x} = 4.52$ ,  $SD = .72$ ), followed by people of an ethnicity different to them ( $\bar{x} = 3.31$ ,  $SD = .83$ ), people they meet for the first time ( $\bar{x} = 3.09$ ,  $SD = .79$ ), and people in general whom they do not know ( $\bar{x} = 3.03$ ,  $SD = .84$ ).



#### **4.3.4.9 Group Differences: *t*-test and ANOVA**

##### *4.3.4.9.1 Political Support for tourism*

Independent sample *t*-test was used to analyze whether level of political support for tourism in Niagara Region differed across people of different gender, ethnicity, and employment. Results are presented in Table 4.21. Males were more supportive of tourism development ( $\bar{x} = 3.71$ ,  $SD = .73$ ) than females ( $\bar{x} = 3.39$ ,  $SD = .79$ ) and this difference was statistically significant ( $t = 3.83$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Visible minorities reported a higher level of political support for tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ ,  $SD = .90$ ) than non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 3.48$ ,  $SD = .76$ ) and this difference was statistically significant ( $t = -2.47$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Respondents who were employed in the tourism sector were less supportive of tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.32$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) than those who were not employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 3.51$ ,  $SD = .78$ ). However, this difference was statistically insignificant ( $t = -.96$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of political party affiliation on the level of political support for tourism development. Results suggested a significant omnibus test ( $F = 3.14$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD ( $p < .10$ ) test indicated that political support for tourism significantly differed between supporters of Conservative ( $\bar{x} = 3.68$ ,  $SD = .64$ ) and those of NDP ( $\bar{x} = 3.44$ ,  $SD = .80$ ). Respondents of different age groups were not found to significantly differ in their level of political support for tourism development ( $F = 1.70$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Marital status of respondents significantly influenced level of political support for tourism as indicated by the omnibus test ( $F = 2.47$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .10$ ) indicated that married respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.61$ ,  $SD = .76$ ) differed significantly from those who were divorced/separated ( $\bar{x} = 3.31$ ,  $SD = .83$ ) in their level of political support for tourism (Table 4.21).

**Table 4.21**  
**Group Differences in Political Support for Tourism: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b><i>t</i>-test/<i>F</i>-test</b>
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	3.71	.73	$t = 3.83^{**}$
Female	257	3.39	.79	
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	3.48	.76	$t = -2.47^*$
Visible minorities	17	3.96	.90	
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	3.32	.86	$t = -.96$ ; $p = .30$ (ns.)
No	372	3.51	.78	
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative <sup>a</sup>	93	3.68	.64	$F = 3.14^*$
Liberal	61	3.68	.70	
NDP <sup>b</sup>	100	3.44	.80	
Greens	23	3.34	.74	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	3.49	.95	$F = 1.70$ ; $p = .12$ (ns.)
25-34 years old	32	3.70	.74	
35-44 years old	65	3.71	.86	
45-54 years old	77	3.40	.81	
55-64 years old	126	3.46	.74	
65-74 years old	57	3.36	.74	
75-84 years old	17	3.54	.66	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	3.36	.83	$F = 2.47^*$
Single	69	3.40	.71	
Common-law	36	3.39	.89	
Married <sup>a</sup>	210	3.61	.76	
Divorced/separated <sup>b</sup>	57	3.31	.83	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	3.68	.82	$F = .47$ ; $p = .76$ (ns.)
High school	145	3.46	.71	
Apprenticeship	26	3.55	.73	
College	129	3.47	.79	
University	72	3.55	.93	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group <sup>a</sup>	116	3.34	.78	$F = 5.34^{**}$
Middle income group	98	3.55	.83	
High income group <sup>b</sup>	86	3.64	.67	
Very high income group <sup>b</sup>	37	3.87	.78	

*Notes*: \* Significant at  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* Significant at  $p < 0.01$ ; ns: non-significant; Superscripts indicate groups significantly different from one another based on Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of education level on political support for tourism development. Results suggested a non-significant omnibus

test ( $F = .47, p > 0.05$ ), implying that level of political support did not differ across respondents of different level of education. Respondents' level of income was found to significantly influence political support for tourism as indicated by the omnibus test ( $F = 5.34, p < 0.01$ ). Respondents from the low income group ( $\bar{x} = 3.34, SD = .78$ ) significantly differed in their level of political support from those in the high income group ( $\bar{x} = 3.64, SD = .67$ ) and from those in the very high income group ( $\bar{x} = 3.87, SD = .78$ ) as revealed by post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .05$ ).

#### 4.3.4.9.2 *Trust in Government Actors*

Independent sample *t*-test was used to analyze whether trust in government actors differed across people of different gender, ethnicity, and employment. Results are presented in Table 4.22. Male respondents reported a lower level of trust in government actors ( $\bar{x} = 2.89, SD = 1.18$ ) than females ( $\bar{x} = 3.02, SD = .96$ ) and this difference was statistically non-significant ( $t = -1.10, p > 0.05$ ). No significant difference ( $t = -1.08, p > 0.05$ ) was noted between visible minorities ( $\bar{x} = 3.25, SD = 1.17$ ) and non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 2.97, SD = 1.04$ ) regarding their trust in government actors. Level of trust was also not found to be significantly different ( $t = -.33, p > 0.05$ ) between those employed in tourism sector ( $\bar{x} = 2.89, SD = 1.13$ ) and those who were not employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 2.98, SD = 1.04$ ). A one-way between subjects ANOVA did not reveal any significant difference among respondents from different political party affiliation ( $F = 1.18, p > 0.05$ ), age group ( $F = 1.16, p > 0.05$ ), marital status ( $F = 1.79, p > 0.05$ ), level of education ( $F = .32, p > 0.05$ ), and level of income ( $F = .44, p > 0.05$ ) regarding their trust in government actors (Table 4.22).

**Table 4.22**  
**Group Differences in Trust in Government Actors: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

Variables	n	Mean	Standard deviation	<i>t</i> -test/ <i>F</i> -test
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	2.89	1.18	<i>t</i> = -1.10; <i>p</i> = .24 (ns.)
Female	257	3.02	.96	
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	2.97	1.04	<i>t</i> = -1.08; <i>p</i> = .28 (ns.)
Visible minorities	17	3.25	1.17	
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	2.89	1.13	<i>t</i> = -.33 <i>p</i> = .74 (ns.)
No	372	2.98	1.04	
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative	93	3.10	.92	<i>F</i> = 1.18; <i>p</i> = .32 (ns.)
Liberal	61	3.25	.93	
NDP	100	2.98	1.09	
Greens	23	2.91	1.08	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	3.13	.98	<i>F</i> = 1.16 <i>p</i> = .33 (ns.)
25-34 years old	32	2.94	.95	
35-44 years old	65	3.06	1.07	
45-54 years old	77	2.98	1.03	
55-64 years old	126	2.97	1.08	
65-74 years old	57	2.74	.95	
75-84 years old	17	3.43	1.2	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	2.42	.92	<i>F</i> = 1.79; <i>p</i> = .13 (ns.)
Single	69	3.00	.99	
Common-law	36	2.81	1.18	
Married	210	3.02	1.05	
Divorced/separated	57	3.05	.96	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	2.74	1.16	<i>F</i> = .32; <i>p</i> = .86 (ns.)
High school	145	2.98	1.02	
Apprenticeship	26	2.88	1.09	
College	129	2.99	1.03	
University	72	3.01	1.07	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group	116	2.95	1.04	<i>F</i> = .44 <i>p</i> = .72 (ns.)
Middle income group	98	3.04	1.07	
High income group	86	3.11	.97	
Very high income group	37	3.01	1.12	

Notes:

*ns*: non-significant

#### 4.3.4.9.3 Perceived Benefits of Tourism

Independent sample *t*-test was used to analyze whether perceived benefits of tourism differed across people of different gender, ethnicity, and employment. Results are shown in Table 4.24.

**Table 4.23**  
**Group Differences in Perceived Benefits of Tourism: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b><i>t</i>-test/<i>F</i>-test</b>
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	3.99	.86	<i>t</i> = .46;
Female	257	3.95	.69	<i>p</i> = .65 (ns.)
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	3.96	.75	<i>t</i> = -.80;
Visible minorities	17	4.11	.77	<i>p</i> = .43 (ns.)
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	3.99	.90	<i>t</i> = .17;
No	372	2.96	.75	<i>p</i> = .86 (ns.)
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative	93	4.02	.69	<i>F</i> = .40;
Liberal	61	4.07	.65	<i>p</i> = .75 (ns.)
NDP	100	3.98	.75	
Greens	23	3.90	.84	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	3.75	.73	<i>F</i> = 1.30;
25-34 years old	32	3.95	.85	<i>p</i> = .26 (ns.)
35-44 years old	65	4.12	.88	
45-54 years old	77	3.98	.72	
55-64 years old	126	3.97	.70	
65-74 years old	57	3.78	.49	
75-84 years old	17	4.02	.75	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	3.77	.73	<i>F</i> = 2.05;
Single	69	3.86	.81	<i>p</i> = .09 (ns.)
Common-law	36	3.74	.97	
Married	210	4.03	.66	
Divorced/separated	57	4.04	.83	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	4.02	.76	<i>F</i> = 1.00;
High school	145	3.91	.69	<i>p</i> = .41 (ns.)
Apprenticeship	26	3.85	.87	
College	129	3.95	.77	
University	72	4.11	.78	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group	116	3.86	.81	<i>F</i> = 2.21;
Middle income group	98	4.06	.70	<i>p</i> = .09 (ns.)
High income group	86	4.11	.68	
Very high income group	37	4.02	.77	

*Notes*: ns: non-significant

Results from the *t*-test suggested that male reported a higher level of perceived benefits of tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.99$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) than females ( $\bar{x} = 3.95$ ,  $SD = .69$ ), but this difference was statistically insignificant ( $t = .46$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). No significant difference ( $t = -.80$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) was noted between non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ ,  $SD = .75$ ) and visible minorities ( $\bar{x} = 4.11$ ,  $SD = .77$ ) in their perceptions of the benefits of tourism. Respondents who were employed in the tourism sector had stronger perceptions of the benefits of tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.99$ ,  $SD = .90$ ) than those who were not employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 2.96$ ,  $SD = .75$ ) and this difference was statistically insignificant ( $t = .17$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

A one-way between subjects ANOVA did not reveal any significant differences among respondents from different political party affiliation ( $F = .40$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), age group ( $F = 1.30$ ,  $p > .05$ ), marital status ( $F = 2.05$ ,  $p > .05$ ), level of education ( $F = 1.00$ ,  $p > .05$ ), and level of income ( $F = 2.21$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) regarding their perceptions of the benefits of tourism (Table 4.23)

#### 4.3.4.9.4 Perceived Costs of Tourism

Independent sample *t*-test was used to analyze whether perceived costs of tourism differed across people of different gender, ethnicity, and employment. Results are presented in Table 4.24. Male respondents reported a lower level of perceived costs of tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.61$ ,  $SD = .78$ ) than females ( $\bar{x} = 3.69$ ,  $SD = .78$ ). However, this difference was statistically non-significant ( $t = -.96$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). No statistically significant difference ( $t = -1.33$ ,  $p > .05$ ) was noted between non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 3.65$ ,  $SD = .78$ ) and visible minorities ( $\bar{x} = 3.91$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) regarding their perceptions of the costs of tourism. Respondents who were employed in the tourism sector had stronger perceptions regarding the costs of tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.79$ ,  $SD = .72$ ) than those who were not

employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 3.66$ ,  $SD = .78$ ). However, this difference was statistically non-significant ( $t = .72$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 4.24**  
**Group Differences in Perceived Costs of Tourism: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b><i>t</i>-test/<i>F</i>-test</b>
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	3.61	.78	$t = -.96$ ;
Female	257	3.69	.78	$p = .34$ (ns.)
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	3.65	.78	$t = -1.33$ ;
Visible minorities	17	3.91	.86	$p = .18$ (ns.)
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	3.79	.72	$t = .72$ ;
No	372	3.66	.78	$p = .47$ (ns.)
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative	93	3.62	.78	$F = .55$ ;
Liberal	61	3.55	.70	$p = .65$ (ns.)
NDP	100	3.55	.86	
Greens	23	3.76	.57	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	3.53	.91	$F = 2.20^*$
25-34 years old <sup>a</sup>	32	3.95	.66	
35-44 years old	65	3.59	.78	
45-54 years old	77	3.78	.78	
55-64 years old	126	3.65	.81	
65-74 years old	57	3.62	.64	
75-84 years old <sup>b</sup>	17	3.22	.85	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	3.63	.80	$F = 2.09$ ;
Single	69	3.87	.70	$p = .08$ (ns.)
Common-law	36	3.76	.61	
Married	210	3.58	.79	
Divorced/separated	57	3.69	.87	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	3.42	.96	$F = .62$ ;
High school	145	3.64	.70	$p = .65$ (ns.)
Apprenticeship	26	3.71	.95	
College	129	3.67	.81	
University	72	3.73	.75	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group	116	3.79	.73	$F = 2.30$ ;
Middle income group	98	3.54	.87	$p = .08$ (ns.)
High income group	86	3.57	.74	
Very high income group	37	3.55	.80	

*Notes*:\* Significant at  $p < 0.05$ ; Superscripts indicate groups significantly different from one another based on Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

A significant omnibus test ( $F = 2.20, p < 0.05$ ) emerged regarding the influence of age on perceptions of the costs of tourism. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .05$ ) indicated that respondents in the age group of 25 to 34 years ( $\bar{x} = 3.95, SD = .66$ ) differed significantly from those in the age group of 75 to 84 years ( $\bar{x} = 3.22, SD = .85$ ) regarding their perceptions of the costs of tourism development (Table 4.23). A one-way between subjects ANOVA test reveal statistically insignificant differences among respondents from different political party affiliation ( $F = .55, p > 0.05$ ), marital status ( $F = 2.09, p > 0.05$ ), level of education ( $F = .62, p > 0.05$ ), and level of income ( $F = 2.30, p > 0.05$ ) regarding their perceptions of the benefits of tourism (Table 4.24)

#### *4.3.4.8.5 Perceived Economic Performance of Government actors*

Results from an independent sample  $t$ -test (Table 4.25) suggested that female respondents had more positive perceptions of the economic performance of government actors ( $\bar{x} = 2.82, SD = .73$ ) compared to males ( $\bar{x} = 2.63, SD = .91$ ) and this difference was statistically significant ( $t = -2.04, p < 0.05$ ). Findings also suggested that visible minorities reported more positive perceptions of the economic performance of government actors in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 2.95, SD = 1.17$ ) compared to non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 2.74, SD = .78$ ), and this difference was statistically non-significant ( $t = -.75, p > 0.05$ ). Respondents who were not employed in the tourism sector were slightly more positive in their perceptions of the economic performance of government actors ( $\bar{x} = 2.76, SD = .80$ ) compared to those who were employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 2.72, SD = .88$ ) and this difference was not found to be statistically significant ( $t = -.21, p > 0.05$ ).



**Table 4.25**  
**Group Differences in Perceived Economic Performance of Government actors:**  
**Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

Variables	n	Mean	Standard deviation	<i>t</i> -test/ <i>F</i> -test
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	2.63	.91	<i>t</i> = -2.04*
Female	257	2.82	.73	
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	2.74	.78	<i>t</i> = -.75; <i>p</i> = .47 (ns.)
Visible minorities	17	2.95	1.17	
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	2.72	.88	<i>t</i> = -.21; <i>p</i> = .83 (ns.)
No	372	2.76	.80	
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative	93	2.83	.74	<i>F</i> = 1.57; <i>p</i> = .20 (ns.)
Liberal	61	2.98	.87	
NDP	100	2.76	.79	
Greens	23	2.62	.64	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	2.86	.62	<i>F</i> = 1.07; <i>p</i> = .38 (ns.)
25-34 years old	32	2.94	.98	
35-44 years old	65	2.63	.82	
45-54 years old	77	2.83	.81	
55-64 years old	126	2.78	.79	
65-74 years old	57	2.60	.75	
75-84 years old	17	2.76	.73	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	2.73	.62	<i>F</i> = .33; <i>p</i> = .86 (ns.)
Single	69	2.79	.79	
Common-law	36	2.62	.89	
Married	210	2.77	.83	
Divorced/separated	57	2.74	.71	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	2.79	.98	<i>F</i> = .45; <i>p</i> = .78 (ns.)
High school	145	2.79	.77	
Apprenticeship	26	2.59	.97	
College	129	2.72	.75	
University	72	2.80	.86	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group	116	2.79	.82	<i>F</i> = .06; <i>p</i> = .98 (ns.)
Middle income group	98	2.77	.82	
High income group	86	2.77	.77	
Very high income group	37	2.72	.92	

Notes:

\* Significant at  $p < 0.05$ ; Superscripts indicate groups significantly different from one another based on Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

4.3.4.8.6 Perceived Political Performance of Government actors

One-way between subjects ANOVA did not reveal any significant differences among respondents from different political party affiliation ( $F = 1.57, p > 0.05$ ), age group ( $F = 1.07, p > 0.05$ ), marital status ( $F = .33, p > 0.05$ ), level of education ( $F = .45, p > 0.05$ ), and level of income ( $F = .06, p > 0.05$ ) regarding their perceptions of the economic performance of government actors (Table 4.25).

#### *4.3.4.9.6 Perceived Political Performance of Government actors*

Independent sample *t*-test was used to analyze whether perceptions of the political performance of government actors differed across respondents of different gender, ethnicity, and employment. Results are presented in Table 4.26. Results from the independent sample *t*-test suggested that perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism did not differ significantly ( $t = -.60, p > 0.05$ ) between males ( $\bar{x} = 2.68, SD = .91$ ) and females ( $\bar{x} = 2.74, SD = .73$ ). Visible minorities reported more positive perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 3.12, SD = .87$ ) than non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 2.70, SD = .79$ ), and this difference was statistically significant ( $t = -2.13, p < 0.05$ ). Respondents who were not employed in the tourism sector also reported more positive perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors ( $\bar{x} = 2.74, SD = .80$ ) than those employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 2.37, SD = .77$ ). This difference was statistically significant ( $t = -1.97, p < 0.05$ ).

Findings from the ANOVA test suggested a significant omnibus effect for the influence of political party affiliation on perceived political performance ( $F = 2.83, p < 0.05$ ). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .05$ ) indicated that respondents who supported Liberal had more positive perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors ( $\bar{x} = 3.01, SD = .83$ ) than supporters of NDP ( $\bar{x} = 2.66, SD = .72$ ).

**Table 4.26**  
**Group Differences in Perceived Political Performance: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

Variables	n	Mean	Standard deviation	<i>t</i> -test/ <i>F</i> -test
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	2.68	.91	<i>t</i> = -.60; <i>p</i> = .55 (ns.)
Female	257	2.74	.73	
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	2.70	.79	<i>t</i> = -2.13*
Visible minorities	17	3.12	.87	
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	2.37	.77	<i>t</i> = -1.97*
No	372	2.74	.80	
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative	93	2.81	.78	<i>F</i> = 2.83*
Liberal <sup>a</sup>	61	3.01	.83	
NDP <sup>b</sup>	100	2.66	.72	
Greens	23	2.70	.60	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	2.94	.67	<i>F</i> = 1.56 (ns.)
25-34 years old	32	2.88	.76	
35-44 years old	65	2.75	.85	
45-54 years old	77	2.55	.79	
55-64 years old	126	2.73	.83	
65-74 years old	57	2.64	.72	
75-84 years old	17	3.03	.64	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	2.55	.92	<i>F</i> = .83; <i>p</i> = .51 (ns.)
Single	69	2.68	.65	
Common-law	36	2.58	.89	
Married	210	2.78	.82	
Divorced/separated	57	2.69	.78	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	2.63	.86	<i>F</i> = .66; <i>p</i> = .62 (ns.)
High school	145	2.70	.78	
Apprenticeship	26	2.72	.93	
College	129	2.67	.77	
University	72	2.85	.82	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group	116	2.65	.74	<i>F</i> = 1.27; <i>p</i> = .28 (ns.)
Middle income group	98	2.76	.82	
High income group	86	2.83	.74	
Very high income group	37	2.88	.88	

*Notes*: \* Significant at  $p < 0.05$ ; Superscripts indicate groups significantly different from one another based on Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

ANOVA results suggested no significant differences among respondents from different age groups ( $F = 1.56, p > 0.05$ ), marital status ( $F = .83, p > 0.05$ ), level of education ( $F = .66, p$

> 0.05), and level of income ( $F = 1.27, p > 0.05$ ) regarding their perceptions of political performance of government actors (Table 4.26).

