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**FACTORS INFLUENCING LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM
DEVELOPMENT ON THE ISLAND OF SAINT LUCIA**

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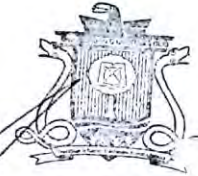
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*To my loving family who has always been my
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INTRODUCTION

RESEARCH PROBLEM

The conceptualization of community participation in tourism development has been widely supported and researched (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Li, 2006; Murphy, 1985; Simmons, 2004; Taylor, 1995; Timothy 1999). This concept has been noted for adopting its form from previous advancements in general developmental studies (Tosun, 1999), and also being particularly acknowledged for the perceived significant contribution to the sustainable development milieu (Simmons, 1994). Towards gaining an understanding of the role of the participatory approach in the tourism development domain, one possible route has been to focus on the expected benefits of this philosophy which include the facilitation of democracy and citizen's rights (Setty, 1994; Simmons, 1994), redistribution of power, providing avenues for social reform that advocate the needs of the more disadvantaged and vulnerable in society and increasing their opportunities to receive benefits derived from development through means of involvement and empowerment (Arnstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995). As such, the participatory approach towards tourism development has been cited as a functional tool than can be designed for achieving sustainable tourism development as it stimulates inclusivity of diverse stakeholders in decision-making, involvement and share of benefits in the growth and planning process of the industry (Taylor, 1995; Zhang, 1998).

While considerable consensus for the application of community participation strategies in the planning and implementation stages of the tourism development process has been noticed, developing countries have yet to effectively employ a set of approaches to their advantage, strategic or otherwise, as a means of relieving some of the difficulties within the tourism milieu. Goymen (2000) and Tosun (2006) asserted that up to the early 2000s the participatory approach in tourism development had not yet been appropriately acknowledged in the developing world compared to a dissimilar situation in developed countries where the ideology had been adopted since the 1980s.

Admittedly, while progressive strides have been achieved reflecting a more flexible and inclusive management approach in tourism development (Okazaki, 2012), the persistence of endemic structures characterized by highly centralized and closed socio-political systems, reinforced by decision makers with parallel mindsets, may well be

considered contributing factors preventing more substantive progress in community participation in the tourism industry (Tosun, 2000). This adds to further challenges in the application and practicability of the approach. While there exists the desire for more inclusivity in tourism development and planning as a means for improving the share of benefits and decision-making opportunities for marginalized groups, pending operational, social and cultural limitations pose persistent challenges (idem). Noticeably, this situation appears more dominant in developing countries.

Mitchell & Reid (2001) highlighted another area of concern by explaining that the local community continues to be an object through which tourism development is materialized but not a subject of concern which prioritizes the needs of the local people in comparison to the manner in which the needs of tourists have been prioritized. This situation, they noted, has led to the “deterioration and abandonment of many destinations, leaving local people worse off” (p. 114). It is therefore important to recognize the extent to which the local community and its residents are directly and indirectly affected by the social, economic and environmental impacts of tourism. This is of particular importance as these individuals and groups stand to be among the most affected by tourism development given that they have to live with the consequences, both positive and negative, in the short and long term (Li, 2005; Tosun, 2000). Taking all of these observations into perspective, the persistent exclusion of the local community in decision-making and planning opportunities is worrisome due to the obvious manner in which such issues are closely linked to and affect the livelihood, resource base, and interests of such individuals.

Furthermore, while it can be established that an increased participatory approach in tourism development can be beneficial and sustainable, the lack of appropriate avenues to support these objectives defeats the achievement of such goals. Furthermore, on occasions when the local community has been afforded the opportunity to engage in more collaborative efforts and decision-making in tourism planning, the lack of capacities, skills, resources and knowledge, all known to be fundamental in adding value and substance to their contribution, have negatively impacted the significance of their contributions and in turn their actual participation.

It has been realized that to expect high levels of community participation without facilitating the required provisions has contributed to failure in the achievement of projected results. To this end, it has been highlighted that paying attention to those factors that influence in facilitating or hindering community participation is relevant in order to ensure more substantive participatory behaviors in tourism development. Hung, Sirakaya & Ingram (2011) have posited that while numerous research efforts have been conducted with an emphasis on typologies of community participation, fewer research have tended to focus and clarify what they considered to be the 'means' of participation, that is, the antecedents that influence community participation and resulting behaviors in tourism development.

Consequently, Hung et al. (2011) applied the motivation, opportunity and ability (MOA) model developed by MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) in an integrative framework for determining the means and ends of participatory behaviors in tourism development. The factors influencing participation were referred to as "means" while the levels or forms of participation were considered "ends" (Hung et al., 2011). The MOA model considers that motivation, opportunity and ability reflect three antecedents that need to be available as they directly and positively influence the participation of citizens in tourism development.