#### 4.3.4.8.7 Perceived Power in Tourism

Independent sample  $t$ -test was used to analyze whether residents' perceived level of power in tourism differed across people of different gender, ethnicity, and employment. Results are presented in Table 4.27. Females reported a higher level of perceived power in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 2.01, SD = .92$ ) than males ( $\bar{x} = 1.95, SD = .89$ ), but this difference was statistically insignificant ( $t = -.58, p > 0.05$ ). Visible minorities reported a higher level of power in tourism ( $\bar{x} = 2.44, SD = 1.26$ ) compared to non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 1.95, SD = .88$ ) and this difference was statistically significant ( $t = 1.58, p < 0.05$ ). No statistically significant difference ( $t = -.33, p > 0.05$ ) was noted between respondents employed in tourism sector ( $\bar{x} = 1.92, SD = .80$ ) and those who were not employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 1.99, SD = .91$ ).

A one-way between subjects ANOVA revealed that political party affiliation had a significant influence on residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism ( $F = 2.66, p < 0.05$ ). Supporters of Liberal ( $\bar{x} = 2.27, SD = .98$ ) significantly differed from supporters of Greens ( $\bar{x} = 1.70, SD = .73$ ) in their perceived level of power in tourism as revealed by post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .05$ ). ANOVA findings did not reveal any significant differences among respondents from different age group ( $F = 1.06, p > 0.05$ ), marital status ( $F = .67, p > 0.05$ ), level of education ( $F = 1.94, p > 0.05$ ), and level of income ( $F = .13, p > 0.05$ ) regarding their level of perceived power in tourism (Table 4.27).

**Table 4.27**  
**Group Differences in Perceived Power in Tourism: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

Variables	n	Mean	Standard deviation	<i>t</i> -test/ <i>F</i> -test
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	1.95	.89	<i>t</i> = -.58; <i>p</i> = .56 (ns.)
Female	257	2.01	.92	
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	1.95	.88	<i>t</i> = -1.58*
Visible minorities	17	2.44	1.26	
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	1.92	.80	<i>t</i> = -.33; <i>p</i> = .74 (ns.)
No	372	1.99	.91	
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative	93	1.97	.83	<i>F</i> = 2.66*
Liberal <sup>a</sup>	61	2.27	.98	
NDP	100	2.06	.95	
Greens <sup>b</sup>	23	1.70	.73	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old	17	2.12	1.01	<i>F</i> = 1.06; <i>p</i> = .38 (ns.)
25-34 years old	32	1.98	1.14	
35-44 years old	65	1.99	.99	
45-54 years old	77	1.95	.84	
55-64 years old	126	2.00	.86	
65-74 years old	57	1.83	.76	
75-84 years old	17	2.44	1.07	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	1.79	1.03	<i>F</i> = .67; <i>p</i> = .62 (ns.)
Single	69	2.02	.94	
Common-law	36	1.89	.90	
Married	210	2.04	.90	
Divorced/separated	57	1.89	.85	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school	19	2.03	.84	<i>F</i> = 1.94; <i>p</i> = .10 (ns.)
High school	145	1.96	.90	
Apprenticeship	26	2.27	.94	
College	129	1.86	.85	
University	72	2.16	1.00	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group	116	2.03	.99	<i>F</i> = .13; <i>p</i> = .95 (ns.)
Middle income group	98	2.01	.92	
High income group	86	1.95	.87	
Very high income group	37	2.03	.90	

*Notes*: \* Significant at  $p < 0.05$ ; Superscripts indicate groups significantly different from one another based on Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

#### 4.3.4.8.8 Interpersonal Trust

Results from an independent sample  $t$ -test (Table 4.28) suggested that interpersonal trust was not significantly different ( $t = -.06, p > 0.05$ ) between male ( $\bar{x} = 3.49, SD = .65$ ) and female respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.49, SD = .60$ ). Visible minorities reported a higher level of interpersonal trust ( $\bar{x} = 3.57, SD = .93$ ) than non-minorities ( $\bar{x} = 3.48, SD = .60$ ), and this difference was statistically insignificant ( $t = -.39, p > 0.05$ ). Respondents who were not employed in the tourism sector reported a higher level of interpersonal trust ( $\bar{x} = 3.49, SD = .61$ ) than those employed in the sector ( $\bar{x} = 3.37, SD = .69$ ). However, this difference was statistically non-significant ( $t = -.87, p > 0.05$ ). Results indicated a significant omnibus test ( $F = 3.69, p < 0.05$ ) regarding the influence of respondents' political party affiliation on their level of interpersonal trust. Post-hoc Tukey HSD test ( $p < .05$ ) suggested that supporters of Conservative reported a significantly higher level of interpersonal trust ( $\bar{x} = 3.64, SD = .52$ ) than supporters of NDP ( $\bar{x} = 3.38, SD = .62$ ) (Table 4.28).

ANOVA results also revealed that respondents' age had a significant influence on interpersonal trust ( $F = 3.55, p < 0.01$ ). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .05$ ) revealed that respondents in the age group of 18 to 24 years ( $\bar{x} = 3.16, SD = .62$ ) and those in age group of 45 to 54 years ( $\bar{x} = 3.31, SD = .60$ ) differed significantly from those in the age group of 55 to 64 years old ( $\bar{x} = 3.63, SD = .53$ ) in their level of interpersonal trust. Level of income was also found to influence interpersonal trust as revealed by a significant omnibus test ( $F = 3.11, p < 0.05$ ). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test ( $p < .10$ ) revealed that respondents from the low income group ( $\bar{x} = 3.36, SD = .64$ ) differed significantly from those in the middle income group ( $\bar{x} = 3.57, SD = .60$ ) and from those in the high income group ( $\bar{x} = 3.56, SD = .56$ ) in their level of interpersonal trust.

**Table 4.28**  
**Group Differences in Interpersonal Trust: Results of *t*-test and ANOVA**

Variables	n	Mean	Standard deviation	<i>t</i> -test/ <i>F</i> -test
<i>Gender</i> : Male	134	3.49	.65	<i>t</i> = -.06; <i>p</i> = .95 (ns.)
Female	257	3.49	.60	
<i>Ethnicity</i> : Non-minorities	366	3.48	.60	<i>t</i> = -.39; <i>p</i> = .70 (ns.)
Visible minorities	17	3.57	.93	
<i>Employment in tourism sector</i> : Yes	19	3.37	.69	<i>t</i> = -.87; <i>p</i> = .39 (ns.)
No	372	3.49	.61	
<i>Political party affiliation</i> : Conservative <sup>a</sup>	93	3.64	.52	<i>F</i> = 3.69*
Liberal	61	3.57	.73	
NDP <sup>b</sup>	100	3.38	.62	
Greens	23	3.33	.13	
<i>Age</i> : 18-24 years old <sup>a</sup>	17	3.16	.62	<i>F</i> = 3.55**
25-34 years old	32	3.41	.76	
35-44 years old	65	3.51	.70	
45-54 years old <sup>a</sup>	77	3.31	.60	
55-64 years old <sup>b</sup>	126	3.63	.53	
65-74 years old	57	3.46	.57	
75-84 years old	17	3.72	.47	
<i>Marital status</i> : Widowed	19	3.63	.46	<i>F</i> = 2.33; <i>p</i> = .06 (ns.)
Single	69	3.34	.60	
Common-law	36	3.35	.74	
Married	210	3.55	.61	
Divorced/separated	57	3.47	.60	
<i>Level of education</i> : Less than high school <sup>a</sup>	19	3.43	.70	<i>F</i> = 3.19*
High school	145	3.42	.62	
Apprenticeship	26	3.38	.54	
College	129	3.47	.61	
University <sup>b</sup>	72	3.71	.62	
<i>Level of income</i> : Low income group <sup>a</sup>	116	3.36	.64	<i>F</i> = 3.11*
Middle income group <sup>b</sup>	98	3.57	.60	
High income group <sup>b</sup>	86	3.56	.56	
Very high income group	37	3.60	.62	

*Notes*: \* Significant at  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* Significant at  $p < 0.01$ ; Superscripts indicate groups significantly different from one another based on Tukey HSD post-hoc test.

#### 4.3.4.9.9 Summary of Group Differences

Results of the *t*-tests and ANOVA tests are summarized in Table 4.29. Political support for tourism development was found to be significantly influenced by respondents' gender, political party affiliation, marital status, and level of income. Residents' perception of the costs of tourism was significantly influenced by respondents' age. Perceived economic performance of government actors was found to be influenced by gender. Perceived political performance was found to be influenced by ethnicity, employment in tourism sector, and political party affiliation. Residents' perception of their level of power in tourism was influenced by ethnicity and political party affiliation. Level of interpersonal trust was found to be significantly influenced by political party affiliation, age, level of education, and level of income. Interestingly, none of the demographic and socio-economic variables had an influence on respondents' level of trust in government actors and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism development.

**Table 4.29**  
**Summary of Group Differences**

Groups	Political support	Trust in government	Perceived benefits	Perceived costs	Economic performance	Political performance	Power	Interpersonal trust
Gender	✓				✓			
Ethnicity	✓					✓	✓	
Employment						✓		
Party affiliation	✓					✓	✓	✓
Age				✓				✓
Marital status	✓							
Education								✓
Income	✓							✓

✓ indicates significant influence

#### 4.3.4.10 Inter-Construct Correlations

Correlations among the theoretical variables of the study were analyzed using Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis. The correlation coefficient *r* is a measure of the strength and



direction of the linear relationship between two variables that is defined in terms of the (sample) covariance of the variables divided by their (sample) standard deviations. Correlation coefficients range between +1 and -1. Most researchers consider correlation coefficients between +1 and +0.8 or between -1 and -0.8 to be “highly correlated,” between +0.8 and +0.6 or between -0.8 and -0.6 to be “moderately correlated,” between +0.6 and +0.4 or between -0.6 and -0.4 to have a “weak” correlation, between +0.4 and +0.2 or between -0.4 and -0.2 to possess “very weak” or “low” correlation, and between +0.2 and -0.2 to exhibit “little” or “no” correlation (Burns & Bush, 1995). Results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 4.30 and indicated the most constructs show promise that they are correlated.

**Table 4.30**  
**Inter-Construct Correlations**

	1. Political Support	2. Trust	3. Perceived benefits	4. Perceived costs	5. Economic performance	6. Political performance	7. Interpersonal trust	8. Perceived Power
1.	1							
2.	.28**	1						
3.	.49**	.34**	1					
4.	-.26**	-.07	-.25**	1				
5.	.08	.58**	.19**	.05	1			
6.	.19**	.63**	.26**	-.18**	.60**	1		
7.	.20**	.12*	.28**	-.12*	.04	.09	1	
8.	.12**	.31**	.17**	-.09	.30**	.37**	.18**	1

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

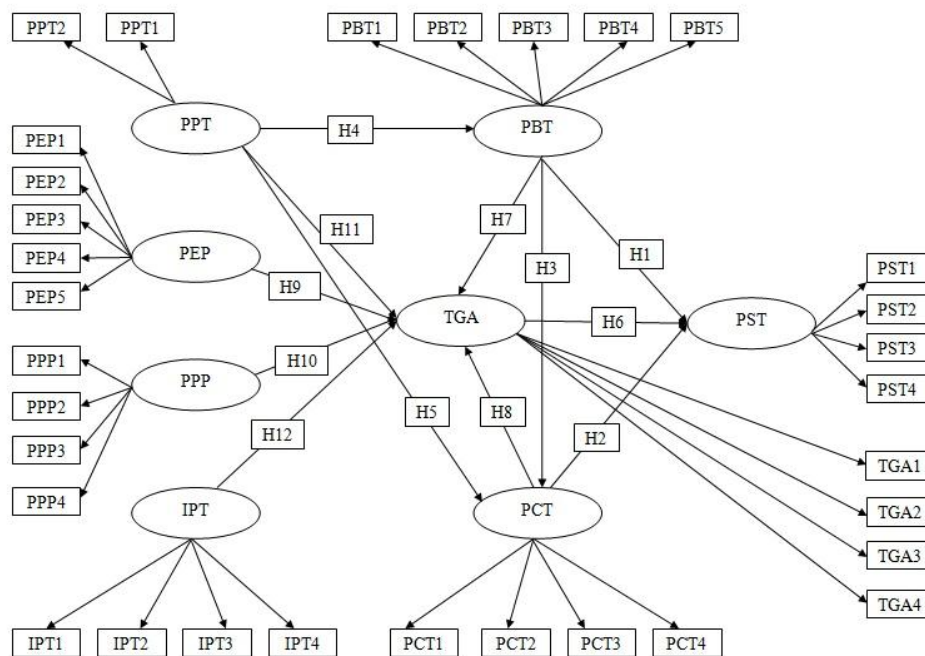
\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For example, the correlation between perceived political performance of government actors and trust in government actors ( $r = .63$ ) fell in the “moderately correlated” category, the correlation between perceived economic performance of government actors and trust in government actors ( $r = .58$ ) and the correlation between perceived benefits and political support ( $r = .49$ ) fell in the “weakly correlated” category. The correlation between perceived benefits and perceived costs ( $r = -.25$ ) fell in the “very weak” correlation category. No significant correlation was noted

between perceived economic performance of government actors and political support for tourism ( $r = .08$ ), between perceived economic performance of government actors and perceived costs of tourism ( $r = .05$ ), between perceived economic performance and interpersonal trust ( $r = .04$ ), and between perceived political performance and interpersonal trust ( $r = .09$ ). Having some indication of correlation at this level was encouraging and suggested that relationships do exist between the variables of the model.

### 4.3.5 The Hypothesized Model

Figure 4.1 presents the model of the study, the indicators that were used to measure each construct, and the hypothesized relationships that were tested. Table 4.31 provides a description of those indicators.



*Notes:*

PST: political support for tourism; PBT: perceived benefits of tourism; PCT: perceived costs of tourism; TRU: trust in government actors; PPT: perceived power in tourism; PEP: perceived economic performance of government actors; PPP: perceived political performance of government actors; IPT: interpersonal trust.

**Figure 4.1. Model with Indicators and Hypothesized Relationships**

**Table 4.31**  
**Latent Variables and their Indicators**

Indicators	Description
<i>Political support for tourism (PST)</i>	
PST1	Attraction designed for large number of tourists
PST2	Convention and meeting facilities
PST3	Hotel development
PST4	Casino development
<i>Trust in government actors (TGA)</i>	
TGA1	Trust tourism decisions made by local government
TGA2	Trust local government to look after the interests of the community in tourism
TGA3	Trust local elected officials to make the right decisions in tourism development
TGA4	Trust local government to do what is right in tourism development without having to constantly check on them
<i>Perceived benefits of tourism (PBT)</i>	
PBT1	Employment opportunities
PBT2	Opportunities for local businesses
PBT3	Investment in public development
PBT4	Incentive for preservation of nature parks
PBT5	Preservation of cultural identity
<i>Perceived costs of tourism (PCT)</i>	
PCT1	Increases traffic problems
PCT2	Results in more litter
PCT3	Increases prices of goods and services
PCT4	Increases environmental pollution
<i>Perceived power in tourism (PPT)</i>	
PPT1	Opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development
PPT2	Personal influence in tourism planning and development
<i>Perceived economic performance of government actors (PEP)</i>	
PEP1	Local government effectively uses tourism to take advantage of current economic opportunities
PEP2	Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce unemployment
PEP3	Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with current economic problems
PEP4	Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with future economic problems
PEP5	Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty
<i>Perceived political performance of government actors (PPP)</i>	
PPP1	Local government treats residents fairly in the tourism development process
PPP2	Local government ensures that there is an adequate representation of residents in the tourism development process
PPP3	Local government is responsive to the needs of the residents in tourism development
PPP4	Corruption and bribe-taking are uncommon among local elected officials
<i>Interpersonal trust (IPT)</i>	
IPT1	Trust in your friends
IPT2	Trust in people of an ethnicity different to your own
IPT3	Trust in people you meet for the first time
IPT4	Trust in people in general whom you do not know

The model consisted of eight latent variables: political support for tourism (PST), perceived benefits of tourism (PBT), perceived costs of tourism (PCT), trust in government actors (TGA), perceived power in tourism (PPT), perceived economic performance of

government actors (PEP), perceived political performance of government actors (PPP), and interpersonal trust (IPT). Each latent variable was measured by a number of indicators. PST was measured by four indicators (PST1 – PST4); TGA was measured by another four indicators (TGA1 – TGA4); PBT was measured by five indicators (PBT1 – PBT5); PCT was measured by four indicators (PCT1 – PCT4); PPT was measured by two indicators (PPT1, PPT2); PEP was measured by five indicators (PEP1 – PEP5); PPP was measured by four indicators (PPP1 – PPP4); and another four indicators (IPT1 – IPT4) were used to measure IPT.

#### **4.3.6 Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

This section presents the results of the hierarchical multiple regression that was used to test the model and the proposed hypotheses. The model presented in Figure 4.1 represents the hypothesized relationships among the different constructs. The model specifies an ordering among the variables that reflects a hypothesized structure of cause-effect linkages. From this perspective, hierarchical multiple regression as a data analytic technique can be used to determine the magnitude of direct influences that each construct has on the other variables that follow it in the presumed causal order (Ho, 2006). In Figure 4.1, each arrow indicates a presumed causal linkage between two constructs. By applying hierarchical regression, it is possible to estimate the strength of each path relationship in the model while controlling for the necessary variables. Cohen and Cohen (1983) and Petrocelli (2003) stressed on the importance for reporting the results of each model in a hierarchical regression equation as this provides readers with a better understanding of how entry of new variables changes the predictive power of existing variables. They also suggested that demographic and socio-economic variables are good candidates for control variables.

The control variables of the study were dummy-coded as recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983). Gender was coded as 1 = female and 0 = male. The variable age was re-coded into three categories: young, middle-aged, and old. For the purpose of this study, old respondents were defined as those aged 65 years or above. Although this is an arbitrary measure, it is the age when people are entitled to old aged pension in many countries and many individuals retire at this point. Old age can also span a period of 20-30 years, during which many individuals experience several changes in their lives (*e.g.* loss of work, widowhood, modified income, and deteriorating health) (Tomljenovic & Faulkner, 2000). The latter researchers made use of this conceptualization of “old age” to investigate older residents’ attitudes to tourism. Accordingly, the “old category” included respondents aged 65 years or above, “middle-aged category” included respondents between 35 and 64 years, while “young category” included respondents between the age of 18 and 34 years. The “middle-aged” and “old” categories were coded as dummy variables, and “young” was the omitted category. For level of income, “middle-income”, “high income”, and “very high income” groups were dummy coded, while “low income” was the omitted category. Another three dummy variables were created for political party affiliations. “Conservative”, “Liberal”, and “NDP” were dummy coded, with “Greens” as the omitted category. Employment was coded as 1 = employed in the tourism sector and 0 = not employed in the tourism sector. For level of education, “high school”, “apprenticeship/trade certificate”, “college”, and “university” were dummy coded, while “less than high school” was the omitted category.