Another area of concern closely related to community participation lies in the effects of poor interrelations and available linkages between the local community members and other external organizations within the public and private sectors.

Other relevant factors influencing participation have been related to residents' and community members' attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development. The fact that tourism does not only produce benefits but also costs to host communities (Jafari, 2001) has formidable effects on individuals' evaluation of tourism and their attitude towards its development (Lankford & Howard, 1994). While economic benefits tend to be a primary motivating factor driving investments and reliance on tourism (Jafari, 2001) and are known to most likely impact positively on attitudes, the prevalence of unfavorable conditions emanating from overdependence on the tourism industry, inflation and leakages (Archer & Cooper, 1998) and other forms of environmental and

social degradation reflect unfavorably and have been known to influence negatively on the attitudes of host communities.

In retrospect, the factors surrounding the poor administration of the participatory approach in tourism development by the relevant authorities (tourism planners, non-governmental organizations or governments) and the extent to which the impacts of tourism and its planning may affect the local community should be of critical concern. Thus, knowledge of the factors enabling and inhibiting residents' participation should be of paramount importance in order to ensure that destinations acquire the benefits associated with the participatory approach which do not only include assisting the local community but also contribute to overall sustainability in tourism development. Furthermore, if the goals of improving the local community and their involvement as set in the sustainable tourism development mandate are to be achieved, the current weaknesses characterized by lack of knowledge, skills and hesitation to undertake the approach, and an incapacitated citizenry should be attended to in order to facilitate an environment of support that boosts and encourages satisfactory and functional levels of participation by the local community.

JUSTIFICATION

Tourism in the Caribbean, as in the case of the island of Saint Lucia, has by most measures been a substantial economic contributor especially in the era when the trading blocs such as the North America Fair Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the European Union (EU) had created barriers for the manufacturing and agricultural industries of the small islands of the Eastern Caribbean (Pattullo, 1996). However, the Caribbean regions have grown overly dependent on the tourism industry with no viable alternatives to strengthen their economies (Duval, 2004). Consequently, the region has been faced with the inevitable impacts of an industry which is characterized by major foreign investment leading to record leakages of 20%-70% and an imbalance of trade which sees exceedingly high imports, to name a few (Pattullo, 1996).

In order to combat such occurrences or perhaps manage the effects especially on the marginalized in society, there should be a shift from the rigid and biased planning of tourism industries by the government and their elected agencies. It is noted that in developing countries such as Saint Lucia, the approach in managing the industry is done in a manner that focuses mainly on economic viability and safeguarding the interests of investors and related stakeholders while overlooking the necessity of long-term planning and policies that would support more sustainability in the tourism sector and by extension the needs of the local community and its people (Tosun & Jenkins, 1996).

Considering the extent to which the residents and the local community stand to be among the groups most affected by any decision or implementation related to the development of tourism, it is imperative that proactive action be taken to understand and protect the rights and roles of the local people in the industry's development process. It is proposed therefore that not only should planning and development be conducted in a manner that reduces negative impacts on the local community but that decision-making and planning should be carried out in a manner that takes into account and includes the hand and voice of the local people.

The relevance of this research resides on those issues surrounding the inherent factors contributing to residents' participatory behaviors and disparities in the levels of

community participation in tourism development. Insufficiencies in existing research regarding those antecedents that drive community participation in tourism development as noted by Hung et al., (2011) remain a challenging area which needs to be addressed. The subject matter of this thesis is especially relevant for Saint Lucia considering that the island exemplifies the limitations and structures relayed in the problem statement. Although there exist investigations which focus on community involvement and attitudes reproduced by the likes of Nicholas, Thapa, & Ko (2009) and Renard (2001), there is still a persistently inadequate pool of knowledge on the subject focusing particularly on Saint Lucia. This issue needs to be prioritized if improvements are to be realized in the domain of more inclusivity and local participation in tourism on the island.

Heightened levels of attention and specific allocation within sustainable tourism development discussions focus on the wellbeing of host communities and the achievement of correlating goals in an effort to enhance the concerns of the local people who stand to be affected by developmental initiatives. The emphasis on gaining insight on those antecedents affecting local community participation potentially seeks to strengthen the social dimension of sustainable development, which traditionally has stood out to be a weak area of concentration in sustainable development approaches generally. As it relates to tourism development, this standpoint ultimately advocates that the local people's voice be heard through means of empowerment and the provision of the necessary resources which may include stimulating motivation, making opportunities available and strengthen residents' capacities to contribute in development. Towards achieving these goals, it is necessary to know the value of each of the antecedents mentioned in the MOA levels and the role they play in affecting residents' participatory behaviors in the tourism development and planning process.

A review of research revealed very few investigations which focused on the application of local community participatory tourism behaviors in Small Island Developing States (SIDSs) such as Saint Lucia. In order to effect appropriate corrective measures capable of improving inclusivity in decision making and participation levels of the local community on destinations, site and subject specific investigative efforts must be

undertaken. That is, investigations with the objective of unveiling issues related to the manner in which tourism development has been perceived by the local community, the preexisting attitudes of those affected, the willingness of the local population to get involved in developmental programs, taking into account a precise assessment of individuals' capacity to contribute in developmental programs and measuring those motivational factors driving their participatory behaviors. The numerous assessments provided by generalized research has by most measures added considerable scope for comprehension and action towards the implementation of strategies that are capable of achieving some degree of change in the participation levels of the local community. However, regarding the consideration of the above mentioned issues related to tourism development, more site specific studies are needed in order to fine-tune strategies inherent to the developmental atmosphere of localities such as Saint Lucia and other SIDSs with similar socioeconomic and political environments.

Towards achieving the goals of generating a valuable literary production and building on the body of knowledge associated with tourism development and sustainability research, appropriate theories are used to justify the assumptions made by the author on the subject matter of community participation and involvement of local communities in tourism development. This is accomplished through the manipulation of the above mentioned MOA model by MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) and Ajzen's (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) which are integrated in a manner that explains citizens' participatory behaviors in tourism development by highlighting the factors which affect these residents' intention to participate and actual involvement. It is expected that the findings in this research effort will impact not only the island of Saint Lucia but also other islands in the Caribbean region such as Saint Kitts, Barbados, Antigua, Grenada, to name a few.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

While the inclusive approach defining community participation in tourism development has been encouraged as a viable alternative to traditional top-bottom centralized forms

of management within the industry, it has been noted that the satisfactory achievement of this objective has yet to be actualized, particularly in developing countries (Tosun, 2000). In order for the realization of this goal, the identification of relevant factors that stand to influence individuals' capacity and intentions to actually involve themselves in their locality's tourism planning is essential. To this end, the following research questions are proposed:

1. To what extent does motivation to participate influence community participation in tourism development?
2. To what extent does opportunity to participate influence community participation in tourism development?
3. To what extent does ability to participate influence community participation in tourism development?
4. To what extent does motivation to participate influence residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development?
5. To what extent does opportunity to participate influence residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development?
6. To what extent does ability to participate influence residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development?
7. To what extent do residents' attitudes toward sustainable tourism development influence behavioral intentions?
8. To what extent do behavioral intentions influence community participation?

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

General Objective

To substantiate a theoretical and conceptual framework that seeks to foster a feasibly empirical understanding of the direct and indirect relationships integrating residents' motivation, opportunity and ability to participate, and their attitudes towards sustainable

tourism development as factors contributing to community participation in tourism development on the island of Saint Lucia.

Specific objectives

1. To determine and explain the level of influence of motivation to participate on attitudes toward sustainable tourism development.
2. To determine and explain the level of influence of opportunity to participate on attitudes towards sustainable tourism development.
3. To determine and explain the level of influence of ability to participate on attitudes toward sustainable tourism development.
4. To determine and explain the level of influence of motivation to participate on community participation in tourism development.
5. To determine and explain the level of influence of opportunity to participate on community participation in tourism development.
6. To determine and explain the level of influence of ability to participate on community participation in tourism development.
7. To determine and to explain the level of influence of attitudes towards sustainable tourism development on behavioral intentions.
8. To determine and to explain the level of influence of behavioral intentions on community participation in tourism development.

EXPECTED CONTRIBUTIONS

Academic Contribution

The field of research associated with community participation has developed over time with scholars building on diverse areas of interest including power distribution (Arnstein, 1969; Okazaki, 1998), achievement limitations (Tosun, 2000) and typologies of community participation (Pretty, 1995; Selin, 1999; Tosun, 1999), with Selin, Tosun and

Okazaki specifically focusing attention on tourism development and planning. This research intends on contributing to the basket of philosophies and concepts that aim to provide an understanding of the functionality of community participation in tourism development by drawing attention specifically to the antecedents affecting citizen's participatory behaviors. This approach has been previously studied by few scholars including Hung et al. (2011), Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar & Barghi (2017) and Jepson, Clarke & Ragsdell (2014). Following the mandate of quantitative research, this thesis builds on the aforementioned investigative works with the expectation that the conclusive findings will further strengthen and provide credence to the academic resource core pertaining to participatory studies in tourism development, particularly in the case of developing countries and SIDS.

This production further contributes not only to current literature but also to the future of the academic environment by forging a direct and significant relationship among the concepts of community participatory behavior, the antecedents of the MOA model and residents' attitudes. Such an integration of ideologies is relatively scarce, especially in the case of underdeveloped countries. Not only will this relatively novel cluster of concepts add value to tourism journals and data bases, but additionally, the application of these ideologies in the location of Saint Lucia will be of paramount utility, broadening knowledge on the operationalization of inclusive participation in SIDS.