Entry of the each variable or set of variables of interest in the hierarchical regression equations was based on theoretical reasoning and suggested guidelines (Cohen & Cohen, 1983;

Petrocelli, 2003; Wampold & Freud, 1987). The controls variables were entered first, followed by the theoretical variables of interest as Cohen and Cohen (1983) recommended:

Generally speaking, one is likely to have one small subset of IVs that are the focus of investigation. For these variables an appropriate sequencing would include all variables that may contribute to them causally before adding these focal variables to the equation. Likely candidates for causal priority in behavioural studies are status variables – age, sex, ethnicity, education and socioeconomic status – because these are temporally prior and unlikely to be affected by more transitory states of traits (p. 121).

#### ***4.3.6.1 Predicting Political Support for Tourism***

The model of the study postulated that political support for tourism is determined by residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism and their level of trust in government actors.

Accordingly, three hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' trust in government actors and their political support for the sector's development.

The hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression. Results are presented in Table 4.32. VIF and tolerance values indicated no problem of multicollinearity. As recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983), demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents were entered as the control variables in Model 1 of the hierarchical regression equation. Findings indicated a significant model ( $F = 3.44, p < 0.001$ ) and showed that these variables accounted for 12% ( $R^2 = .12$ ) of the variance in political support for tourism development.

**Table 4.32**  
**Hierarchical Regression for Variables Predicting Political Support for Tourism**

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE<sub>b</sub></i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Tol.	VIF	
<b>Model 1</b>							
(Constant)	4.05	.27		14.98			
Female <sup>a</sup>	-.27	.08	-.17**	-3.24	.92	1.09	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.33	.19	-.09	-1.69	.91	1.10	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.22	.10	.12*	2.25	.80	1.26	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.29	.10	.16**	2.86	.78	1.28	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.38	.14	.14**	2.62	.79	1.27	$R^2 = .12$
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.23	.11	.13*	2.14	.70	1.43	Adj. $R^2 = .09$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.18	.12	.09	1.52	.76	1.32	$F = 3.44***$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.03	.10	.02	.30	.70	1.42	
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.15	.18	-.04	-.85	.96	1.05	
High school <sup>f</sup>	-.17	.18	-.10	-.91	.18	5.46	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.04	.23	.01	.15	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	-.16	.19	-.10	-.84	.19	5.41	
University <sup>f</sup>	-.20	.20	-.10	-.99	.25	3.99	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.14	.12	-.09	-1.21	.46	2.16	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.28	.14	-.14	-1.96	.47	2.14	
<b>Model 2</b>							
(Constant)	2.97	.36		8.31			
Female <sup>a</sup>	-.30	.08	-.18***	-3.65	.90	1.11	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.27	.19	-.07	-1.42	.90	1.11	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.17	.10	.09	1.74	.78	1.28	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.25	.10	.13*	2.42	.77	1.31	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.34	.14	.13*	2.38	.78	1.28	
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.15	.11	.08	1.40	.68	1.48	
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.10	.12	.05	.83	.72	1.38	
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.03	.10	.02	.31	.69	1.46	$R^2 = .17$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.09	.18	-.02	-.48	.94	1.06	Adj. $R^2 = .13$
High school <sup>f</sup>	-.17	.18	-.11	-.97	.18	5.46	$\Delta R^2 = .05$
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.00	.22	.00	.02	.44	2.25	$\Delta F = 5.48***$
College <sup>f</sup>	-.17	.18	-.10	-.93	.18	5.44	$F = 4.00***$
University <sup>f</sup>	-.29	.20	-.14	-1.49	.25	4.04	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.16	.12	-.09	-1.33	.46	2.20	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.29	.14	-.15*	-2.08	.46	2.17	
Interpersonal trust	.21	.06	.17**	3.33	.88	1.13	
Perceived economic performance	-.01	.06	-.01	-.17	.60	1.66	
Perceived political performance	.13	.06	.13*	2.05	.56	1.79	
Perceived level of power	.04	.05	.04	.78	.80	1.26	
<b>Model 3</b>							
(Constant)	3.10	.35		8.86			
Female <sup>a</sup>	-.30	.08	-.19***	-3.77	.90	1.11	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.28	.18	-.07	-1.50	.90	1.11	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.16	.09	.09	1.67	.78	1.28	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.23	.10	.12*	2.31	.77	1.31	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.34	.14	.13*	2.49	.78	1.28	$R^2 = .22$
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.14	.10	.07	1.32	.68	1.48	Adj. $R^2 = .18$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.09	.12	.04	.76	.72	1.38	$\Delta R^2 = .05$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.02	.10	.01	.19	.69	1.46	$\Delta F = 20.84***$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.12	.17	-.03	-.68	.94	1.06	$F = 5.05***$
High school <sup>f</sup>	-.22	.17	-.14	-1.28	.18	5.49	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	-.03	.22	-.01	-.15	.44	2.25	

Table 4.32 continues

College <sup>f</sup>	-.23	.18	-.14	-1.28	.18	5.47	
University <sup>f</sup>	-.32	.19	-.16	-1.68	.25	4.05	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.19	.12	-.12	-1.67	.45	2.21	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.31	.14	-.16*	-2.31	.46	2.17	
Interpersonal trust	.19	.06	.15**	3.09	.88	1.14	
Perceived economic performance	-.10	.06	-.10	-1.61	.54	1.85	
Perceived political performance	.01	.07	.01	.08	.47	2.14	
Perceived level of power	.02	.05	.02	.41	.79	1.27	
Trust in government actors	.22	.05	.30***	4.56	.51	1.95	
<hr/>							
Model 4							
(Constant)	2.80	.41		6.80			
Female <sup>a</sup>	-.27	.07	-.17***	-3.81	.90	1.11	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.32	.17	-.09	-1.93	.89	1.13	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.08	.09	.04	.91	.77	1.30	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.13	.09	.07	1.43	.75	1.33	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.29	.12	.11*	2.29	.78	1.29	
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.14	.09	.08	1.53	.68	1.48	
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.06	.11	.03	.55	.72	1.40	$R^2 = .37$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	-.03	.09	-.02	-.38	.67	1.49	Adj. $R^2 = .33$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.18	.15	-.05	-1.19	.94	1.06	$\Delta R^2 = .15$
High school <sup>f</sup>	-.12	.16	-.08	-.78	.18	5.53	$\Delta F = 43.82***$
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.11	.20	.04	.56	.44	2.28	$F = 9.66***$
College <sup>f</sup>	-.12	.16	-.07	-.73	.18	5.53	
University <sup>f</sup>	-.20	.17	-.10	-1.17	.24	4.12	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.23	.10	-.14*	-2.27	.45	2.21	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.31	.12	-.16*	-2.57	.46	2.19	
Interpersonal trust	.06	.06	.05	1.09	.83	1.21	
Perceived economic performance	-.05	.06	-.06	-.97	.52	1.93	
Perceived political performance	-.07	.061	-.08	-1.21	.44	2.27	
Perceived level of power	.01	.04	.01	.17	.79	1.27	
Trust in government actors	.15	.04	.20**	3.43	.49	2.03	
Perceived benefits of tourism	.40	.05	.39***	8.12	.77	1.31	
Perceived costs of tourism	-.13	.05	-.14**	-2.90	.81	1.24	

Notes: <sup>a</sup> Reference group is male; <sup>b</sup> Reference group is visible minorities; <sup>c</sup> Reference group is low income;

<sup>d</sup> Reference group is Greens; <sup>e</sup> Reference group is not employed in tourism; <sup>f</sup> Reference group is less than high school; <sup>g</sup> Reference group is young; \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

Next, before the variables of interest to this model (*i.e.* trust in government actors, perceived benefits of tourism, and perceived costs of tourism) were entered in subsequent stages of the regression equation, interpersonal trust, perceived economic performance of government actors, perceived political performance of government actors, and perceived power in tourism were entered in Model 2 to analyze for any unique contribution to political support. Entry of these variables led to an overall significant model ( $F = 4.00$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and resulted in an  $R^2$  change of 5% ( $\Delta R^2 = .05$ ) which was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 5.48$ ,  $p < .001$ ) (Table 4.32).



Trust in government actors was added in Model 3 of the hierarchical regression model. “Trust is central to understanding any society and its presence is evident at all levels from the child’s relation to caregivers to the individual relation to the state” (Markova & Gillespie, 2008, p. xvii). Social exchange theorists regard trust as the most important of all key variables of SET (Blau, 1964). Researchers suggest that entry of the variables of interest to researchers in hierarchical regression should be based on some kind of theoretical basis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Given the centrality of trust in modern society and in social relationships, it is theoretically meaningful to include trust in government actors in Model 3 of the regression equation before the addition of the perceived benefits of tourism and the perceived costs of tourism variables to the equation. Entry of trust in government actors in Model 3 of the regression equation led to a significant model ( $F = 5.05, p < .001$ ) and resulted in an  $R^2$  change of 5% ( $\Delta R^2 = .05$ ) which was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 20.84, p < .001$ ), suggesting that trust in government actors significantly improved the predictive power of the model. This model explained 22% ( $R^2 = .22$ ) of the variance in political support for tourism development (Table 4.32). Perceived benefits of and perceived costs of tourism (variables from SET) were entered in Model 4 of the hierarchical regression equation. This resulted in an overall significant model ( $F = 9.66, p < .001$ ) and increased the variance in political support for tourism from 22% to 37% ( $R^2 = .37$ ). The change in  $R^2$  ( $\Delta R^2 = .15$ ) was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 43.82, p < .001$ ).

Final  $\beta$  values in Model 4 (Table 4.32), indicated that female respondents were less supportive of tourism compared to males ( $\beta = -.17, t = -3.81, p < .001$ ). Respondents from the very high income group reported a higher level of political support for tourism compared to those from low income group ( $\beta = .11, t = 2.29, p < .05$ ). Middle-aged respondents ( $\beta = -.14, t = -2.27, p < .01$ ) and old respondents ( $\beta = -.16, t = -2.57, p < .01$ ) reported a lower level of political

support for tourism than younger ones. Trust in government actors positively and significantly influenced political support for tourism development ( $\beta = .20, t = 3.43, p < .01$ ), confirming H6. Perceived benefits of tourism exerted a significant positive influence on political support for tourism ( $\beta = .39, t = 8.12, p < .001$ ), lending support to H1. Perceived costs of tourism negatively and significantly influenced political support for tourism ( $\beta = -.14, t = -2.90, p < .01$ ), supporting H2. Interestingly, entry of perceived benefits of tourism and perceived costs of tourism in Model 4 of the regression equation decreased the strength of the relationship between trust in government actors and political support from  $\beta = .30$  in Model 3 to  $\beta = .20$  in Model 4, although this relationship was statistically significant in both models.

#### ***4.3.6.2 Predicting Perceived Benefits of Tourism***

The study's model proposed that perceived benefits of tourism is predicted by residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was developed and tested with hierarchical regression:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism.

Findings from the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in Table 4.33. VIF and tolerance values indicated no multicollinearity problems. Demographic and socio-economic variables were entered in Model 1 of the hierarchical regression equation as recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983). Entry of these variables resulted in an insignificant model ( $F = 1.32, p > .05$ ). Perceived power in tourism in tourism was entered in Model 2, controlling for demographic and socio-economic variables. Entry of this variable resulted in a significant model ( $F = 1.88, p < 0.05$ ) and increased the variance in perceived benefits of tourism by 3% ( $\Delta R^2 =$

.03). This increase was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 9.85, p < 0.01$ ). This model explained 8% ( $R^2 = .08$ ) of the variance in perceived benefits of tourism.

**Table 4.33**  
**Hierarchical Regression for Variables Predicting Perceived Benefits of Tourism**

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE<sub>b</sub></i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Tol.	VIF	
<b>Model 1</b>							
(Constant)	3.88	.27		14.18			
Female <sup>a</sup>	-.01	.08	-.01	-.11	.92	1.09	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.10	.20	-.03	-.53	.91	1.10	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.22	.10	.13*	2.21	.80	1.26	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.27	.10	.15*	2.60	.78	1.28	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.13	.15	.05	.86	.79	1.27	$R^2 = .05$
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.10	.11	.06	.95	.70	1.43	Adj. $R^2 = .01$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.15	.12	.07	1.22	.76	1.32	$F = 1.32$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.06	.11	.03	.56	.70	1.42	
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	.05	.18	.02	.30	.96	1.05	
High school <sup>f</sup>	-.11	.19	-.07	-.57	.18	5.46	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	-.15	.23	-.05	-.63	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	-.09	.19	-.06	-.48	.19	5.41	
University <sup>f</sup>	.04	.20	.02	.18	.25	3.99	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	.12	.12	.07	.97	.46	2.16	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.05	.14	-.03	-.36	.47	2.14	
<b>Model 2</b>							
(Constant)	3.58	.29		12.48			
Female <sup>a</sup>	-.02	.08	-.01	-.26	.91	1.10	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.05	.19	-.01	-.26	.90	1.11	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.22	.10	.13*	2.25	.80	1.26	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.27	.10	.15**	2.66	.78	1.28	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.13	.14	.05	.93	.79	1.27	
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.08	.11	.04	.71	.70	1.44	$R^2 = .08$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.09	.12	.04	.72	.74	1.36	Adj. $R^2 = .04$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.02	.10	.013	.21	.69	1.44	$\Delta R^2 = .03$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	.06	.18	.02	.33	.96	1.05	$\Delta F = 9.85^{**}$
High school <sup>f</sup>	-.10	.18	-.06	-.53	.18	5.46	$F = 1.88^*$
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	-.18	.23	-.06	-.78	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	-.07	.19	-.04	-.353	.18	5.42	
University <sup>f</sup>	.02	.20	.01	.10	.25	3.99	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	.12	.12	.08	1.04	.46	2.16	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.05	.14	-.02	-.32	.47	2.14	
Perceived power in tourism	.14	.04	.16**	3.14	.94	1.07	

Notes: <sup>a</sup> Reference group is male; <sup>b</sup> Reference group is visible minorities; <sup>c</sup> Reference group is low income;

<sup>d</sup> Reference group is Greens; <sup>e</sup> Reference group is those not employed in tourism; <sup>f</sup> Reference group is less than high school; <sup>g</sup> Reference group is young; \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

Final  $\beta$  value showed that respondents from the middle income group ( $\beta = .13, t = 2.25, p < 0.05$ ) and those from the high income group ( $\beta = .15, t = 2.66, p < 0.01$ ) had stronger

perceptions of the benefits of tourism than those from the low income group. Perceived level of power exerted a significant positive influence on perceived benefits ( $\beta = .16, t = 3.14, p < 0.01$ ), confirming H4 that proposed a direct positive relationship between perceived level of power and perceived benefits of tourism.

#### ***4.3.6.3 Predicting Perceived Costs of Tourism***

Based on existing empirical findings, the model proposed that residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism influence their perceptions of the costs of tourism. Accordingly, the following two hypotheses were proposed and tested:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

Results from the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in Table 4.34. VIF and tolerance values indicated that there were no problems of multicollinearity among the variables as the values fell within acceptable range. As recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983), demographic and socioeconomic variables were entered as the control variables in Model 1 of the hierarchical regression equation. Results suggested that entry of these variables resulted in a statistically significant model ( $F = 1.94, p < .05$ ) and suggested that the control variables accounted for 7% of the variance ( $R^2 = .07$ ) in perceived costs of tourism.

**Table 4.34**  
**Hierarchical Regression for Variables Predicting Perceived Costs of Tourism**

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE<sub>b</sub></i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Tol.	VIF	
<b>Model 1</b>							
(Constant)	4.06	.28		14.51			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.02	.07	.01	.21	.92	1.09	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	.35	.20	-.09	-1.73	.91	1.10	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	-.25	.10	-.14**	-2.44	.80	1.26	
High income <sup>c</sup>	-.27	.11	-.14**	-2.51	.78	1.28	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	-.29	.15	-.11	-1.93	.79	1.27	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .07
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	-.09	.11	-.05	-.86	.70	1.43	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .04
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	-.26	.12	-.12**	-2.10	.76	1.32	<i>F</i> = 1.94**
NDP <sup>d</sup>	-.24	.11	-.13**	-2.23	.70	1.42	
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.00	.19	-.00	-.03	.96	1.05	
High school <sup>f</sup>	.27	.19	.16	1.39	.18	5.46	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.35	.24	.11	1.48	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	.34	.19	.20	1.73	.19	5.41	
University <sup>f</sup>	.42	.21	.20**	2.04	.25	4.00	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.08	.12	-.05	-.62	.46	2.16	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.26	.15	-.13	-1.79	.45	2.14	
<b>Model 2</b>							
(Constant)	4.22	.28		14.22			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.03	.09	.02	.29	.91	1.10	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.38	.20	-.10	-1.88	.90	1.11	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	-.25	.10	-.14**	-2.45	.80	1.26	
High income <sup>c</sup>	-.27	.11	-.14**	-2.53	.78	1.28	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	-.29	.15	-.11	-1.98	.79	1.27	
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	-.08	.11	-.04	-.72	.70	1.44	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .08
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	-.23	.13	-.11	-1.81	.74	1.36	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .04
NDP <sup>d</sup>	-.22	.11	-.12**	-2.04	.69	1.44	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.01	.19	-.00	-.04	.96	1.05	$\Delta F = 2.85^*$
High school <sup>f</sup>	.26	.19	.16	1.37	.18	5.46	<i>F</i> = 2.01**
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.37	.24	.12	1.56	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	.32	.19	.19	1.66	.18	5.42	
University <sup>f</sup>	.43	.21	.21**	2.08	.25	3.99	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.08	.12	-.05	-.65	.46	2.16	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.27	.15	-.13	-1.82	.47	2.14	
Perceived power in tourism	-.08	.04	-.09*	-1.69	.94	1.07	
<b>Model 3</b>							
(Constant)	5.07	.35		14.68			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.02	.08	.01	.24	.91	1.10	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.39	.20	-.10**	-1.99	.90	1.11	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	-.20	.10	-.11**	-1.97	.79	1.27	
High income <sup>c</sup>	-.21	.11	-.11	-1.96	.77	1.31	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	-.26	.15	-.10	-1.80	.79	1.27	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .13
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	-.06	.11	-.03	-.57	.70	1.44	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .09
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	-.21	.12	-.10	-1.69	.74	1.36	$\Delta R^2 = .05$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	-.21	.11	-.12**	-2.04	.69	1.44	$\Delta F = 20.27^{****}$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	.01	.18	.00	.04	.96	1.05	<i>F</i> = 3.18****
High school <sup>f</sup>	.24	.19	.15	1.28	.18	5.46	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.33	.23	.10	1.42	.45	2.24	
College <sup>f</sup>	.31	.19	.18	1.62	.18	5.42	
University <sup>f</sup>	.43	.20	.21**	2.16	.25	3.99	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.05	.12	-.03	-.43	.46	2.17	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.28	.14	-.14	-1.94	.47	2.15	
Perceived power in tourism	-.04	.04	-.05	-.98	.91	1.10	
Perceived benefits of tourism	-.24	.05	-.23****	-4.50	.92	1.08	

*Notes:* <sup>a</sup> Reference group is male; <sup>b</sup> Reference group is visible minorities; <sup>c</sup> Reference group is low income; <sup>d</sup> Reference group is Greens; <sup>e</sup> Reference group is those not employed in tourism; <sup>f</sup> Reference group is less than high school; <sup>g</sup> Reference group is young; \* *p* < 0.10; \*\* *p* < 0.05; *p* < 0.01; \*\*\*\* *p* < 0.001

Model 2 involved the simultaneous addition of perceived level of power in tourism to the regression equation. According to Foucault (1978), power is present everywhere and is inherent to any social relations, and one is never “outside it”. Given the omnipresence of power in society, it makes theoretical sense to include residents’ perceptions of their power in tourism in Model 2 of the regression equation, before the addition of perceived benefits of tourism to the equation. This is because researchers (*e.g.* Cohen & Cohen, 1983) argue that entry of variables in hierarchical regression should be based on theoretical reasoning and research relevance.