Managerial Contribution

A principal objective of this research endeavor is to make available an assessment of locals' actual community participation in development of tourism. Such knowledge would be made available to tourism planners and agencies in order to improve their decision-making and initiatives towards the implementation of more inclusivity and collaboration between themselves and the local people. Through an examination of the critical factors proposed by the MOA model, varying levels of available motivation, opportunities and abilities to participate in tourism development represent essential information which tourism planners may manipulate in order to facilitate necessary participation levels. Likewise knowledge of residents' attitudes can be very useful to

planners. The aim therefore is to equip planners with pertinent knowledge concerning those elements which should be improved in order to achieve requisite local participation in tourism development and by extension gaining the benefits that are inherent to this approach.

While the majority of scholars have focused on the typologies of participation or what Hung et al., (2011) have dubbed the ends of participation in tourism development, this research has taken somewhat of alternative route. By analyzing the antecedents which influence community participation, planners are expected to be better informed as the manner in which the local community may be influenced towards various levels or 'ends' of participation, putting them in a better position to implement appropriate typologies of participation.

Social Contribution

The considerable attention given to community participation in this thesis is expected to impact the planning approaches undertaken in the tourism industry. The changes and improvements associated with the implementation of participatory strategies are expected to contribute positive social changes and impacts to the local community and the role citizens play in the tourism development process. Arnstein highlighted a major advantage of participation as facilitating the redistribution of power which acts as a catalyst to social change that enables the have-nots or disadvantaged "to share in the benefits of the affluent society" (1969, p. 216).

The examination of elements affecting local participatory behaviors can therefore be used by tourism planners, agencies and governing bodies to strategically manage the involvement of the local people in tourism related initiatives. Awareness of existing negative attitudes toward tourism development or recognition of particular low levels of motivation, opportunities or abilities to participate provide planners with vital tools which may be utilized in the enforcement of policies and protocols which encourage such participation.

Investigations aligned with improving the local people's voice in development have been associated with the sustainable development goals and mandate. The aim of this research has at its core the consideration of all stakeholders who stand to be affected by tourism planning and development, making particular mention of individuals traditionally excluded from the development process. This focus according to Choi & Sirakaya (2005) is the foundation of the sustainability paradigm.

The development of tourism in any locality has profound impacts, both positive and negative on the economic, social, and environmental bearings of society and it is for this reason that the local people should not be excluded in decision-making and plans that affect their livelihoods. Consequently, ensuring that the local people are included in tourism planning, administration and development through appropriate avenues is of paramount importance. Not only does this stance promote the concept of sustainable tourism but in addition this philosophy fundamentally reinforces the principle of democracy (*idem*).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The proposed research will be undertaken on the island of Saint Lucia through the management of a cross-sectional quantitative methodology. Cited as a viable method by Nykiel (2007), the quantitative approach has been chosen as an appropriate means for answering the research questions and testing the recommended hypotheses. As an advantage, the quantitative approach allows for the collection and analysis of large quantities of data in a more efficient fashion than that of qualitative approaches (John & Lee-Ross, 1998) and is capable of measuring the relationships between proposed variables. Another relevant benefit for this particular choice is related to its ability to reproduce statistically reliable results.

Following the guidelines of explanatory research designs, this investigation is intended to utilize previously established phenomena and findings related to the field of participation in tourism development and its impact on the local community. The use of secondary data plays a pivotal role in this investigation and acts as the basis governing

the literature review accumulated through rigorous examination and analysis of data. The wealth of information is useful in providing a substantially theoretic understanding and appropriate interrelationships of each variable in this study. Accordingly, an appraisal of preexisting literature will be conducted via official data sources, books, and data bases such as Research Gates, Scopus, Science Direct, Redalyc, Dialnet, and Google Scholar. These stand to be essential contributors in the assembling of references strengthening the theoretic core of the research.

As it relates to the fieldwork, questionnaires will be administered within the district of Gros Islet, a major tourism hub in the northernmost part on the island of Saint Lucia. Using this proportion of the population, a nonprobability stratified random sample will be selected considering three types of local people: those who are employed within the tourism industry, those who are employed but not in tourism and thirdly, unemployed residents. The questionnaire serves to measure motivation, opportunity and ability to participate, residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development, intention to participate and residents' actual participation in the development of tourism. In order to evaluate the above variables, a questionnaire was constructed and constituted by a selection of previously measured items which resulted in satisfactory factor loadings, reliability and construct validity.

The chosen items for measuring motivation, opportunity and ability to participate; actual participation and intentions to participate are adapted from the work of Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017). Resident' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development are measured following the items assessed by Yu, Chancellor & Cole (2011). A 7-point Likert scale was used to evaluation respondents levels of agreement of the 69 proposed statement questions. In addition questions aimed at acquiring information pertaining to respondents' demographic and background information are also included.

The analysis of the data collected is processed through the SPSS program for preliminary reliability testing. Subsequently, the EQS 6.3 program is used to conduct Structural Equation Modelling for validating the measurement and structural model through confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis.

Chapter 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

1.1.1 History and Antecedents of Community Participation

The concept of community participation in the development process is one that has been approached by multiple disciplines dating back from its popularization in the 1950s (Chowdhury, 1996; de Kadt, 1982; Gow & Vansant, 1983). Midgley (1986), a pioneer in the field attributed its origin and historical antecedents to Western ideologies and political theories, the Third World community development movement during the 1950s and 1960s and Western social work and community radicalism. Acknowledging Midgley's evaluation, Tosun (2004) further contributed that the notion of community participation emerged as a derivative of political science and is concerned with democratic theories encompassed by political activity, civic duty and individual rights. While the political arena may have had a significant part to play in the participatory approach, the concept is representative of a multidimensional field, having extended its reach into wide ranges of societal and economic realms (Idem).

By the 1970s, more meaningful attention had been drawn towards the necessity for significant changes in the approaches undertaken in development and corresponding mindset of practitioners and scholars. This prompted a shift from models of development that focused exclusively on the roles played by executives and physical development to approaches that were more 'people-centered', and as a result, development underwent a transition in its conceptualization which was complimented by newly appropriated catchphrases such as "alternative development", "counter-development", "people-centered development" and "participatory development" (Kahssay & Oakley, 1999).

It is suggested that the emergence of participatory models and theories were characteristic of two schools of thought. According to Oakley, one assumption ascertained that the direction of the developmental process was not entirely problematic but rather the problem was attributed to failures in the attempt at explaining the philosophy that had at the time seemed to be accumulating momentum in the body of

literature of development. Oakley (1989) connected the failures to the lack of 'human element' in the developmental process and the fact that people were scarcely motivated to get involved in projects for which they felt were of little value to them and possessed little information of. On the contrary, the second school of thought perceived the direction of such developmental approaches to be flawed and related existing deficiencies and failure as being aligned with the manner in which people had been left out of the development equation as they were viewed as mere passive recipients instead of active participants in developmental initiatives.

By the 1980s and 1990s, significant advances had been made towards research, implementation and acknowledgement of the ideology perceived as community participation in the developed world, although it was noted that not much success had been equally achieved in developing countries (Tosun, 2004).

A prevalent factor noted as giving rise to the necessity for community participation has been related to the negative impacts of development on the poor and marginalized in society (Holcombe, 1995). Consequently, it was conceded that these groups which were commonly excluded from planning, decision-making and implementation of development processes have as a result been subjected to continuous suffering. From another viewpoint, the cultivation of participatory procedures was linked to the need for more alternative methods to traditional top-down approaches of development (Kelly, 2001; Chambers, 1995). The failures of rigid and exclusive forms of development also acted as a catalyst to decentralization (Conyers, 1983; Guzman, 1988) or redistribution of power (Arnstein, 1969), which may be view as techniques facilitating transfer of authority from upper level government and/or private organizations to lower level hierarchy or local institutions, individuals or groups.

1.1.2 The Nature and Role of Community Participation in Development

While the concept of participation has been recognized as a missing link to success in development strategies, its contextual and methodological approaches have varied across institutions and fields of research and practice. The proliferation of research

efforts, formal and informal discourses with particular focus on the perspectives of participation have strengthened over the years and have validated the concepts' implementation and acceptance into mainstream development globally (Morgan, 2001).

Admittedly, the role of 'community' is germane to the comprehension of that which has been dubbed community participation. Although generally it has been acknowledged that 'community' should not be perceived as characteristically homogenous or monolithic (Morgan, 2001), in the context of development reference of the notion is centered on "shared purpose and common goals" although most commonly perceived as being "geographical in nature" (Joppe, 1996, p. 475). A perception also held by Gusfield (1975) who supported the concept as being relational and geographical or territorial by nature.