Entry of perceived power in tourism in the regression equation resulted in an overall significant model ( $F = 2.01, p < .05$ ) and in a change in  $R^2$  of 1.0% ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ) which was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 2.85, p < .10$ ). In this model, perceived power was negatively associated with perceived costs of tourism ( $\beta = -.09, t = -1.69, p < .10$ ). Entry of perceived benefits of tourism in Model 3 of the regression equation resulted in an overall significant model ( $F = 3.18, p < .001$ ) and in a change in  $R^2$  of 5% ( $\Delta R^2 = .05$ ) which was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 20.27, p < .001$ ). The model explained 13% ( $R^2 = .13$ ) of the variance in perceived costs of tourism.

Final beta values showed that non-minorities had weaker perceptions of the costs of tourism compared to visible minorities ( $\beta = -.10, t = -1.99, p < .05$ ). Respondents from the middle income group also had weaker perceptions of the costs of tourism compared to those from the low income group ( $\beta = -.11, t = -1.97, p < .05$ ). In terms of political party affiliation, respondents who supported NDP had weaker perceptions of the costs of tourism compared to those who supported Greens ( $\beta = -.12, t = -2.04, p < .05$ ). Respondents who benefitted from

university education had weaker perceptions of the costs of tourism than those who had less than high school education ( $\beta = -.21, t = -2.16, p < .05$ ).

Interestingly, the strength of the relationship between perceived power and perceived costs of tourism decreased from  $\beta = -.09$  in Model 2 to  $\beta = -.05$  in Model 3 when perceived benefits was added to the regression model, changing the relationship between perceived power and perceived costs from significant in Model 2 to insignificant in Model 3. Final beta values (Model 3) showed that perceived power did not significantly influence perceived costs ( $\beta = -.05, t = -.98, p > .05$ ), suggesting that H5, that proposed a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of their power to influence tourism development and their perceptions of the costs of tourism should be rejected. Results further indicated a significant negative influence of perceived benefits on perceived costs of tourism ( $\beta = -.23, t = -4.50, p < .001$ ) (Table 4.34). Based on these results, H3 that proposed a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism is supported,

#### ***4.3.6.4 Predicting Trust in Government Actors***

Based on empirical and theoretical evidence, the model of the study hypothesized that trust in government actors is predicted from perceived benefits of tourism, perceived costs of tourism, perceived level of power in tourism, perceived economic performance of government actors, perceived political performance of government actors, and interpersonal trust. Accordingly, the following hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 7 (H7): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their trust in government actors.

Hypothesis 8 (H8): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their trust in government actors.

Hypothesis 9 (H9) – There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.

Hypothesis 10 (H10) - There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.

Hypothesis 11 (H11): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their trust in government actors.

Hypothesis 12 (H12): There is a direct positive relationship between interpersonal trust and residents' trust in government actors.

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in Table 4.35. As suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983), demographic and socioeconomic variables were entered as the control variables in Model 1 of the analysis. Entry of these variables resulted in an insignificant model ( $F = 1.20, p > 0.05$ ). Interpersonal trust (variable from cultural theory of political trust) was entered in Model 2 of the hierarchical regression model before the other predictors of trust in government actors were entered. This is because interpersonal trust is exogenous to the political system, is culturally determined, and is learned early in life (Mishler & Rose, 2001). It is deeply embedded in densely connected cohesive groups linked by strong social ties (Rus & Iglic, 2005). Entry of interpersonal trust in the regression equation increased the variance by .1% ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ) to 6% ( $R^2 = .06$ ). However, this increase was statistically insignificant ( $F = 3.46, p > .05$ ) and an insignificant overall model emerged ( $F = .16, p > .05$ ). This suggested that presence of interpersonal trust in the equation did not significantly increase the predictive power of the regression model.



**Table 4.35**  
**Hierarchical Regression for Variables Predicting Trust in Government Actors**

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE<sub>b</sub></i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	Tol.	VIF	
<b>Model 1</b>							
(Constant)	2.55	.38		6.70			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.18	.12	.08	1.54	.92	1.09	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.19	.27	-.04	-.70	.91	1.10	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.13	.14	.05	.96	.80	1.26	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.19	.15	.08	1.30	.78	1.28	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.03	.20	.01	.15	.79	1.27	$R^2 = .05$
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.34	.14	.14**	2.25	.70	1.43	Adj. $R^2 = .01$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.47	.17	.17***	2.81	.76	1.32	$F = 1.20$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.18	.15	.08	1.23	.70	1.42	
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.06	.25	-.01	-.24	.96	1.05	
High school <sup>f</sup>	.24	.26	.11	.93	.18	5.46	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.19	.32	.05	.59	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	.23	.26	.11	.88	.19	5.41	
University <sup>f</sup>	.29	.28	.10	1.03	.251	3.99	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	.01	.17	.01	.06	.46	2.16	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.07	.20	-.03	-.36	.47	2.14	
<b>Model 2</b>							
(Constant)	2.02	.47		4.26			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.17	.12	.08	1.46	.91	1.10	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	-.18	.27	-.04	-.68	.91	1.10	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.10	.14	.04	.75	.79	1.27	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.17	.15	.07	1.16	.78	1.29	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	.01	.20	.00	.05	.78	1.27	
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.30	.15	.12**	2.00	.69	1.45	$R^2 = .06$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.45	.17	.16***	2.71	.75	1.33	Adj. $R^2 = .02$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.19	.15	.08	1.31	.70	1.43	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	-.04	.25	-.01	-.16	.96	1.05	$\Delta F = 3.46$
High school <sup>f</sup>	.24	.26	.11	.93	.18	5.46	$F = .16$
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.19	.32	.05	.59	.45	2.23	
College <sup>f</sup>	.22	.26	.10	.84	.19	5.42	
University <sup>f</sup>	.23	.28	.09	.84	.25	4.03	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	-.03	.17	-.01	-.11	.46	2.18	
Old <sup>g</sup>	-.10	.20	-.04	-.49	.46	2.15	
Interpersonal trust	.17	.09	.10*	1.86	.91	1.10	
<b>Model 3</b>							
(Constant)	-.56	.38		-1.47			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.01	.09	.00	.10	.90	1.11	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	.03	.20	.01	.17	.90	1.11	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.05	.10	.02	.49	.78	1.28	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.08	.11	.03	.73	.77	1.31	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	-.02	.15	-.01	-.16	.78	1.28	$R^2 = .49$
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.06	.11	.02	.49	.68	1.48	Adj. $R^2 = .46$
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.05	.13	.02	.37	.72	1.38	$\Delta R^2 = .43$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.05	.11	.02	.50	.69	1.46	$\Delta F = 101.77***$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	.14	.19	.03	.76	.94	1.06	$F = 18.15***$
High school <sup>f</sup>	.23	.19	.11	1.20	.18	5.46	
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.17	.24	.04	.70	.44	2.25	
College <sup>f</sup>	.27	.19	.12	1.37	.18	5.44	
University <sup>f</sup>	.13	.21	.05	.64	.25	4.04	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	.16	.13	.07	1.29	.46	2.20	

Table 4.35 continues

Old <sup>g</sup>	.10	.15	.04	.70	.46	2.17	
Interpersonal trust	.09	.07	.06	1.37	.88	1.13	
Perceived economic performance	.40	.06	.31****	6.36	.60	1.66	
Perceived political performance	.56	.07	.42****	8.44	.56	1.79	
Perceived power in tourism	.08	.05	.07	1.63	.80	1.26	
<hr/>							
Model 4							
(Constant)	-1.35	.49		-2.78			
Female <sup>a</sup>	.02	.09	.01	.26	.90	1.11	
Non-minorities <sup>b</sup>	.07	.20	.01	.33	.89	1.13	
Middle income <sup>c</sup>	.03	.10	.01	.29	.77	1.30	
High income <sup>c</sup>	.05	.11	.02	.43	.75	1.33	
Very high income <sup>c</sup>	-.03	.15	-.01	-.18	.78	1.29	
Conservative <sup>d</sup>	.06	.11	.03	.58	.68	1.48	
Liberals <sup>d</sup>	.06	.13	.02	.46	.72	1.40	$R^2 = .51$
NDP <sup>d</sup>	.06	.11	.03	.56	.67	1.49	Adj. $R^2 = .48$
Employed in tourism <sup>e</sup>	.12	.18	.02	.63	.94	1.06	$\Delta R^2 = .02$
High school <sup>f</sup>	.24	.19	.11	1.26	.18	5.51	$\Delta F = 7.61^{**}$
Apprenticeship <sup>f</sup>	.18	.24	.04	.75	.44	2.28	$F = 17.74^{***}$
College <sup>f</sup>	.27	.19	.12	1.39	.18	5.50	
University <sup>f</sup>	.12	.21	.04	.59	.24	4.12	
Middle-aged <sup>g</sup>	.14	.12	.06	1.15	.45	2.20	
Old <sup>g</sup>	.13	.15	.05	.89	.46	2.19	
Interpersonal trust	.04	.07	.02	.51	.83	1.21	
Perceived economic performance	.38	.06	.29****	5.87	.57	1.76	
Perceived political performance	.53	.07	.41****	7.93	.52	1.93	
Perceived power in tourism	.07	.05	.06	1.54	.80	1.26	
Perceived benefits of tourism	.22	.06	.16****	3.89	.80	1.26	
Perceived costs of tourism	.06	.06	.05	1.13	.81	1.24	

Notes: <sup>a</sup> Reference group is male; <sup>b</sup> Reference group is visible minorities; <sup>c</sup> Reference group is low income;

<sup>d</sup> Reference group is Greens; <sup>e</sup> Reference group is those not employed in tourism; <sup>f</sup> Reference group is less than high school; <sup>g</sup> Reference group is young; \* $p < 0.10$ ; \*\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*\* $p < 0.001$

In Model 3, perceived economic performance of government actors, perceived political performance of government actors, and perceived power in tourism (variables from institutional theory of political trust) were added to the regression equation. These variables were entered in the regression model before perceived benefits and costs of tourism because their relationships with political trust are well established in the literature (e.g. Luhiste, 2006; Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005; Wong *et al.*, 2011). Wampold & Freund (1987) noted that “variables could be entered according to their research relevance. Here, the independent variables...that have a previously established relation with the dependent variable should be entered first” (p. 377). Entry of these variables resulted in an overall significant prediction model ( $F = 18.15$ ,  $p < .001$ )

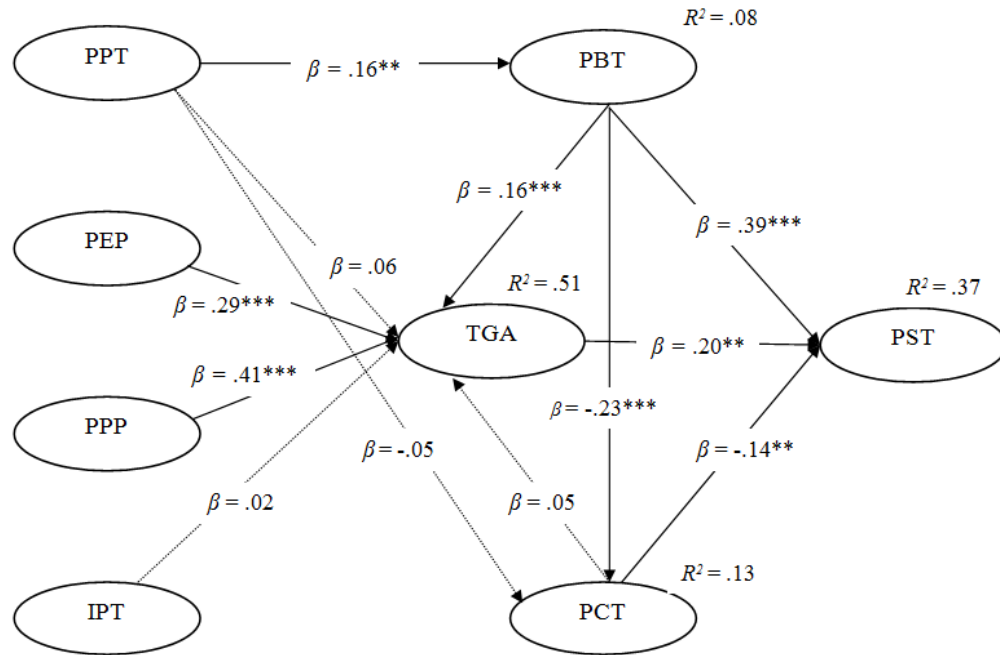
and increased the explained variance by 43% ( $\Delta R^2 = .43$ ) to 49% ( $R^2 = .49$ ). This increase was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 101.77, p < .001$ ). Addition of these three variables to the regression equation decreased the  $\beta$  value of interpersonal trust from .10 in Model 2 to .06 in Model 3, although it had a non-significant relationship with trust in government actors in both models. Finally, perceived benefits of tourism and perceived costs of tourism (variables from SET) were entered in Model 4 of the regression equation. Entry of these variables resulted in an overall significant model ( $F = 17.74, p < .001$ ) and increased the variance explained in trust in government actors by 2% ( $\Delta R^2 = .02$ ) to 51% ( $R^2 = .51$ ). This increase was statistically significant ( $\Delta F = 7.61, p < .001$ ).

Final  $\beta$  values showed none of the socioeconomic and demographic variables had a significant influence on political trust. Results suggested that perceived economic performance of government actors ( $\beta = .29, t = 5.87, p < .001$ ), perceived political performance of government actors ( $\beta = .41, t = 7.93, p < .001$ ), and perceived benefits of tourism ( $\beta = .16, t = 3.89, p < .0001$ ) significantly and positively influenced trust in government actors. Perceived power in tourism ( $\beta = .06, t = 1.54, p < 0.05$ ), interpersonal trust ( $\beta = .02, t = .51, p < 0.05$ ), and perceived costs of tourism ( $\beta = .05, t = 1.13, p < 0.05$ ) had an insignificant influence on trust in government actors. Based on these results, H7, H9, and H10 were supported, while hypotheses H8, H11 and, H12 were rejected.

#### **4.3.6.5 Summary of Hierarchical Regression Results**

Figure 4.2 shows the tested model with standardized coefficients ( $\beta$  values) and explained variances in the dependent variables. As shown in the figure, the independent variables explained 8% ( $R^2 = .08$ ) of the variance in perceived benefits of tourism, 13% ( $R^2 = .13$ ) of the

variance in perceived costs of tourism, 51% ( $R^2 = .51$ ) of the variance in trust in government actors, and 37% ( $R^2 = .37$ ) of the variance in political support. Therefore, the proposed model can be assumed to sufficiently predict residents' trust in government actors and their political support for tourism.



Notes:

PST: political support for tourism; PBT: perceived benefits of tourism; PCT: perceived costs of tourism; TGA: trust in government actors; PPT: perceived power in tourism; PEP: perceived economic performance of government actors; PPP: perceived political performance of government actors; IPT: interpersonal trust.

\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

**Figure 4.2. The Tested Model with Standardized Path Coefficients and  $R^2$  Values**

Table 4.36 presents the results of the hypotheses. As shown in the Table 4.36, eight of the 12 proposed hypotheses were supported (H1, H2, H3, H4, H6, H7, H9, H10), while four hypotheses were rejected (H5, H8, H11, and H12).

**Table 4.36**  
**Hypothesis Testing Results**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Path Relationships</b>	<b>Results</b>
Hypothesis 1 (H1)	PBT → PST (+ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 2 (H2)	PCT → PST (-ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 3 (H3)	PBT → PCT (-ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 4 (H4)	PPT → PBT (+ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 5 (H5)	PPT → PCT (-ve)	Rejected
Hypothesis 6 (H6)	TGA → PST (+ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 7 (H7)	PBT → TGA (+ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 8 (H8)	PCT → TGA (-ve)	Rejected
Hypothesis 9 (H9)	PEP → TGA (+ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 10 (H10)	PPP → TGA (+ve)	Supported
Hypothesis 11 (H11)	PPT → TGA (-ve)	Rejected
Hypothesis 12 (H12)	IPT → TGA (+ve)	Rejected

#### **4.3.7 Mediation Analysis**

In addition to testing the formal hypotheses that were proposed, the mediating effects implied in the model were also tested although no formal hypotheses were developed. The model suggests that (1) perceived benefits of tourism mediates the relationship between perceived level of power and political support for tourism, (2) perceived costs of tourism mediates the relationship between perceived level of power and political support and the relationship between perceived benefits and political support, and (3) the relationships between perceived benefits, perceived costs, perceived power, perceived economic performance of government actors, perceived political performance of government actors, interpersonal, and political support is mediated by trust in government actors. Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommended four-steps to mediation analysis and Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) were used to test the mediating effects. Results are presented in Table 4.37. Based on Kenny's (2012) recommendation, in each regression equation, demographic and socioeconomic variables were entered as the control variables to

ensure comparability across models. However, only the relevant path relationships in the final model of each step are reported in Table 4.37.

**Table 4.37**  
**Mediating Effects**

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE<sub>b</sub></i>	$\beta$	Sobel test ( <i>z</i> )	Tolerance	VIF
Table 4.37a: Mediating Effect of Perceived Costs						
<i>Step 1: Independent variables to outcome variable</i>						
PPT → PST	.03	.04	.04		.91	1.10
PBT → PST	.48	.05	.46***		.92	1.08
<i>Step 2: Independent variables to mediator</i>						
PPT → PCT	-.04	.04	-.05		.91	1.10
PBT → PCT	-.24	.05	-.23***		.92	1.08
<i>Step 3: Independent variables and mediator to outcome variable</i>						
PPT → PST	.03	.04	.03	<i>z</i> = 2.29*	.91	1.10
PBT → PST	.45	.05	.43***		.88	1.14
PCT → PST	-.13	.05	-.13**		.87	1.15

Table 4.37b: Mediating Effect of Trust in Government Actors

<i>Step 1: Independent variables to outcome variable</i>						
IPT → PST	.07	.06	.05		.83	1.21
PEP → PST	.00	.05	.00		.57	1.76
PPP → PST	.01	.06	.01		.52	1.93
PPT → PST	.02	.04	.02		.79	1.26
PBT → PST	.43	.05	.42***		.80	1.26
PCT → PST	-.12	.05	.00		.81	1.24
<i>Step 2: Independent variables to mediator</i>						
IPT → TGA	.04	.07	.02		.83	1.21
PEP → TGA	.38	.06	.29***		.57	1.76
PPP → TGA	.53	.07	.41***		.52	1.93
PPT → TGA	.07	.05	.06		.79	1.26
PBT → TGA	.22	.06	.16***		.80	1.26
PCT → TGA	.06	.06	.05		.81	1.24
<i>Step 3: Independent variables and mediator to outcome variable</i>						
IPT → PST	.06	.06	.05	<i>z</i> = 2.62*	.83	1.21
PEP → PST	-.05	.06	-.06		.52	1.93
PPP → PST	-.07	.06	-.08		.44	2.27
PPT → PST	.01	.04	.01		.79	1.27
PBT → PST	.40	.05	.39***		.77	1.31
PCT → PST	-.13	.05	-.14**		.81	1.23
TGA → PST	.15	.04	.20**		.49	2.03

*Notes:* PST: political support for tourism; PBT: perceived benefits of tourism; PCT: perceived costs of tourism; TRU: trust in government actors; PPT: perceived power in tourism; PEP: perceived economic performance of government actors; PPP: perceived political performance of government actors; IPT: interpersonal trust; \**p* < 0.05; \*\**p* < 0.01; \*\*\**p* < 0.001

Although the model suggests that the relationship between perceived power and political support is mediated by perceived benefits and perceived costs, these mediating effects were not tested. This was because perceived level of power exerted an insignificant relationship with political support (see hierarchical regression results in Table 4.32, Model 2) which breaches the first condition of Baron and Kenny (1986) that requires the independent variable to be significantly associated with the dependent variable to have mediation.