The World Tourism Organization(WTO) (WTO, 2002) proposed a brief understanding of participation as having to do with involvement in life situations with the purpose of executing some form of action or plan which further defined by the World Bank in a more profound manner:

Participation is a continuum along which the poor are progressively empowered. On one end of this continuum, the poor may be viewed as beneficiaries – recipients of services, resources, and development interventions. In this context, community organizing to participate in development to share the benefit, training and One Way flows of resources and information through government are often appropriate [...] As the capacity of poor people is strengthened and their voices begin to be heard, they become "clients" who are capable of demanding and paying for goods and services provided by government and private development sectors. Under this changed circumstance, their needs may also change as well – the poor people may have more confidence and resources to ask to be better "heard" in initiating the development activities. When the poor people further strengthen their capacity and they reach the far end of the continuum when these clients ultimately become part of the owners and managers of the development activities, the previous poor people then obtain the highest level of participation. (World Bank, 1996, p. 8)

Towards achieving success in the operationalization and application of community participation, the role and influence of stakeholders are to contribute to the initiation of supportive policies and planning, fostering environments that are conducive to the achievement of objectives and/or ends of the approach. As Such, the World Bank (1996) places specific responsibility on stakeholders by putting forth a definition of participation as “a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them” (p. 3).

Fundamental objectives of community participation have been guided on the basis of a greater share of benefits and decision-making in development (Li, 2006). From its inception the undertaking was developed as an avenue for improving and capacitating the socioeconomic positions of the poor and disadvantaged in society, emphasizing the underlying deterioration of those individuals and groups and working towards providing them with a voice and a part to play in the development process of their localities. The validation of this rationale has been legitimized by the actuality that not only was a more inclusive approach a democratic right (Tosun, 2004) but that the local community and marginalized in society should be afforded the opportunity to contribute to matters that directly and indirectly impacted their livelihood and based on the fact that they stand to be among the groups most affected by development impacts (Tosun, 2000). Nelson & Wright further surmised that such inclusivity could also act as a means “to accomplish the aims of a project more efficiently, effectively, or cheaply” (1995, p. 1).

Sanoff proposes the objective of community participation as being “modestly defined to include information exchange, conflict resolution and supplementation of planning and design” (2000, p. 9). To be precise, elevated levels of participation of the local community enables the local people to be more actively involved in development which invariably increases their knowledge of tourism operations and provides opportunities for decision-making; a situation which according to Sanoff (2000) could positively impact the local community and projects alike by building solidarity and influencing support for developmental initiatives and plans.

1.1.3 Community Participation in Tourism Development

Strides in the application of participatory development methodologies have been productive in healthcare (Butler & Khavarpour, 1999; Kahssay & Oakley, 1999; WHO, 2002), agriculture (Chowdhury, 1996; Pretty, 1994) and environmental studies (Baral & Heinen, 2007). Evidently, the emergence of community participation in tourism development had borrowed its form from the preexisting milieu from as far back as the 1970s (Murphy, 1985; Tosun, 2000).

The contention is that while tourism has contributed towards the enhancement of the local community noticeably through the provision of income securities, the majority of the such benefits accumulated from tourism operations have experienced considerable leakage out of destinations, and to add further damage, the local community traditionally has at their disposal minimal power and decision-making influence to remedy their demise in this regard (Mitchell & Reid, 2001). It is based on such premises that a participatory approach to tourism development has been advocated, as a means empowering the local people to have a voice and take action in development that directly and indirectly impacts their livelihood (Murphy, 1985; Tosun & Timothy, 2003).

Although the approach has amassed considerable consensus for its capability to contribute to long-term and essential degrees of success and sustainability in the industry, scholars in the field of tourism development have yet to achieve unanimity on matters surrounding the ideology's definition, application and typologies of community participation, (Li, 2006; Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). As a result, researchers have tended to proposition the role and extent of participatory tourism development based on their perceptions and other subjective influences, which generally are seen as following at least two perspectives: participation in decision-making and participation in benefit sharing (Li, 2006; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000).

Inclusive decision-making remains at the core of participatory methodologies due to the interrelatedness within various sectors on destinations and the associated impacts that invariably affected the livelihood and environments of the host community and residents who are dependent economically and socio-culturally on resources utilized. As such,

participation in the form of inclusive decision-making enables the local community to better manage the impacts of tourism development (Li, 2006). To enable such conditions whereby decision-making powers become more decentralized, that is, moving away from more traditional centrality, the creation of functional liaisons between governments and other private institutions and the local communities has been solicited (Murphy, 1992) and is of paramount importance to sustaining the tourism industry.

Consequently, the participatory approach advocates for empowerment and integrative measures that strengthen the “ability of a community to `take charge' of its development goals on an equitable basis” (Mitchell, 1998, p. 2). While the adoption of such participatory techniques calls for somewhat of an alternative method in tourism development, Simmons (1994) reiterated that people have a democratic right to participate in development and planning. In addition, Tosun & Timothy (2003) noted that the local community possesses a keen understanding of the operations within their localities, and such expertise remains invaluable to tourism projects and initiatives. Furthermore, involvement of the local people encourages a deeper understanding and knowledge of tourism benefits, plans and initiatives which in turn may promote increased levels of support for tourism plans and implementations (Lee, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Cole, 2006; Simmons, 1994).