Next, the mediating effect of perceived costs of tourism on the relationship between perceived benefits of tourism and political support for tourism was considered for analysis. First, the relationship between perceived benefits of tourism and political support for tourism was tested. This relationship was statistically significant ( $\beta = .46, p < .001$ ) (Table 4.36a), satisfying Baron and Kenny (1986)'s first condition for mediation analysis. Step 2 suggested a significant negative relationship between perceived benefits of tourism and perceived costs of tourism ( $\beta = -.23, p < .001$ ), satisfying the second condition of Baron and Kenny (1986). Results from Step 3 indicated that perceived benefits was still a significant predictor of political support ( $\beta = .43, p < .001$ ) with the inclusion of perceived cost of tourism as the mediator. However, the  $\beta$  coefficient decreased from .46 in Step 1 to .43 in Step 3 when the mediator variable was included in the equation. These results suggested that perceived costs partially mediated the relationship between perceived benefits and political support. This partial mediation was statistically significant as indicated by Sobel test ( $z = 2.29, p < .05$ ) (Table 4.37a).

Finally, the mediating effect of trust in government actors on the relationship (1) between interpersonal trust and political support, (2) between perceived economic performance and political support, (3) between perceived political performance and political support, (4) between

perceived level of power and political support, (5) between perceived benefits and political support, and (6) between perceived costs and political support were considered for analysis. Results are presented in Table 4.37b. Step 1 of the mediation analysis suggested that interpersonal trust, perceived economic performance of government actors, perceived political performance of government actors, perceived level of power in tourism, and perceived costs of tourism did not exert a significant influence on political support for tourism, the dependent variable. Given the statistically insignificant relationships, they were not considered for mediation analysis as recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). Results from Step 1 indicated a statistically significant relationship between perceived benefits of tourism and political support for tourism ( $\beta = .42, p < .001$ ), satisfying Baron and Kenny's (1986) first condition for mediation analysis. Step 2 of the analysis indicated that perceived benefits of tourism was also significantly associated with trust in government actors (mediator) ( $\beta = .16, p < .001$ ), satisfying the second condition of Baron and Kenny (1986). Step 3 indicated that perceived benefits was still a significant predictor of political support ( $\beta = .39, p < .001$ ) with the inclusion of trust in government actors as the mediator. However, the  $\beta$  coefficient decreased from .42 in Step 1 to .39 in Step 3 when the mediator variable was included in the equation, suggesting partial mediation. Sobel test indicated that this partial mediation was statistically significant ( $z = 2.62, p < .05$ ) (Table 4.37b).

#### **4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter presented the results of the study. Findings from pilot study were presented. This was followed by a presentation of the statistical results using the main survey sample. The sample profile was presented and the extent to which the study sample is representative of the local population was also discussed. Then, some descriptive statistics, followed by an analysis



of group differences were presented. This was followed by a section that presented the results from the hierarchical regression analysis, on the basis of which the proposed hypotheses were either accepted or rejected. The final section of this chapter presented the results of the mediation analysis. The following chapter discusses these results in the light of existing theoretical and empirical evidences in the literature.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the findings of the study. First, residents' overall attitudes to local government actors and to tourism development are discussed, followed by a discussion of the influence of demographic and socioeconomic factors on attitudes to local government and tourism development. Then, results of the hypotheses are discussed in the light of existing theoretical and empirical evidences from the literature, and literature specific to Niagara Region where these are available. This section is followed by a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the research findings. Then, limitations of the study are discussed and some recommendations for future research are made, followed by a concluding remark.

#### **5.2 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

The present study developed a model predicting residents' trust in government actors and their political support for tourism using SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust as its theoretical basis. Grounded in political economy, it attempted to make a "complete" use of SET by investigating the relationships among the core variables of the theory (*e.g.* trust, power, benefits, costs, and support). The study further extended the concept of trust to a political context and used institutional theory of political trust and cultural theory of political trust to examine the determinants of residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism development.

Twelve hypotheses emanated from the study's model and were tested using data collected from residents of Niagara Region, Ontario, Canada, using an online panel. Hierarchical

regression analysis was used to test the proposed hypotheses and to analyze the unique contribution of each independent variable or set of independent variables to the outcome variables. Findings provided support for eight of the 12 proposed hypotheses. In addition to testing the formal hypotheses that were proposed, the mediating effects implied in the model were also tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation analysis. Findings from the study are discussed in the sections that follow.

### **5.2.1 Residents' Overall Attitudes to Local Government Actors**

Results suggested that residents of Niagara Region had poor perceptions regarding the economic and political performance of government actors in tourism development and planning. Respondents also exhibited a low level of trust in those actors (see Tables 4.14, 4.18, and 4.19). There are a number of plausible explanations that could potentially explain the generally negative attitudes residents' hold toward local government actors in tourism. Although a political economy approach provides a number of well-rehearsed arguments for government interventions in addressing sustainable tourism concerns (see for *e.g.* Bramwell, 2011; Bramwell & Lane, 2011; Mosedale, 2011; Wang & Bramwell, 2012), government has been criticized for several reasons that could explain the unfavorable attitudes of Niagara residents toward local government.

In several instances, governments have been found to lack commitment to implement tourism policies and planning (Go, Milne, & Whittles, 1992) and to engage in short-term decision-making that lacks overall direction and coordination (Madrigal, 1995; Vogel & Swanson, 1988). This seems to be the case with local government in Niagara Region. A review of tourism policy documents suggests that local government in Niagara Region does not have

well-defined roles in tourism development. Graveline's (2011) critical review on the importance of local government's role in tourism in the Region raised concerns regarding the latter's commitment to the sector's development. He noted that:

It was difficult to find clearly stated commitments for tourism from the Region in planning documents or any external publications. If not Regional Government, then who is ultimately "responsible" for the health and development of tourism in Niagara? The tourism sector is too important for the economic prosperity of the Niagara Region for its government not to have a clearly stated mandate as to its role in this regard and to the commitments it will make to ensure its sustainability and growth (p. 3).

It is may be for these reasons that Niagara residents generally held unfavorable attitudes to local government. While low trust in government actors can also be attributed to residents' poor perceptions regarding the performance of these actors in tourism (discussed later), it could also be the result of changing roles of governments from public administration that involves implementation of tourism policies geared toward provisions and management of public goods to a more corporatist model which emphasizes on investment returns, efficiency, and relationships with private tourism stakeholders (Hall, 1999). Hall (1999) further asserted that this has meant an increasing focus on individualism through achievements of self-interests, accompanied by a decline in legitimacy of government as perceived by its citizens. His argument is in line with critics within political economy that suggest governments ultimately make decisions according to narrow commercial interests rather than based on the need to secure political legitimacy and sustainability (Bramwell, 2011).

This is particularly true for countries like Canada, which according to Webster *et al.* (2011) is a liberal political economy, where the market is paramount and a free market is best in terms of organizing and distributing tourism resources and wealth among society members.

Webster *et al.* (2011) further argued that in such liberal economies, government has a minimal role in tourism development and economic outcomes enable certain individuals to attain more wealth than others, resulting in inequality and monopolistic tendencies that favor tourism businesses at the expense of local people. In the context of Niagara Region, a good example of commercially-driven interests of government is Fallsview Casino. The website (<http://www.closefallsviecasino.org>) dedicated to lobbying against its development reported that “the primary beneficiaries of Fallsview seem to be the large U.S. corporate Hotels that have sprung up like weeds near the Mega-Casino.”

While low trust in government actors can be attributed to factors specific to tourism development, there may well be causes external to the tourism system that could potentially explain the low level of trust reported in this study. A number of researchers argue that citizens’ trust in government has been declining in most established democracies (Abrajano & Alvarez, 2010; Catterberg & Moreno, 2005; Hetherington & Husser, 2012; Nye *et al.*, 1997), including in Canada (Belanger & Nadeau, 2005; Crête, Pelletier, & Couture, 2006, 2007). For example, using data from the 1984, 1988, and 1993 Canadian Election Study, Belanger and Nadeau (2005) demonstrated a significant decline of trust over time. Roesse (2002) also showed that Canadian citizens’ trust in government decreased significantly between 1965 and 1993 and argued that this decline appears to be a longstanding trend.

Catterberg and Moreno (2005) and Wang (2005) use the concept of “critical citizens” to explain declining trust in government in established democracies. “Critical citizens” is the result of a shift in materialistic to post-materialistic values and the rising importance of self-expressive values (Inglehart, 1997; Norris, 1999b). These have meant that people evaluate performance of

government institutions using more demanding standards, making it very difficult for governments to meet public expectations and demands (Hetherington, 1998). In addition to these factors, Nye *et al.* (1997) attributed declining trust in government to the changing role of the media. The researchers noted that “press and television news have become more negative, more journalist-centered, and more focused on conflict than substance. In its new interpretive role, the press has become an unaccountable part of the political process” (p. 17). Thus, in addition to factors specific to the tourism sector in Niagara Region, changes in the political environment may also explain residents’ poor perceptions regarding the performance local government in tourism and their low trust in those actors as this study reports. It is also probable that these external factors are responsible for the general decline in residents’ trust in government in the context of tourism development as some researchers advocate (*e.g.* Bramwell, 2011).

Residents also perceived that they had a very low level of power in tourism development ( $\bar{x} = 1.99$ , Table 4.17). This is not surprising as several studies suggest that communities are the least powerful stakeholders and are often marginalized in tourism planning and development (Godfrey, 1999; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Moscardo, 2011; Reed, 1997). Residents’ low level of power may be the results of government’s undue influence on tourism policy-making (Bramwell, 2011; Moscardo, 2011; Ruhanen, *in press*) and a lack of community consultation and involvement in tourism (Godfrey, 1998). Further, commercial and market-driven tourism interests of local governments mean that development is largely determined by decisions of private entrepreneurs and local society elites such as real-estate developers, land owners, local chamber of commerce and industry, *etc.* (Reed, 1997). These result in loss of local control over resources and tourism decisions, undermining power of communities to influence tourism policies and planning decisions (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Wearing & McDonald, 2002).

Power imbalances resulting from undue influence of some stakeholders in tourism development give rise to conflicts as groups seek to secure their favored policy decisions (Bramwell & Lane, 2011; Dye, 1986; Reed, 1997; Saunders, 1981). Reed (1997, p. 589) warned researchers that:

Those who traditionally hold power may resist its redistribution, thereby hindering attempts for collaboration... It is unlikely that municipal government will be neutral conveners of power. They are more likely to be purposeful, goal-oriented actors that use their power to their own purposes.

These challenges are likely to be more prevalent in liberal political economies like Canada that are characterized by a high degree of economic and social inequality, and power imbalances among tourism stakeholders (Webster *et al.*, 2011). In the context of Niagara Region, development of Fallsview Casino in Niagara Region reflects the marginalization of local community views on the development, power imbalances in the destination, and the failure of local government to manage inequalities in tourism development. The website (<http://www.closefallsviewcasino.org>) that lobbies against development of this project reported several comments from residents that demonstrate a feeling of powerlessness:

Fallsview resulted from the want of a powerful few, and therefore does not reflect the will of the Canadian people [Anonymous person].

The website also reported that:

In its haste to build one of the largest MEGA-CASINOS in the world, the Government of Ontario (at all levels) acted irresponsibly since the Fallsview approval process did NOT involve adequate public participation or scrutiny [Anonymous person]. .

In approving Fallsview, the Government of Ontario "sold out" the people of Niagara Falls by creating a sleazy casino district (Clifton Hill) that pulls money OUT of other segments of the economy [Anonymous person].

### 5.2.2 Residents' Overall Attitudes to Tourism Development

Results suggested that residents of Niagara Region had mixed views on the types of tourism development that they would like to see in the Region. Their level of support varied according to the types of tourism development (see Table 4.13). In particular, communities were most supportive of the development of attractions designed for attracting large number of tourists and were least supportive of casino development. The high level of support for attractions designed for large number of tourists (*e.g.* theme parks) can be attributed to the fact that such developments usually result in more recreation and leisure opportunities for local people. Empirical findings demonstrate that residents of a destination are generally supportive of those types of developments that increase local recreation opportunities (Allen *et al.*, 1988; Lankford, Williams, & Knowles-Lankford, 1997). For example, Lankford and Howard (1994) reported that residents' perception of the impacts of tourism on recreation opportunities was positively correlated with their support for tourism development in the Pacific Northwest.

Results of this study also suggested that residents were least supportive of casino development in the region. This is not surprising given that there is enough evidence to suggest that residents of Niagara Region were generally not in favor of the development of Fallsview Casino. Their concerns were manifested in a number of ways, and one of these was through the website that lobbies against this development. The website noted that:

Protecting Niagara Falls by working to turn back the recent onslaught of casino resort development (on the Canadian side of the Falls) is proving to be one of the great environmental causes of our time. Placing a MEGA-CASINO next to Niagara Falls was undoubtedly one of the worst decisions that a Province of Canada has ever made. And, sure enough, Fallsview Casino is proving to be a real disaster, not only for the environment, but from a financial and societal perspective ([www.closefallsviewcasino.org](http://www.closefallsviewcasino.org)).



Casino workers suffer from high rates of substance abuse, family problems and divorce; therefore, Fallsview should NOT be trying to recruit students and recent graduates ([www.closefallsviewcasino.org](http://www.closefallsviewcasino.org)).

These concerns reflect the negative environmental and socio-cultural consequences of gambling development such as traffic congestion, pollution, disruption of family life, political corruption, crime, drugs, compulsive gambling disorders, addiction to gambling, loan sharking, and changes in individual value systems, life styles and community organization reported in the literature (Carmichael & Peppard, 1998; Eadington, 1986; Kwan 2004; Kwan & McCartney, 2005; Lee, Kim, & Kang, 2003; Pizam & Pokela, 1985; Vong, 2009). Overall, the findings suggested that residents exhibited different levels of support for tourism, depending on the type and nature of tourism development. These results corroborate other researchers' empirical findings (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010).

Residents of Niagara Region generally agreed that tourism development resulted in several benefits for local people ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ , Table 4.15). In particular, employment opportunities, opportunities for local businesses, and investment in public development were the most important benefits of tourism perceived by local residents. These findings are not surprising and are the results of massive tourism-related economic development happening in Niagara Region. For example, according to Niagara Economic Development Corporation's (2009) estimates, capital spending related to tourism development is predicted to reach \$ 2.8 billion in 2016, creating 24,000 additional tourism jobs. Statistics also suggested that there were more than 2,200 companies operating in the tourism sector in Niagara Region as of June 2010 (Niagara Economic Development Corporation, 2012b). These companies are involved in the provision of a variety of tourism services such as food and drinking; accommodation; amusement, gambling

and recreation; heritage and culture; performing arts and sports; rental and leasing; scenic and sightseeing transportation; and transit and ground passenger transportation.

Findings of this study confirm existing research suggesting that the most important benefits of tourism sought by local residents are related to employment (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Liu & Var, 1986; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Tosun, 2002), development of small businesses (Davis *et al.*, 1988; Sethna & Richmond, 1978) and improvement in quality and standard of public services such as roads and infrastructure (Sethna & Richmond, 1990; Pizam, 1978). These results generally confirm the notion that tourism is an important panacea for economic development (Walpole & Goodwin, 2000) and the most important benefits communities derive from its development are of an economic nature (Akis, Peristianis, & Warner, 1996; Ritchie, 1988; Gursoy *et al.*, 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

Residents of Niagara Region also perceived tourism to result in some costs ( $\bar{x} = 3.66$ , Table 4.16). They expressed concerns regarding traffic problems, litter, and rising prices of goods and services as a result of tourism growth in the region (see Table 4.16). These findings reflect some of the concerns expressed in the wider academic literature on residents' perceptions studies (*e.g.* Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Gartner, 1987; Pizam, 1978), in published academic research on Niagara Region (*e.g.* Getz, 1992; Healy, 2006; Jayawardena, 2008), and in tourism policy documents of Niagara Region. For example, IBI's (2004) tourism policy review of the City of Niagara Falls noted that "the traffic movements are generally confusing, streets are not well defined by building edges, and pedestrian environment is lacking" (p. 11) and "the public

realm...does not provide a pleasing pedestrian environment with wide sidewalks, planting and comfortable street furniture” (p. 17).

The study’s findings suggest that although residents of Niagara Region were aware of the negative consequences of tourism development, they perceived tourism to result in more benefits ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ ) than costs ( $\bar{x} = 3.66$ ). This concurs with the notion that residents’ of a destination have mixed feelings about tourism development (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Vargas-Sanchez *et al.*, 2011; Yu *et al.*, 2011) and that community perceptions of tourism impact are varied (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004) as Andereck and Vogt (2000) argued:

The conclusion that can be made from this literature is that residents in a great diversity of communities seem positively disposed toward tourism. This does not imply that residents do not have concerns about the negative impacts of tourism either can or does have in their communities, although specific concerns vary by community” (p.28).

### **5.2.3 Group Differences in Attitudes to Local Government Actors**

As part of the preliminary statistical analysis, the study also investigated the influence of respondents’ demographic and socioeconomic characteristics on their attitudes to local government and to tourism development. Results from the *t*-tests, ANOVA (Table 4.22), and hierarchical regression analysis (Model 4, Table 4.35) suggested that demographic and socioeconomic factors were not significant predictors of trust in government actors. These findings corroborate existing studies that suggest demographic variables are not major determinants of political trust (Bennett & Bennett, 1990; Listhaug, 1998; Rose & Pettersen, 2000). Some researchers also argue that demographic variables are weak predictors of trust in government institutions especially when more important determinants such as political and economic performance of government are taken into account (Campbell, 2004; Citrin & Muste,

1999; Craig, 1996; Hetherington, 2005; Levi & Stocker, 2000; Mishler & Rose, 1997). This is because some researchers argue that perceptions of trust and mistrust are based on lived political experiences and not on social characteristics of people (Levi & Stocker, 2000).

However, the study's findings contradict some existing research that suggest people with higher education have more political trust than less educated ones (Agger, Goldstein, & Pearl, 1961; Mishler & Rose, 2001), lower-income people have less trust in government institutions (L. Li, 2004; Lineberry & Sharkansky, 1971), elderly citizens are least trusting of government (Agger *et al.*, 1961), men are more distrustful than women (L. Li, 2004; Luhiste, 2006), and individuals who have accumulated more socioeconomic, educational, and motivational resources over their life course express higher levels of trust in government than those with fewer resources (Schoon & Chen, 2011). Thus, findings regarding the influence of demographic factors on political trust are largely inconsistent, contradictory, and vary widely across societies.

Findings from Table 4.25 revealed that with the exception of gender, other demographic and socioeconomic factors were not significant determinants of perceived economic performance of government actors in tourism. Results indicated that females had more positive perceptions regarding the economic performance of government actors than males. This result can be justified by the fact that women have generally shown less interest in politics and are less willing to be directly involved in politics and in government affairs than men (Alozie, Simon, & Merrill, 2003; Attar-Schawartz & Ben-Arieh, 2012; Bernstein, 2005; Lips, 1995). Catterberg and Moreno (2005) argued that people who have limited interests in politics are more likely to be positively disposed toward government and its institutions. Thus, women's lack of interest in politics and in the functioning of tourism institutions may explain their favorable perceptions

toward the economic performance of government actors and may account for the gender difference revealed in this research.

Some interesting findings emerged regarding the influence of respondents' demographic and socioeconomic factors on their perceived political performance of government actors (see Table 4.26). Results indicated that ethnicity was a significant determinant of perceived political performance of government actors in tourism. Visible minorities expressed more positive perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism than non-minorities. There are a few plausible explanations that can justify this finding. First, because minorities are mainly immigrants who are comparatively "new" to the Canadian political system, they tend to perceive it as being better in terms of transparency, fairness, corruption, and democracy than their homeland government (Abrajano & Alvarez, 2010). It is for these reasons that some studies carried out in United States suggested that immigrants who have not yet fully assimilated into American society were positively disposed toward the government (Michelson, 2001, 2003).

Second, empirical findings of existing studies suggest that ethnic minorities have a unique political socialization (Fuligni, Tseng, & Lam, 1999; Larson, Richards, Sims, & Dworkin, 2001; Tseng, 2004) and have low levels of political knowledge and political participation compared to non-minorities (Kelley, 2009). Citizens who show less interest in politics have more positive perceptions regarding government (Catterberg & Moreno, 2005). Thus, the positive perceptions of visible minorities regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism reported in this study may be the result of their low level of

political participation and interest in politics. These latter factors also account for differences in attitudes to local government between minorities and non-minorities.

Employment in the tourism sector was also found to be a significant determinant of residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors. Results from the *t*-test indicated that respondents who worked in tourism expressed less favorable perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism than those employed outside the sector (see Table 4.26). This result may be attributed to the fact that people employed in the tourism sector and related organizations have greater knowledge about the role and functioning of government actors in tourism and are more aware of the intricacies of tourism development and planning. Thus, they may be more critical about government actors' performance in tourism because citizens' knowledge of the functioning of government institutions leads to more critical attitudes toward government, although evidences are not conclusive (Christensen & Laegreid, 2005).

Results also suggested that respondents' political party affiliation had a significant influence on their perceptions of the political performance of government actors in tourism. Supporters of the Liberal Party expressed the most positive perceptions regarding the political performance of government actors in tourism than supporters of other political parties. This can be explained by the so called "winner effect" as some political scientists argue (Anderson & LoTempio, 2002). At the time the survey was conducted, and to-date, the Liberal Party is the political party in power (in a coalition with NDP). The current Minister for Tourism, Culture, and Sports, Hon Michael Chan, is a member of Ontario Liberal Party. In addition, Hon James Bradley, Minister of the Environment, and Kim Craitor, Parliamentary Assistant to the Minister

of Tourism, Culture and Sport are Members of Provincial Parliament from Niagara Region (Legislative Assembly of Ontario, 2012). A number of studies have shown that people who voted for a political party in power have more positive attitudes toward performance and responsiveness of governments, and are generally more satisfied with political institutions than those who voted for losing parties (Anderson & LoTempio, 2002; Berlin & Lundqvist, 2012; Listhaug, 1998; Norris, 1999a). Probably, it is also for these reasons that political party affiliation of respondents had a significant influence on their perceived level of power in tourism, with supporters of Liberal party reporting the highest level of perceived power in tourism (see Table 4.27).

#### **5.2.4 Group Differences in Attitudes to Tourism**

Results from Table 4.21 suggested that gender is a significant determinant of political support for tourism. Females were less supportive of tourism development than males. This finding is line with existing studies that arrived at similar conclusions (*e.g.* Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Wang & Pfister, 2008). One possible explanation for gender differences in support for tourism is given by Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012) and Nunkoo *et al.* (2010) who drew their arguments from identity theory to explain why women are generally less supportive of tourism than men. They argued that men are usually agency-focused, emphasizing on competition, and independence, while characteristics associated with the female identity include communion-oriented, sensitivity and concern for others (*e.g.* negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism on communities). Women generally care more for society and are more aware of the consequences of environmental conditions than men (Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Stets & Biga, 2003). Thus, given that identity theory posits that individuals' act in ways that are

consistent with their identity (Hagger, Anderson, Kyriakaki, & Darking, 2007; Mannetti, Peirro, & Livi, 2004), Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012) and Nunkoo *et al.* (2010) argued that the caring and sensitive nature of women make them more susceptible to the negative consequences of tourism development on society, adversely influencing their political support for tourism.

Findings also suggested that ethnicity of respondents had a significant influence on political support for tourism development (see Table 4.21). This finding is consistent with those reported by Chen (2001), Hitchcock (1995), but contradicts those of Liu and Var (1986) and Besculides *et al.* (2002) and Husbands (1989). Political party affiliation was also found to be a significant determinant of political support. In particular, supporters of Conservative political party expressed the highest support for tourism development. This finding is congruent with those reported by political scientists who found significant association between political party affiliation/partisanship and political support for certain government policies (Hetherington & Globetti, 2002; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). Results also indicated that marital status and level of income were significant predictors of support for tourism development, confirming the findings of some researchers (*e.g.* Allen *et al.*, 1993), but contradicting others (*e.g.* Hao *et al.*, 2011; Milman & Pizam, 1988). Contrary to previous research (*e.g.* Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995; Cavus & Tanrisevdi, 2002; Tomljenovic & Faulkner, 2000; Wang & Pfister, 2008), age was not a significant determinant of political support for tourism development in the present research.

Results also suggested that demographic and socioeconomic variables (gender, ethnicity, employment, political party affiliation, age, marital status, level of education, level of income) were insignificant predictors of perceived benefits of tourism development (see Table 4.23). These results contradict those reported by Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) who found



employment in tourism, age, income, and ethnicity to be significant predictors of perceived benefits of tourism. Results from Table 4.24 indicated that with the exception of age, other demographic and socioeconomic variables were not significant determinants of perceived costs of tourism. Taken together, these findings concur with researchers' arguments that demographic and socioeconomic variables generally play a minor role in explaining residents' perceptions of the benefits and the costs of tourism development (Hao *et al.*, 2011; King, Pizam & Milman, 1993; Lui & Var, 1986; Perdue *et al.* 1987, 1990), although this seems to be an area where considerable disagreements among tourism researchers exist (Haley *et al.*, 2005; Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978).

It should be noted that some of the results of the *t*-test and ANOVA regarding the influence of demographic and socioeconomic characteristics on the dependent variables differ when these variables are entered simultaneously in a hierarchical regression equation together with other predictors of perceived benefits, perceived costs of tourism, and support for tourism. For example, while ethnicity was independently a significant predictor of political support for tourism as per the results of the *t*-test, it did not exert a significant influence on political support as indicated by the findings of the hierarchical regression analysis. Similar statistical differences in results can be noted in other studies. For example, Milman and Pizam's (1988) study revealed that while gender had a significant independent influence on support for tourism, it ceased to have a significant influence on support when it was considered simultaneously with other predictors of support. Thus, one possible explanation for the disagreement among researchers regarding the influence of socioeconomic and demographic variables on residents' attitudes to tourism relates to the different statistical techniques that have been employed as Haley *et al.* (2005) argued:

The reason for this may well lie in the limited attempts by research groups to...utilize the same methodology, and develop models which are broad enough to contain all of the potentially contributory variables. Thus, researchers can rarely state with confidence whether or not socioeconomic and demographic variables are significant indicators of distinct attitudes (p. 663).

### **5.2.5 Discussion of Hypotheses Results**

The purpose of this study was to test a conceptual model of that predicts residents' trust in government actors and political support for tourism development. As stated in Chapter 1, a number of propositions were developed and these were answered by testing empirically 12 hypotheses. Each proposition and accompanying hypotheses are re-stated below and the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis are discussed in the light of existing theoretical and empirical evidence from the existing literature.

*RP1: Residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their political support for tourism development.*

Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their political support for the sector's development.

Drawing from SET, Research Proposition 1 proposes that residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their level of political support for the sector's development. Two hypotheses (H1 and H2) were formulated to test this proposition. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 4.32) provided support for H1 that proposed a direct positive relationship between residents' perception of the benefits of tourism and their support for the

sector's development ( $\beta = .39, p < .001$ ), and for H2 that postulated a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their political support for the sector's development ( $\beta = -.14, p < .01$ ). From a theoretical perspective, these results provide support for SET that posits higher perceptions of tourism benefits are accompanied by higher level of support, while higher perceptions of costs lead to lower support for tourism development (Ap, 1992).

A closer look at the beta coefficients in Figure 4.2 suggested that perceived benefits of tourism had a stronger influence on political support than perceived cost (.39 vs. -.14). This provides support to Vargas-Sanchez *et al.* (2009) who noted that "perceptions of the positive effects of tourism is the variable that most strongly and with a direct relationship, conditions the attitudes toward the development of tourism" (p. 466). Findings are also congruent with those of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a, 2011b), Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012), Vargas-Sanchez *et al.* (2009, 2011), Gursoy *et al.* (2010), Sirakaya, Teye, and Sonmez (2002), Andereck and Vogt (2000), Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), Latkova and Vogt (2012), McGehee and Andereck (2004), and Choi and Murray (2010). However, results contradict those of Gursoy and Kendall (2006), Deccio and Baloglu (2002), Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012), Dyer *et al.* (2007), and Gursoy *et al.* (2002) who reported an insignificant relationship between perceived costs of tourism and support for its development. There are a few explanations that may explain the contradictory and inconclusive findings.

First, as argued by Allen *et al.* (1993), the types of tourism development that the above studies considered may explain the insignificant relationship between perceived costs and support. For example, Gursoy and Kendall (2006) and Deccio and Baloglu (2002) investigated

residents' support in the context of mega-events. Kim, Gursoy, and Lee (2006) argued that in the context of mega-events, local communities often ignore the negative consequences of such developments while glorifying on their benefits. Thus, this may potentially explain the insignificant relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of such events and their level of support reported by Gursoy and Kendall (2006) and Deccio and Baloglu (2002).

Second, in some destination, especially those experiencing economic decline in traditional industries such as manufacturing and agriculture, tourism is seen as an important panacea of economic development. In such destinations, residents tend to over-emphasize the benefits of tourism and undermine its costs (Liu & Var, 1986; Sheldon & Var, 1984). It is probably for this reason that Nunkoo and Ramkissoon's (2012) study on the island of Mauritius where tourism is the most important economic sector, reported an insignificant relationship between perceived costs and support. However, in the context of Niagara Region, residents are concerned with the resulting costs of tourism (as previously discussed) despite the benefits they derive from the sector. As a result, these costs adversely affected their political support for tourism development, explaining the significant relationship between the two constructs. This result is an indication that Niagara Region may have reached its carrying capacity and is in the saturation phase of development as postulated by tourist area life cycle (Butler, 1980; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009).

Third, because tourism impacts differ across different economics (Tosun, 2002) and host communities differ in terms of development and experience with tourism, development stage, carrying capacity, and problems in socio-cultural, economic, and political environments (Belisle

& Ho, 1980; Butler, 1980; Zhou & Ap, 2009), inconsistent and contradictory findings exist in the literature.

*RP2: Residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism influence their perceptions of the costs of tourism.*

Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

Research Proposition 2 proposes that residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism influence their perceptions of the costs of the sector. Accordingly, H3 that postulated a direct negative relationship between perceived benefits and perceived costs was formulated to test empirically this proposition. Findings from the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 4.34) provided support for this hypothesis ( $\beta = -.23, p < .001$ ), suggesting that residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism are not mutually exclusive. In other words, residents' perceptions regarding a category of impact are likely to influence their perceptions of other types of impacts as Gursoy *et al.* (2010) noted: "most salient perceived impact is likely to influence perceptions of all other impacts" (p. 390). In the context of the present study, the more Niagara residents perceived tourism to result in benefits, the less they were likely to perceive the sector to result in costs. This finding is consistent with Gursoy and Kendall (2006), Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), and Gursoy *et al.* (2010) whose study results suggested the existence of interactions among perceived benefits and costs of tourism.

The inverse relationship reported in the present research is also consistent with empirical studies from psychology and other established disciplines that suggest an individual's perceived

benefits and perceived costs/risks associated with an activity are negatively related (*e.g.* Alhakamil & Slovic, 1994; Fischhoff, Slovic, Lichtenstein, Read, & Combs, 1978; Siegrist & Cvetkovich, 2002; Traill *et al.*, 2006). A number of researchers have attempted to provide theoretical explanations for the inverse relationship between positive and negative perceptions. Finucane, Alhakami, Slovic, and Johnson (2000) and Alhakamil and Slovic (1994) used the concept of “halo effect”, drawn from cognitive consistency theories, to explain the inverse relationship between benefits and costs/risks associated with an activity.

Cognitive consistency theories posit that individuals operate under strong needs for consistency in beliefs (Heider, 1946; McGuire, 1968). When people perceive an activity to be beneficial, they view it as resulting in low costs or having low risks. Alhakamil and Slovic (1994) referred to this as the “halo effect” that arises because people rely on general evaluative attitude or affective states when judging the benefits and costs of an activity. For example, when a person perceives an activity as favorable (*e.g.* a resident who perceives tourism to result in more benefits than costs), he/she tends to judge its costs as low and its benefits as high, and if the individual dislikes the activity (*e.g.* a resident who perceives tourism to result in more costs than benefits), then the judgment is opposite (Finucane *et al.*, 2000). Thus, the inverse relationship between residents’ perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism reported in this study can be explained by the “halo effect” and is consistent with cognitive consistency theories.

*RP3: Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influence their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism.*

Hypothesis 4 (H4): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their perceptions of the costs of tourism.

Drawing from SET, Research Proposition 3 posits that residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism development are influenced by their perceptions of the level of power in tourism. Accordingly, two hypotheses (H4 and H5) were developed to test empirically this proposition. H4 that proposed a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism and their perceptions of the benefits of tourism was supported ( $\beta = .16, p < .01$ ) (see Table 4.33). This result is consistent with those of Kayat (2002), Madrigal (1993), Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a, 2012) whose findings suggested that residents who perceived that they had strong influence in tourism decision-making were more likely to view tourism positively compared to those who had less power. The positive relationship between perceived level of power and perceived benefits of tourism may be explained by the fact power determines an individual's ability to benefits from an exchange which in turn results in positive perceptions (Ap, 1992; Kayat, 2002). Thus, in the present research, Niagara residents who perceive themselves as powerful in tourism decision-making are also likely to gain more from tourism development and thus, they are also more likely to perceive tourism to result in benefits.

H5 that proposed a direct negative relationship between residents' perceived level of power in tourism and their perceptions of the costs of tourism was rejected ( $\beta = -.05, p > .05$ ) (see Table 4.34). This finding supports the results of Latkova and Vogt (2012), but contradicts those of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011a, 2012) who reported a significant negative relationship between the two constructs. The non-significant relationship reported in this study may be due to the influence of demographic/socio-economic variables and the perceived benefits construct that were also entered as predictors of perceived power in the hierarchical regression equation (see Table 4.34 for details). Results from the table suggested that demographic and socioeconomic variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in perceived costs, and some of them (*e.g.* income, political party affiliation, education) were significant predictors of perceived costs. In addition, entry of perceived benefits of tourism in Model 3 of the hierarchical regression changed the relationship between perceived power and perceived costs from significant ( $\beta = -.09, p < .10$ ) to non-significant ( $\beta = -.05, p > .05$ ). These findings suggest that while perceived power on its own may be a significant determinant of perceived costs of tourism, it loses its predictive power when it is considered simultaneously with other determinants of residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism development. It is probably for this reason that the present study and that of Latkova and Vogt (2012) reported an insignificant relationship between perceived power and perceived costs as both research included a number of other variables, alongside with perceived power as predictors of perceived costs of tourism.



*RP4: Residents' trust in government actors influences their political support for tourism development.*

Hypothesis 6 (H6): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' trust in government actors and their political support for the sector's development.

Research Proposition 4 draws from SET and empirical studies from political science. It proposes that residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism development influences their political support for the sector's development. Accordingly, H6 that posited a direct positive relationship between residents' trust in government actors and their political support for tourism development was developed to test empirically this research proposition. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 4.32) provided support for this hypothesis ( $\beta = .20, p < .01$ ), indicating that residents' trust in local government actors was a significant determinant of their political support for tourism. This finding is consistent with the results of the recent studies of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) and Nunkoo *et al.* (2012) which reported a significant positive association between trust in government and political support for tourism. The finding is also largely consistent with those research in political science that found a significant positive relationship between political trust and citizens' support for government policies (*e.g.* Backstrom & Edlund, 2012; Gabriel & Trudinger, 2011; Hetherington, 2004; Hetherington & Globetti, 2002; Hetherington & Husser, 2012; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). The result also corroborates those reported by organizational researchers (*e.g.* Barnard, 1958; Simon, 1947; Tyler & Degoey, 1995) who provided empirical support for the relationship between trust and workers' acceptance of decisions made by organizations.

In the present research, Niagara residents who display high levels of trust in local government are convinced that the latter will use their decisional power in an adequate manner and in the interests of the community, will behave honestly and fairly, and will act in a predictable manner, even if they are not continually scrutinized. From the perspective of local government leaders, political trust contributes to reducing transaction costs because government policy-makers need to make lower efforts to induce a trusting than distrusting public to conform to political decisions related to tourism development. However, this also means that local government actors may easily gain political support from residents who trust them, even if they choose to implement unpopular tourism policy options, although they are also likely to meet with opposition from distrusting citizens. In general, the result suggests that people need to trust local government to support its policies and strategies (Hetherington & Husser, 2012).

*RP5: Residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism influence their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 7 (H7): There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their trust in government actors.

Hypothesis 8 (H8): There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their trust in government actors.

Based on the postulates of SET, Research Proposition 5 postulates that residents' trust in government actors is influenced by their perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism. Accordingly, H7 and H8 were formulated to test empirically this proposition. H7 that proposed a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their trust in government actors was supported ( $\beta = .16, p < .001$ ) (see Table 4.35). This finding

confirms the study of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon's (2012) study that suggested perceived benefits of tourism positively influenced residents' trust in government actors. The result is also consistent with the arguments of social exchange theorists who note that when social exchange results in positive economic and social outcomes, these increase the partner's trust in each other (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Macneil, 1980; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

In the context of this study, local government in Niagara Region discharges its political obligations to local communities by providing them with tourism benefits that in turn help to foster trust among residents. In turn, residents reciprocate the good deeds of government by supporting tourism development policies, as confirmed by the results of H6 that demonstrated a significant positive relationship between trust and political support. These results suggest that political trust can develop when government actors offer incentives and benefits that encourage people to act in collaboration (Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009).

H8 that postulated a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism and their trust in government actors was rejected ( $\beta = .05, p > .05$ ) (see Table 4.35), suggesting that residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism did not significantly influence their trust in government actors. This result contradicts that of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) who reported a significant negative relationship between perceived costs of tourism and residents' trust in government actors in their study on residents of Mauritius. While contextual differences such as stage in the tourism development life cycle, types of tourism development, and cultural differences between the two study areas may explain the contradictory findings, the non-significant relationship between perceived costs and trust can also be theoretically explained.

Social exchange theorists note that presence of risks and costs in an exchange relationship may not necessarily impede trust (Blau, 1964; Ekeh, 1974; Levi-Strauss, 1969). These researchers argue that in some cases, presence of risks and costs resulting from a social exchange relationship are essential to development of trust. Institutional policies and conflict resolution mechanisms that minimize costs act as catalysts for development of political trust (Freitag & Buhlmann, 2009). Thus, it may be possible that residents of Niagara Region based their trust on the extent to which local government is able to effectively deal with the adverse consequences of tourism development. In this case, the costs of tourism on local communities serve as a basis for residents' judgment rather than impede on their trust, explaining the insignificant result reported in this study.

*RP6: Residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors influence their trust in those actors.*

Hypothesis 9 (H9) – There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the economic performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.

Hypothesis 10 (H10) - There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors and their trust in those actors.

Research Proposition 6 draws from institutional theory of political trust and proposes that residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors in tourism influence their trust in those actors. Accordingly, H9 and H10 were formulated to test empirically this research proposition. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 4.35) provided support for H9 that proposed a direct positive relationship between

residents' perceived economic performance of government actors in tourism and their trust in those actors ( $\beta = .29, p < .001$ ). These results suggest that the extent to which local government actors is perceived to be effective in using tourism to deal with economic issues influences residents' trust. Finding also provided support for H10 that postulated a direct positive relationship between perceived political performance of government actors and trust ( $\beta = .41, p < .001$ ). This result implies that the extent to which local government actors enshrine fairness, justice, incorruptibility, and transparency in tourism development as core norms of communal living has a strong bearing on trust as argued by several researchers (*e.g.* Delhey & Newton, 2005; Levi, 1998; Neller, 2008; Offe, 1999).