While tourism planners and authorities possess invaluable expertise in promoting destinations and driving tourism activities in host communities, when undertaking planning and project implementations, it is relevant that they consult and include the local voices in order to obtain first hand understanding of the thoughts and sentiments of the locals (Murphy, 1985). In essence, this view highlights the need to move away from the trend of thought that external agencies are more knowledgeable of the needs and opinions of the host community.

On the other hand, drawing attention to community participation perspectives that concentrate on benefit sharing, it is perceived that the role of “open” and “inclusive” participatory development in tourism cannot be understated and neither should its facility in sustainably and efficiently achieving benefits (Höckert, 2009). Generally, it has been deduced that the most significant and direct benefits accrued to the local people

have been of an economic nature, more specifically from income generation and employment (Li, 2006). While participation in employment has significantly contributed to host communities, the involvement of the local community in tourism development can contribute copiously to the achievement of other forms of benefits that exceed the income aspect.

Ross & Wall (1999) proposed that involving and engaging the local community in planning and development may influence the level of benefits experienced within their locality by decreasing leakages. They further explain that involvement by the local people develops cohesion and supportive attitudes towards environmental protection and conservation that can be translated into additional benefits within the host destination. The local community also stands to gain from participatory measures as there is a greater appreciation for culture and heritage and people feel a sense of pride for successes in the tourism industry owing to the feeling that they contributed in some way or form (Ross & Wall, 1999). Furthermore, the involvement of the local community influences the accomplishment of collective rather than individualistic benefits, broadening the scope of those who stand gain (Idem).

1.1.4 Typologies of Community Participation in Tourism Development

Although the practicality of the theory's application in the industry's planning and implementation process has somewhat been challenging (Godson, 2003), distinguishing propositions from literature concentrating on participatory tourism development have alluded to the possibility of a myriad of benefits being realized from embarking on such a direction and exploring its necessity to development (Cole, 2006; France, 1998; Selin, 1999; Tosun, 2000, 2006). Meanwhile it is worth taking note of Mitchell & Reid's (2001) claim that "While scholars, entrepreneurs, and practitioners are beginning to understand the need for placing greater emphasis on community empowerment in tourism planning and implementation, little work has been done on the details of execution" (p. 114). Additionally, underlying concerns have been resonated in the recognition of the nonexistence of one proposed participatory model that is capable of having general

applicability in tourism development (Simmons, 1994); that is to say, one model with applicable relevance across diverse localities and development stages, illustrating and guiding procedures that would categorically achieve success in the goals set by the approach.

It has been recommended however that “community participation in the tourism development process should not be regarded as fitting within a rigid framework” (Tosun, 1999, p. 2). However, due to the sociocultural, political, environmental and economic multidimensionality of destinations and the manner in which tourism planning is undertaken, the consideration and implementation of such participatory approaches should by character be an “adaptive and flexible paradigm” (Idem). Selin (1999) added to this reflection by recommending that depending on the time and geographic locations, applicable dimensions of partnerships in tourism development may vary or be comparable. Therefore, based on an analysis of such postulations one can conclude that the nature of the factors involved in tourism development does not permit for a one size fits all approach when undertaking such participatory ventures in the tourism milieu.

The recognition and application of community participation has been characterized by a continuum which obtains various rungs or levels of participation (Hung et al., 2011; Tosun, 1999; World Bank, 1996), popularly referred to in literature as a ladder (Choguill, 1996) or a “typology of participation” (Arnstein 1969; Pretty 1995; Tosun 1999). Moreover, the reference of such typologies are constituted by ranging levels or stages that define the expected “outcomes or the end products of participation” (Hung et. al., 2011), a feature that according to Tosun (1999) enables the approach to be viewed as a categorical term that functions as a guideline for achieving the warranted forms of participation.

Arnstein’s (1969) ‘Ladder of Citizen Participation’ has been very influential in providing a foundation for the concept and approach of participation in development and has been referenced as one of the best attempts at conceptualizing participation (Choguill, 1996; Cornwall, 2008; Tritter & McCallum, 2006). Arnstein indicated that the objective of citizen participation concentrates on power redistribution as a prerequisite to enabling the ‘have-nots’ to be more included in decision-making and planning in development,

thereby improving the levels of information and benefit sharing privy to such individuals in economic and political processes.

The typology proposed by Arnstein consists of eight rungs which depict citizen involvement in ascending order and is also subdivided into three categories (see Table 1.1). At the base of the ladder she identifies the (1) Manipulation and (2) Therapy levels which form the ‘Non-participation’ category which is characterized by an artificial sense of participation that does not genuinely provide avenues to initiate and/or increase involvement of the ‘have-nots’ in development, but rather facilitates the motives of “power-holders” to “educate and cure” their marginalized counterparts (1969, p. 217). Arnstein’s middle category features degrees of ‘tokenism’ and comprises three levels: (3) Informing, (4) Consultation and (5) Placation which essentially provides opportunities via which citizens can voice their concerns and be made more aware of planning and project initiatives. At the fifth level, the public opinion and influence are distinctively improved; however, this rung is still representative of tokenism as citizens still lack the power to sincerely influence decisions.