Findings from this study corroborate those reported by Nunkoo *et al.* (2012) whose research revealed that residents' perceptions of the economic and political performance of government actors in tourism development are significant determinants of their trust in those actors. The findings are also largely consistent with those reported by political scientists (*e.g.* Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Campbell, 2004; Catterberg & Moreno, 2005; Hetherington, 1998; Holmberg, 1999; Luhiste, 2006; Mishler & Rose, 1997, 2001, 2005; Rohrschneider & Schmitt-Beck, 2002; Wong *et al.*, 2011). While the general agreement among political science researchers and scholars is that economic and political performance of government are the primary sources of political trust (Mishler & Rose, 2001; Wong *et al.*, 2011), economic performance is generally viewed as a stronger predictor of trust (Campbell, 2004; Mishler & Rose, 2005). However, interestingly, the present study's results suggested otherwise. A closer look at the beta values reported in Table 4.35 indicated that residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors in tourism had a much stronger effect ( $\beta = .41$ ) on trust than their perceptions of the economic performance of these actors ( $\beta = .29$ ).

The difference in findings may be attributed to the particular characteristics of the tourism sector in general as well as to the politics of tourism development in Niagara Region. In several instances, governments have been criticized for adopting top-down tourism planning and decision-making (Cooper, 1995; Dredge & Jenkins, 2007; Reid & Sindiga, 1999), for imposing tourism development on local communities (Keogh, 1990), for achieving self-serving outcomes that are against the interests of local people (Bramwell, 2004; Hempel, 1999; MacLellan, 1997; Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Stabler, 1997; Wall, 1997), and for undermining and marginalizing residents in tourism development (Moscardo, 2011). A review of existing tourism policy documents on Niagara Region seems to indicate that residents are concerned regarding their under-presentation and lack of power in the tourism development process and with the unfair treatment that local government provides to them (see for *e.g.* IBI, 2004; The Premier-Ranked Tourism Destination Framework of the Niagara Region, 2005; [www.closefallsviewcasino.org](http://www.closefallsviewcasino.org)). As noted by Graveline (2011), local government also lacks a clear political mandate regarding tourism development in the region. Given that political performance of government measures the extent of residents' representativeness in tourism and the extent to which local government provides fair treatment to residents and taking into account the concerns expressed by residents of Niagara Region, it is not surprising to note that their perceptions of political performance of government actors had a very strong bearing on political trust.

*RP7: Residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism influence their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 11 (H11): *There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism development and their trust in government actors.*

Research Proposition 7 draws from institutional theory of political trust and proposes that residents' perceived level of power influences their trust in government actors. Accordingly, H11 that proposed a direct positive relationship between perceived power and trust was developed to test empirically the research proposition. Findings from the hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 4.35) indicated that residents' perceived power in tourism did not significantly influence their trust in government actors ( $\beta = .06, p > .05$ ). Therefore, H11 was rejected, contradicting the findings of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012), Nunkoo *et al.* (2012), and Oberg and Svensson (2010) who reported a significant positive relationship between power and trust.

There are a few plausible theoretical and statistical explanations that may explain the inconsistency in results and the non-significant finding reported in this study. Firstly, from a theoretical perspective, some researchers note that the effect of power on trust is context specific (Olekalns & Smith, 2006). This is probably why Oberg and Svensson (2010) argued that the relationship between power and trust is expressed with more nuances than just an obvious direct positive relationship in the existing literature. While disparities in power may influence the way in which the proceeds of trust-based cooperation are distributed, they will not necessarily prevent trust from arising (Farrell, 2004). Supporting the argument of Farrell (2004), Oberg and Svensson (2010) and Hardin (2004) noted that when an actor (*e.g.* residents) has relatively low

or no power at all vis-à-vis another actor (*e.g.* government) there is no need for trust to engage in cooperation.

Secondly, statistical issues may explain the insignificant relationship between power and trust reported in this study. Results from Table 4.30 (inter-construct correlations) suggest a significant positive correlation between perceived power and trust ( $r = .31, p > .01$ ). However, perceived power ceased to have a significant influence on trust when it was considered simultaneously in a regression equation with other predictors of political trust such as perceived economic and political performance of government actors and perceived benefits of tourism (see Table 4.35). This suggests that variables such as residents' perceptions of the political and economic performance of government actors in tourism are more important predictors of their trust than their perceptions of their level of power in tourism.

*RP8: Interpersonal trust among residents influences their trust in government actors.*

Hypothesis 12 (H12): There is a direct positive relationship between interpersonal trust and residents' trust in government actors.

The final research proposition draws from cultural theory of political trust and posits that interpersonal trust influences residents' trust in government actors. H12 that proposed a direct positive relationship between the two constructs was formulated to test empirically this research proposition. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 4.35) suggested that interpersonal trust had an insignificant influence on political trust ( $\beta = .02, p > .05$ ). H12 was therefore rejected. This finding is not surprising as it is consistent with several studies that found interpersonal trust to be a very weak determinant of political trust (*e.g.* Aberg, 2000; Campbell,



2004; Kim, 2005; Kaase, 1999; Mishler & Rose, 2001; Newton, 1999; Rohrschneider & Schmitt-Beck, 2002). However, the result goes against Putman (1993) who conceived a positive relationship between interpersonal trust and political trust and Luhiste (2006) who empirically demonstrated a significant positive relationship between the two constructs.

There are a number of well-rehearsed arguments in the political science literature that explain the insignificant relationship and inconsistent findings. Fukuyama (1999) argued that interpersonal trust is culturally determined. He noted that while a degree of trust among individuals is common in all societies and cultures, the radius of trust (*i.e.* the extent to which individuals extend their interpersonal trust to institutions) varies widely across cultures. While in some cultures citizens trust only people who they know well, in others, trust extends beyond the immediate family to include fellow citizens, but exclude political institutions. In still other societies, the radius of trust is extended to the political domain as well. In other instances, interpersonal trust has been found to negatively influence political trust (Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Campbell, 2004). Thus, it appears that interpersonal trust influences political trust only in certain circumstances, and in the context of the present research, findings suggest that interpersonal trust among Niagara Residents does not have a spill-over effect on their trust in government actors. This is because in post-industrial societies (*e.g.* Canada), the “thick” trust previously present among individuals or groups, has now been transformed into “thin” trust that is not extended to political institutions (Mishler & Rose, 2001).

### **5.2.6 Mediating Effects**

Although no formal hypotheses were originally proposed, mediating effects implied in the model of the study were tested using Baron and Kenny’s (1986) approach to mediation analysis.

Results suggested that perceived costs of tourism partially mediated the relationship between perceived benefits of tourism and political support. It was found that residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism development weakened the strength of the relationship between perceived benefits and political support. Thus, perceived benefits of tourism have a direct as well as an indirect effect (via perceived costs) on political support. This is probably because, as previously discussed, residents of Niagara Region are concerned about the adverse consequences of tourism development although they perceived a number of benefits from the sector's development. This finding is similar to that of Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012) who found residents' perceptions of the costs of tourism development to mediate the relationship between occupational identity and support for tourism. However, it is to be noted that the independent variable (occupational identity) in Nunkoo and Gursoy's (2012) study was different from the present research (perceived costs). Nevertheless, both studies confirm the importance of perceived costs of tourism as a mediator variable. This finding also lend support to the arguments Gursoy and Kendall (2006), Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), and Gursoy *et al.* (2010) who noted that there are interactions among the perceived benefits and costs of tourism.

The study findings also suggested that residents' trust in government actors partially mediated the relationship between their perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their level of political support. This suggests that perceived benefits have a direct as well as indirect effect (via trust in government actors) on political support. So far, existing research on this topic has treated political trust only as an independent or a dependent variable, and to the author's knowledge, no studies considered it as a mediator variable. Nevertheless, the study results corroborate with those of existing research that confirm the concept of "trust" in general to be an important mediator variable (*e.g.* Chou, Cheng, Huang, & Chen, 2006; DeWitt, Nguyen, &

Marshall, 2008; Frewer, Scholderer, & Bredahl, 2003; Jung & Avolio, 2000), although it should be noted that these studies have been carried out in contexts and situations that differ from the present research

### **5.2.7 Theoretical Implications**

The empirical findings of the study have some important implications that are useful for future theoretical developments in this field of academic study. The study's model was developed based on the postulates of three different theories: SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust. In so doing, the research sheds lights on a number of theoretical issues. Vargas-Sanchez *et al.* (2009) noted that “perception of the effects of tourism (both positive and negative) is the main factor that determines the attitude of the resident population toward additional tourism development” (p. 382). A similar conclusion can be drawn from the vast majority of studies on community support for tourism development (*e.g.* Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Gursoy *et al.*, 2002, 2010; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2010a, 2011b; Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002; Vargas-Sanchez *et al.*, 2009, 2011). While this research reconfirms findings of those studies, results also suggest that residents' trust in government actors is an important determinant of political support for tourism development. In fact, after controlling for demographic and socioeconomic factors and variables from institutional and cultural theories of political trust, trust in government actors emerged as the second most important predictor of political support for tourism after perceived benefits of tourism. Contrary to existing studies, perceived costs of tourism had the weakest (although statistically significant) influence on political support. These findings provide a new theoretical perspective to this area of investigation.

In addition to the above, using institutional theory of political trust, cultural theory of political trust, and SET, the study also investigated the determinants of residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism planning and development. In the light of these results, the claims of the cultural theory of political trust are discredited because of the insignificant association noted between interpersonal trust and political trust. Entry of the interpersonal trust variable in the hierarchical regression model (after controlling for demographic and socioeconomic factors) increased the  $R^2$  value by a negligible amount ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ). On the contrary, findings provided strong support for institutional theory of political trust. Entry of the perceived economic and political performance variables in the regression model increased the  $R^2$  value by 43% and these variables exerted the strongest influence on political trust.

The study found only partial support for SET as a basis for predicting trust in government actors. This is because while a significant relationship between perceived benefits of tourism and residents' trust in government was noted, perceived costs of tourism did not exert a significant influence on trust as predicted by the theory. Overall, the findings confirm the superiority and high predictive power of institutional theory of political trust compared to other theories, supporting the results of other researchers (Campbell, 2004; Mishler & Rose, 2001, 2005; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2012; Wong *et al.*, 2011).

The mediating effects tested in this study are also important for future theoretical developments in this field of study. A number of researchers have emphasized the importance of mediating variables for theoretical advancement of behavioral and social science research (*e.g.* Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hayes & Preacher, 2010; MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Rucker, Preacher, Tormola, & Petty, 2011; Shrout, & Bolger, 2002). So far, the

majority of existing studies on community support for tourism have assumed that residents' support for tourism is the result of the direct influence of their perceptions of benefits and costs of tourism development. While this supposition holds true, the study results also suggest that residents' trust in government actors and their perceptions of the costs of tourism mediate the relationships between their perceptions of the benefits of tourism and their political support for the sector's development. In doing so, the study provides interesting theoretical insights that go beyond the simple account of the bivariate cause-and-effect relationship between perceived impacts of tourism and political support by shedding light on what bridges and alters the magnitude of such causal relationships. Findings from the mediation analysis provide an understanding of the mechanisms underlying political support for tourism as Preacher and Hayes (2004) and MacKinnon and Fairchild (2009, p. 16) noted: "The promise of mediation analysis is that it can identify fundamental process underlying human behavior that are relevant across behaviors and contexts."

Overall, the study result reconfirms the fundamental role of trust in a social exchange relationship (between residents and government in this case), supporting the arguments of exchange theorists (Blau, 1964; Clark & Mills, 1979; Rousseau & Park, 1993). Thus, it is important that researchers include trust as a key variable in their study together with other determinants of community support for tourism. By making a complete use of SET and adopting its key variables to understand community support, the theoretical base of this field of study is likely to be strengthened. From a theoretical standpoint, it should also be emphasized that there is no one factor explanation for variations in people's trust in government actors involved in tourism and their level of political support for tourism development. Political trust and support for tourism is a complex mix of general perceptions about tourism impacts, images residents

hold about government, and the performance of government actors involved in the development of and planning for the sector. It is therefore important that future researchers investigating residents' trust in government actors and political support for tourism adopt different theoretical perspectives. A single theory is unlikely to provide a comprehensive understanding of and the nuances involved in political trust and political support for tourism.

### **5.2.8 Practical Implications**

Findings from this study have important implications for local government attempting to promote the sustainability of the tourism sector in Niagara Region and for officials to better understand the influences on public support for tourism initiatives or potential “hot buttons” with taxpayers. Residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism and their support for tourism have a significant influence on the sector's development (Yu *et al.*, 2011). Sirakaya *et al.* (2008) argued that local government planners and tourism policy-makers could benefit from a better understanding of residents' support for tourism development. Lankford (2001) reinforced these arguments by noting that:

Tourism impact research is (or should be) designed to provide planners with a database with which to develop a planning process aimed at addressing local concerns and issues. Specifically, the data from a community environment scan (via survey or series of meetings) become starting point in developing a citizen involvement process (which may take years) to discuss impacts, suggest mitigating strategies and to decide on the scope and density of tourism development (p. 316).

Results suggest that political support for tourism is positively related to residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism development and negatively related to their perception of the costs of development that they as taxpayers must bear. Thus, it is important that local government ensures that tourism development results in more benefits than costs for local

communities in Niagara Region. The benefits of tourism should also be distributed more equally across residents of different social spectrum and municipalities of Niagara Region. Policy-makers can make use of economic tools such as Gini-coefficient of inequality (Gini, 1912, 1914) to assess the extent of tourism inequality among the local population of Niagara Region. Based on these results, policies that ensure every segment of the population (irrespective of area of residence and social class) can take advantage of the benefits of tourism development should be implemented. This is particular important because the Premier-Ranked Tourism Destination Framework of the Niagara Region (2005) raised concerns that the benefits of tourism development are not equitably shared across the different municipalities of Niagara Region and that small cities and towns that host important tourist attractions and amenities struggle to derive benefits from the sector.

In addition to these, local tourism planners should also attempt to improve residents' awareness of the sector by emphasizing on its positive economic and socio-cultural consequences. Education and internal marketing campaigns that advocate the community benefits of tourism fuel greater support for tourism and generate positive views toward the sector among local residents (Andereck *et al.*, 2005). Improving the positive impacts of tourism is also likely to lessen perceptions of the costs of tourism because findings suggest that residents' perceptions of the benefits of tourism is negatively related to perceived costs of the sector.

Findings also suggest that residents' perception of the costs of tourism is inversely related to political support for tourism and mediates the relationship between perceived benefits and political support. In the latter case, perceived costs of tourism weaken the statistical relationship between perceived benefits and political support. Thus, it is important that local government

implements policies that mitigate the adverse consequences of tourism development. The most important costs of tourism perceived by the local community of Niagara Region are traffic and litter problems. Therefore, it is important that tourism development plans and proposals in Niagara Region include traffic and environmental management strategies. Similar recommendations have been made by IBI's (2004) tourism policy review of the City of Niagara Falls. For example, IBI (2004) recommended that "to assist in the greening of the public realm, all development and redevelopment in the tourist area will contribute to the development and improvement of public open spaces pursuant to Section 42(6) of the Planning Act" (p. 19). Such strategies are likely to mitigate the adverse consequences of tourism development and increase community support for the sector's development.

To further gain political support for tourism development from residents, local government planners can identify which group or groups of residents are likely to be less supportive of tourism development. Findings suggest that residents from different socioeconomic and demographic groups (gender, ethnicity, political party affiliation, marital status, and level of income) exhibit different levels of support for tourism development for complex reasons. Therefore, it may be useful for planners to segment residents based on these demographic and socioeconomic factors. For example, because findings suggest that female respondents are less supportive of tourism than males, planners can consider implementing gender-based tourism policies that take into account the specific needs or sensitivities of female respondents. Information on how different groups of residents respond to tourism development can assist tourism planners in developing a network of citizens who are concerned about tourism development, to be sensitive to the needs of these residents, and to develop appropriate strategies that take into account and reflect local concerns.



Findings also suggest that residents who perceive that they have more power to influence tourism are likely to view tourism development to result in more benefits for local communities. Thus, it is important that local government empower or more actively consult with local communities in tourism development to generate favorable perceptions toward the sector. This can be achieved by good faith efforts to include residents in tourism and ensure that their needs and concerns are taken into account in tourism planning. Education and training of local residents to work in the tourism sector are other important sources of local empowerment (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Wray (2011) noted that provision of and access to information is important to increase citizens' power in decision-making. Thus, residents can be further empowered if local government and tourism developers provide them with accurate information about the benefits and costs of tourism and on the tourism sector in general. Provision of information will allow residents to make meaningful decisions in tourism. At present, it seems that tourism businesses are one of the most powerful groups of stakeholders and derive most of the benefits from tourism, while residents are marginalized in the development process. Thus, it is important for local government to ensure that there is a balance of power between tourism businesses and local residents. This can be achieved by increasing local participation and may be facilitated by written and legally binding contracts between local residents and tourism investors (United Nations Commission of Sustainable Development, 1999). Local government should adopt a participatory approach to development, with the aim of making residents central to development by encouraging beneficiary involvement interventions that affect them and over which they had limited influence. Such policies are likely to empower residents in tourism and foster greater political support for the sector's development.

Results suggest that residents' trust in government actors is the second most important determinant of political support for tourism after their perception of the benefits from the sector. Gaining trust is very important because in general, citizens' trust in government in established democracies like Canada has been declining over the past decades (Belanger & Nadeau, 2005; Crête *et al.*, 2006, 2007). A number of other researchers have discussed the crisis of trust in development planning in general (*e.g.* Beierle & Konisky, 2000; Kumar & Paddison, 2000; Laurian, 2009; Swain & Tait, 2007; Talvitie, 2012), and more specifically in tourism planning and development (*e.g.* Bramwell, 2011; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011, 2012; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2012). The arguments of these researchers and scholars suggest that lack of citizens' trust in government institutions is likely to be a hindrance to a sustainable and democratic form of tourism development. Thus, it is very important for policy-makers in Niagara Region attempting to gain communities' endorsement for tourism development ensure that residents trust government actors involved in tourism planning and development.

Findings suggest that residents' perception of the political performance of government actors in tourism is the most important determinant of their trust in those actors. It is important that local government show sensitivity and consideration to residents' needs in tourism planning and development. They should refrain from engaging in policy decisions that are in the interests of powerful stakeholders at the expense of local communities. Residents' are likely to trust government actors if they are treated fairly in tourism development (Rothstein, 2000). Thus, it is important that there is a high standard of tourism leadership by local government designed to create and reinforce the centrality of public interests in tourism above the self-interest of politicians and other powerful stakeholders of the sector. This can be achieved by democratizing

the tourism sector in Niagara Region which at present seems to be controlled by elite members of the society.

Local government should also aim at achieving a more transparent and fairer tourism planning procedure that takes into account the rights of local residents of the region. It is also recommended that local authorities in Niagara Region adopt an inclusive concept of tourism development and implement a comprehensive strategy of social integration and participation where people from different social groups/backgrounds are involved in tourism planning and development. In addition to these strategies, local authorities should also root out tourism-related corruptions and put special efforts into fighting bribery and dishonesty by public officials where these are existent. Such strategies and policies are likely to improve residents' perceptions of the political performance of government actors in tourism.

Residents' perception of the economic performance of government actors is also a good predictor of their trust in those actors. Thus, it is important that local government is viewed by residents as effective in delivering economic benefits to local residents and dealing with current and future economic challenges facing Niagara Region. At present, local government lacks a clear mandate for tourism development in the region (Graveline, 2011). Thus, it is important that local government redefines its roles and responsibilities in tourism planning and development to be able to effectively deal with current and future economic challenges as Graveline (2011) recommended:

Regional government should re-state its leadership support for a revitalized regional tourism mandate and include it as an important function in the overall regional economic development structure. This mandate should come with the necessary resources and political support that will allow it to be successful in its ability to promote, advocate and facilitate Niagara's tourism growth and competitiveness (p. 5).

This objective can be achieved if local government works in collaboration with partners and stakeholders such as Niagara Economic Development Corporation and Niagara Parks Commission and utilize all means and support that are available at the provincial level, including the recently established Niagara's Regional Tourism Organization model (also known as RTO2 and the Niagara Partnership). These players are likely to strengthen the ability of local government to take full advantage of the economic opportunities in tourism and to deal with emerging challenges.

It is also important that local government educates local residents' about its economic role in tourism development to improve their knowledge of the performance its institutions. Local government should make special effort to deal with macroeconomic challenges such as poverty and unemployment and should publicize the strategies implemented to the public as this is likely to increase their confidence in local government. It may also be useful for local government to invest in tourism strategies that will provide a good material future for the community as a whole. Incentives can be provided to local residents to encourage them to set up and develop their own businesses in the tourism sector. These strategies are likely to improve economic opportunities for local people and enhance their quality of life which in turn will increase their confidence in government institutions. Government should also enhance the community benefits of tourism because findings suggest that residents' perceptions of the benefits from the sector's development positively influence their trust in government actors. Above all, it is important for local government actors to note that citizens' trust is developed over time through reliable performance and cannot be produced immediately without dialogical interactions with the public on issues affecting their lives (Nunkoo *et al.*, 2012).

### **5.2.9 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research**

Despite the theoretical and practical contributions of this study, like any other research, it is not without limitations which readers should take into account when evaluating and using its findings. First, although the study sample was generally representative of the census population, the survey method employed (online panel) may introduce some element of bias in the findings. While the superiority of online panels over other survey methods has been noted by several researchers (*e.g.* Alvarez & Beselaere, 2005; Braunsberger *et al.*, 2007 Kreuter *et al.*, 2008), some studies found considerable differences in sample characteristics and results when analyzing data collected by mail and web-based surveys such as online panels. For example, Cole's (2005) comparative study of mail and web-based surveys on leisure travel retailers revealed that web respondents mean scores across a range of Likert scale statements were consistently lower than mail respondents. Baker, Curtice, and Sparrow (2003) reported significant differences in political party affiliations between face-to-face and online respondents. Online respondents were more likely to say that would vote Liberal or Conservative than their face-to-face counterparts. Likewise, Duffy, Smith, Terhanian, and Bremer (2005) found that online respondents were more likely to have presented their views to a local councilor or MP than their counterparts in face-to-face surveys. The latter researchers attributed this difference to a more politically active online sample of respondents. Thus, readers should evaluate findings of the present study taking into account that such differences could have altered some of the results. It would be interesting if future researchers test the conceptual model of the study using responses collected from other types of survey methods to validate the research findings and to note similarities and differences in results.

Second, although the sample size used in the present study is comparable to published research on this topic (*e.g.* Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011, 2012; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2012; Vargas-Sanchez *et al.*, 2011) and satisfied the requirement for sound use of hierarchical multiple regression, the small size of the sample (391 respondents) should be mentioned as a potential limitation of the study. All other things being equal, smaller samples tend to have greater sampling error than larger samples (Cohen, 1992). This makes it less likely that any statistically significant relationships will be detected in the sample data. Thus, it is important that the model of the study is tested using larger sample sizes to confirm the study's findings.

Third, the low response rate achieved (12.5%) means that there may be potential problems related to non-response bias. Non-response bias has been a long lasting concern for researchers because it results in loss of useful information that could potentially alter conclusions of a study (Armstrong, & Overton, 1977; Etter & Perneger, 1997; Nesterkin & Ganster, in press; Sheikh & Mattingly, 1981). Non-response bias mean that results of this study may not be fully representative of everyone in the population of the study. Therefore, findings of this study may not be generalized beyond the sample examined. It is important that future researchers attempt to reduce non-response bias by providing material and non-materials incentives to individuals and by doing follow-ups to encourage people to respond to surveys.

Fourth, the ways in which some of the variables in the model have been conceptualized give rise to some limitations. The study aggregated the impacts of tourism in two categories of benefits and costs and investigated their relationships with political support. However, research indicates that the impacts of tourism is multidimensional, comprising positive and negative

economic, social, cultural, and environmental, where each category of impact has a different effect on residents' support for tourism development (Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010c; Pizam, 1978). For example, while Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) found that residents' perceptions of the social and economic benefits of tourism were positively related to support, the researchers noted an insignificant relationship between perceived cultural benefits and support and between perceived social costs and support. Thus, it is important that future research disaggregates the impacts of tourism into positive and negative economic, social, cultural, and environmental and investigates their respective relationships with support. This may increase the predictive power of future conceptual models and the amount of explained variance in political support for tourism development. Distinguishing among the different impacts of tourism will also aid researchers in understanding which category or categories of impact is/are the best predictor(s) of residents' trust in government actors.

The study also used a "generic" measure of trust and did not ask respondents to state their level of trust in specific institutions such as their local municipalities, the Regional Municipality of Niagara Region, and Niagara Parks Commission. Measurement of residents' trust was also limited to "local government" only and did not take into account residents' trust in provincial and federal governments and private stakeholders that have considerable influence in tourism planning and development in the region. Thus, it is important that future research attempts to measure residents' trust in these different government and private agencies to provide a more comprehensive analysis and understanding of residents' trust.

Linked to the above, the manner in which the “political support for tourism” construct has been operationalized may limit understanding of its relationships with perceived benefits, perceived costs, and residents’ trust in government actors. The study asked respondents to indicate their level of support for different types of tourism development in Niagara Region, but did not ask how much tourism development they perceived to be acceptable. It is possible that specification of the level of tourism development could have altered the magnitude of the proposed relationships in the model.

The study also used a single composite measure of political support for tourism. Findings of some studies (*e.g.* Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2009) suggest that it is theoretically more appropriate to understand residents’ support for mass and alternative types of tourism by creating two separate composite variables for each type of tourism development instead of considering support as a one-dimensional construct as the present research did. This is because the residents’ perceptions of the impacts of tourism may have differential effects on support for mass and alternative tourism development (Gursoy *et al.*, 2010). Distinguishing between residents’ support for alternative and mass tourism may also shed further light on the relationship between trust and political support because existing studies in political science suggest that the magnitude of the relationship between citizens’ trust and support is influenced by the types of development policies (Hetherington 2004; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). Thus, future studies should avoid considering residents’ support for tourism as a singular construct, but should instead distinguish between support for mass and alternative tourism (although these terms are subject to different interpretations and connotations). In doing so, relationships among the different constructs in the model may become clearer.



Fifth, there are some limitations with measuring citizens' perceived performance of government institutions that should be taken into account. Nye *et al.* (1997) noted that:

People say they are dissatisfied with the performance of government, and in a democracy that is one important measure. But performance is more complicated than it first appears. Performance compared with what? Expectations? The past? Other countries? Other institutions such as business or nonprofit organizations? And what are people willing to pay for government efficiency, either in dollars or other values? The founding fathers designed a governmental system that protected liberties at the price of efficiency. A federal system with separated institutions sharing powers is not designed to optimize performance. Do people want this change? Probably not. Would they if new problems like terrorism produced a "domestic Pearl Harbor"? Perhaps (p. 8).

Other researchers argue that citizens' knowledge about the roles and functioning of institutions may not always be reliable (Van de Walle, Van Roosbroek, & Bouckaert, 2008). Poor knowledge of and lack of familiarity with government may result in low standard of judgments as to the achievements and the abilities of institutions to deal with economic and political problems. In the particular context of tourism development, some researchers noted that local communities are not able to fully understand the sector and its role in economic development (Timothy, 1999). This may in turn adversely influence residents' general attitudes toward government actors involved in tourism development and planning and may result in poor evaluation of the economic and political performance of those actors. Thus, it is important that future studies attempt to develop and use more objective indicators to evaluate performance of government institutions

Finally, because the study has been carried out in a society located in an established democracy, its findings may have limited applicability to other economies. Webster *et al.* (2011) adopted O'Neil's (2007) view that there are four fundamental types of political economy (liberalism, social democracy, communism, and mercantilism), each based on a different

assumption of the relationship between the market and the state, to explain tourism development policies and processes in different economies. Corroborating Webster's *et al.*'s (2011) distinction among the different of economic systems that govern tourism development, Bramwell (2006) and Bramwell and Lane (2011) noted that roles of government in tourism development and tourism governance processes are context specific and vary across different political contexts. In economies with a less democratic form of tourism governance, partisan policies may be common and there may be less transparency and accountability in tourism development (Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 2005). For example, tourism-related corruption and rent seeking among public officials are more common in developing and less developed countries than in established democracies and developed economies (Nunkoo *et al.* 2012). Such differences in political environments and governance processes mean that findings from this study may have limited applicability to other societies. Thus, it is important that the similar research is carried out in societies operating under different political economy systems such as those operating under communist or mercantilist regimes to validate the results of this study. Testing the model in other political context may result in different conclusions about the magnitude and directions of the proposed relations in the model.

### **5.3 CONCLUSION**

Understanding residents' political support for tourism development has become an important area of research since 1980s after diffusion of the sustainable development concept in tourism studies. It is now well-recognized that residents are important stakeholders in tourism and that it is difficult to develop tourism in a sustainable way without their input and active support. This has led to a proliferation of studies that assess community support for tourism development and

the antecedents of such support. While early studies on this topic were of an atheoretical nature, researchers have increasingly made use of theories such as SET to understand the ways in which residents' respond to tourism development and the circumstances that prompt them to do so.

While on one hand use of SET has strengthened the theoretical base of and has made significant theoretical contributions to this area of research, on the other hand, some researchers have found the theory to lack predictive power in explaining residents' support for tourism and is "an incomplete structure for understanding response to tourism phenomenon by community residents" (Andereck *et al.*, p. 2005, p. 1073; Ward & Berno, 2011). This is probably because researchers have failed to consider all key variables of the theory (*e.g.* trust and power between actors) in a single framework (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2012; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2012). It is therefore important that studies make a "complete" use of SET to derive the full benefits offered by the theory and to be able to reach accurate conclusions about the predictive power of the theory in explaining political support for tourism. In addition, as advocated by some researchers (*e.g.* Andereck *et al.*, 2005), it is also important that SET is used jointly with other theories to investigate residents' support for tourism so that new perspectives on community support and its determinants can be discovered.

Prompted by the above, this study developed a model predicting residents' trust in government actors and political support for tourism development based on three different theories: SET, institutional theory of political trust, and cultural theory of political trust. SET is derived from sociology, while the latter two theories are borrowed from political science and offer contrasting views on the determinants of political trust. The model was tested using responses collected through an online panel from residents of Niagara Region. Data were

analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression which provided an understanding of the increment in the proportion of variance accounted for in the dependent variables by each independent variable (or a set of predictors).

Some of the study's findings reinforce the results of previous research on community support and citizens' trust in government in the tourism and political science literature. In addition to this, the research also provided new theoretical perspectives on the determinants political support for tourism and residents' trust in government actors involved in tourism planning and development. The key variables of SET (trust, benefits, and costs) were found to be significant determinants of political support for tourism. However, to be fully consistent with SET, residents' perceptions of their level of power in tourism should have been significantly and negatively associated with their perceptions of the costs of tourism, while their perceptions of the costs of tourism should have been a significant determinant of their trust in government actors. However, no support was found for these relationships, contradicting some of the theory's postulates.

Cultural theory of political trust was also found to not be relevant because interpersonal trust was found to be an insignificant determinant of residents' trust in government actors. In contrast, institutional theory of political trust was found to be very relevant in explaining trust, suggesting that residents' trust in local government actors involved in tourism planning and development is largely and primarily determined by the political and economic performance of those actors. These variables accounted for a large proportion of variance in political trust. However, this is not to suggest that cultural factors are unimportant in explaining political trust or that institutional variables are all that matters. While interpersonal trust was not found to be a

significant predictor of political trust in this research, it has been found to be a significant determinant of trust in other societies (Luhiste, 2006). This last finding serves as a reminder that the causal relationship between interpersonal trust and political trust is a subject of continuing dispute. Thus, rejection of cultural theory of political trust as a basis for understanding residents' trust in government actors in the context of tourism development is a bit premature. Despite the superiority of institutional theory of political over cultural theory of political trust, it is important that they are integrated together in future studies to provide a comprehensive explanation of residents' trust in government actors.

Overall, the study confirms the importance of trust as a key variable in a social exchange relationship between residents' of a destination and government actors and re-affirms its centrality in society as emphasized by several social science researchers (*e.g.* Choi & Han, 2008; Cook, 2001; Foucault, 1980, 1984; Hosking, 2008; Markova & Gillespie, 2008). The research suggests that residents' trust in government actors and their level of political support for tourism are complex issues and are determined by several factors. A single theory is unlikely to provide a comprehensive understanding of residents' trust and political support for tourism development. Based on the results of this research, future researchers are urged to avoid using a single theoretical perspective when investigating public trust and support for tourism development and planning. Adopting more than one theoretical perspective is likely to provide a broader and deeper analysis of findings, prevent premature acceptance of plausible explanations, increase confidence in developing concepts or constructs in theory development (Banik, 1993), decrease alternative explanations for a phenomenon (Mitchell, 1986), and reduce potential biases in and improve credibility of research findings (Mitchell, 1986; Shih, 1998).

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## APPENDIX 1: SURVEY INSTRUMENT



Study Details:

PhD Thesis Title:

### **Political Economy of Tourism: Residents' Power, Trust in Government, and Political Support for Development**

I am a doctoral student in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies, University of Waterloo, Canada. My thesis is supervised by Professor Stephen Smith. My research aims to understand the views and opinions of residents of Niagara Region of tourism development. The information collected will be used in my PhD thesis and the findings from the research will allow local government to develop tourism in a way that will benefit residents of the Niagara Region. Results from the study will also allow government to be more responsive to the needs of residents in tourism development. Your involvement should take approximately 15 minutes. Generally, questions will ask your level of agreement with a number of statements. The data will be collated, grouped, and analyzed in such a way that the identity of respondents will not be known. Participation is anonymous in that people are not asked for their names or any identifying information.

We would like to assure you that this study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through the Office of Research Ethics. If you have any concerns regarding your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Susan Sykes, Director, Office of Research Ethics at [ssykes@uwaterloo.ca](mailto:ssykes@uwaterloo.ca) or 519-888-4567 Ext. 36005. However, the final decision about participation is yours.

Participants should contact Robin Nunkoo or Stephen Smith at the address below if they have any questions/queries about the research or would wish to be informed of the outcome of the study.

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I would now like to invite you to participate in the survey.

SECTION A: Residents have different feelings about the various types of tourism development taking place in Niagara Region. Please indicate the type of development you would like to see in the region by indicating your level of support for each type of tourism. 1 = 'strongly oppose' and 5 = 'strongly support'.

	Strongly oppose	Oppose	Neither support nor oppose	Support	Strongly support
1. Casino development	1	2	3	4	5
2. Attractions designed for large number of tourists (e.g. theme parks)	1	2	3	4	5
3. Hotel development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Convention and meeting facilities	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B: This section measures your level of trust in local government actors involved in tourism planning and development. Indicate your level of trust with respect to each statement. 1 = 'do not trust them at all and 5 = 'trust them completely'.

	Do not trust them at all	Do not trust them very much	Neither trust them nor distrust them	Trust them a little	Trust them completely
1. How much do you trust local elected officials to make the right decisions in tourism development?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How much do you trust local government to do what is right in tourism development without you having constantly to check on them?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How much do you trust local government to look after the interests of the community in relation to tourism development?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How much do you trust tourism decisions made by local government?	1	2	3	4	5



SECTION C: This section measures your perceptions of overall positive impacts of tourism in the Niagara Region. Indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below. 1 = 'strongly disagree' and 5 = 'strongly agree'.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Tourism leads to employment opportunities for local people.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tourism creates more opportunities for local businesses.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tourism encourages more investment in public development (e.g. road development, transportation, & infrastructure).	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tourism provides incentives for the development of nature parks.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Tourism helps preserve the cultural identity of the community.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: This section measures your perceptions of the overall negative impacts of tourism in the Niagara Region. Indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below. 1 = 'strongly disagree' and 5 = 'strongly agree'.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Tourism increases traffic problems.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tourism results in more litter.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tourism increases the price of goods and services.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tourism increases environmental pollution.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: This section measures your perceptions of the effectiveness of local government in using tourism to deal with economic problems in Niagara Region. Indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below. 1 = ‘strongly disagree’ and 5 = ‘strongly agree’.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with <u>current</u> economic problems.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Local government effectively uses tourism to deal with <u>future</u> economic problems.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Local government effectively uses tourism to reduce poverty.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Local government effectively uses tourism to take advantage of current economic opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: This section measures your perceptions of the political performance of local government in tourism. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below. 1 = ‘strongly disagree’ and 5 = ‘strongly agree’.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Local government treats residents fairly in tourism development.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Local government ensures that there is an adequate representation of residents in tourism development.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Local government is responsive to the needs of residents in tourism development.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Corruption and bribe-taking are <u>uncommon</u> among local elected officials.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION G: This section measures your trust in other individuals. Indicate the level of trust you have in the following individuals. 1 = 'do not trust them at all and 5 = 'trust them completely'.

	Do not trust them at all	Do not trust them very much	Neither trust them nor distrust them	Trust them a little	Trust them completely
1. Your friends?	1	2	3	4	5
2. People in general whom you do not know?	1	2	3	4	5
3. People you meet for the first time?	1	2	3	4	5
4. People of an ethnicity different to your own?	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION H: This section measures your perceived level of influence in tourism development decision-making in your community. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below. 1 = 'strongly disagree' and 5 = 'strongly agree'

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I have some influence over tourism planning and development.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have the opportunity to participate in tourism planning and development.	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION I: ABOUT YOU**

1. Your gender (check one)			<input type="checkbox"/> Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Female
2. What is your age group? (Check one)				
<input type="checkbox"/> 18-24 years old	<input type="checkbox"/> 25-34 years old	<input type="checkbox"/> 35-44 years old		
<input type="checkbox"/> 45-54 years old	<input type="checkbox"/> 55-64 years old	<input type="checkbox"/> 65-74 years old		
<input type="checkbox"/> 75-84 years old	<input type="checkbox"/> 85 years or older			
3. Marital status (check one)				
<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Widowed	<input type="checkbox"/> Single	<input type="checkbox"/> Common-law	
<input type="checkbox"/> Divorced or separated				
4. Which of the following best describes your occupation? (check one)				
<input type="checkbox"/> Professional	<input type="checkbox"/> Business executive/owner	<input type="checkbox"/> Administrative	<input type="checkbox"/> Retail /Services	
<input type="checkbox"/> Managerial	<input type="checkbox"/> Clerical worker	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled labor	<input type="checkbox"/> Retired	<input type="checkbox"/> Unemployed
<input type="checkbox"/> Student	<input type="checkbox"/> Other _____			
5. Are you employed in the tourism industry? (check one)				
			<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
6. What is your highest level of education completed? (check one)				
<input type="checkbox"/> Less than high school	<input type="checkbox"/> High school	<input type="checkbox"/> Apprenticeship or trade certificate	<input type="checkbox"/> College	
<input type="checkbox"/> University				
7. What is the approximate annual income of your household? (check one)				
<input type="checkbox"/> Less than \$ 15,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$15,000 to \$24,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$25,000 to \$34,999		
<input type="checkbox"/> \$35,000 to \$44,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$45,000 to \$59,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$ 60,000 to \$ 79,999		
<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 to \$99,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000 or more			
8. Please select which of the following ethnic groups you most closely associate with (check one).				
<input type="checkbox"/> White	<input type="checkbox"/> Black	<input type="checkbox"/> East Asian (e.g. Chinese, Korean, Japanese)		
<input type="checkbox"/> South Asian (e.g. Pakistani, Indian, Sri Lankan, Bangladeshi)			<input type="checkbox"/> Latin American	
<input type="checkbox"/> Aboriginal	<input type="checkbox"/> Others _____			
9. With which political party you mostly associate yourself? (Check one)				
<input type="checkbox"/> Conservative	<input type="checkbox"/> Liberal	<input type="checkbox"/> NDP	<input type="checkbox"/> Green	<input type="checkbox"/> Others