Table 1.1 Arnstein's Ladder of Citizens Participation

Degree of Citizen Power	Degrees of Tokenism	Nonparticipation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizen Control • Delegated Power • Partnership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Placation • Consultation • Informing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Therapy • Manipulation

Source: Adapted from Arnstein (1969)

Arnstein advocated for ‘citizen power’ which is epitomized at the top of the ladder by levels of (6) Partnership, (7) Delegated Power and (8) Citizen Control. In this category typically marginalized citizens are more involved in the decision-making process, possessing power to do more than simply articulating concerns and opinions. At this level, citizens are capable of actively partnering and negotiating with the power-holders.

At the seventh and eighth rungs, citizens form the majority of decision makers or possess “full managerial power” of planning activities (Idem).

Pretty (1995) developed a similar model to that reproduced by Arnstein but developed the typology specifically for the Agricultural sector. Possessing seven rungs, the ‘Manipulation’ level represented the bottommost rung and ascending to its highest ‘Self-mobilization’. The typology’s starting point illustrates low and passive participation extending to the upper rungs where control and decision-making are shifted to those who are traditionally excluded from the planning and development process.

The work of Arnstein and Pretty as seen above has paved the way for a more industry-specific approach to participatory tourism development. As has been previously noted, there is yet to be one typology within which its application and relevance has proved successful across all industries or geographic locations (Simmons, 1994), although the research and contributions conducted in general development studies and other more specific fields play a consequential role in the development of typologies that seek to be exclusively define community participation tourism. Tosun recognized that “a re-connection with participation theories is still not satisfactory” and alluded that although prominent productions on the topic in question have been made available, the isolation between the participatory tourism approach and that of general development somewhat detracts from further strengthening the former (1999, p. 11).

France (1998), Selin (1999) and Tosun (1999; 2006) are among the researchers who have dedicated their work specifically towards a typology that is built for the field of tourism development. Tosun proposed a model similar to that of Morgan (1993) which encompassed three levels: spontaneous, induced and coercive participation for which Tosun acknowledged that the appropriate use of either of these levels is dependent on the destination in which it will be applied taking into consideration attributes pertaining to its stage of development, sociocultural, political and economic factors.

Notably, the three broad categories depicted in Tosun’s model also consider the possibility of being aligned with several other forms of community participation and also encapsulate the postulations of Arnstein (1969) and Pretty (1995) (as seen in Table

1.2). Identifiable by minimum levels of participation by citizens are induced and coercive forms of participation which although are different may occasionally be indistinguishable. Coercive participation according to Tosun (1999; 2006) is at the extreme bottom of the ladder and exemplifies “manipulative and contrived” forms which are utilized to accomplish the motives of the tourism planners as opposed to being used as a means of realizing the needs of the local community and its citizens (Zhang, Cole & Chancellor, 2013). At this stage, the local people possess little power or decision-making control over the development process. Therefore, coercive forms serve merely to inform the local community of those tourism initiatives that have already been planned with the main aim of subtly managing the possibility of opposition towards development schemes (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017); hence the reasoning behind coercive methods being parallel to manipulative and passive forms.

A step higher, Tosun situated induced participation which exemplifies levels of tokenism as described by Arnstein (1969), and functional participation, participation for material incentives and consultation by Pretty (1995). At this stage citizens are engaged and may offer their viewpoints; positive and/or negative as they see fit, although as Tosun noted “they do not have power to insure that their views will be taken into account by other powerful interest groups such as government bodies, multinational companies, international tour operators, etc.” (2006, p. 495).

Similar to the coercive method, induced participation employs a top-down style, with decision-making concentrated in the hands of the local governments and planning authorities who in the end are the ones who will decide whether to accept or reject the opinions and recommendations of the local people (Zhang et al., 2013). Tosun (1999) declares this to be the most common form of participation undertaken in developing countries.

Table 1.2 Normative Typologies of Community Participation

	Arnstein’s (1969) typology of community participation	Pretty’s typology of community participation	Tosun’s (1999) typology of community participation
Degrees of Citizen power	8. Citizen control	7. Self-mobilization	<u>Spontaneous Participation</u>
	7. Delegated power	6. Interpretative participation	Bottom-up; active participation direct participation; participation in decision making, authentic participation; self-planning;
	6. Partnership		
Degrees of Tokenism	5. Placation	5. Functional participation	<u>Induced Participation</u>
	4. Consultation	4. Participation for material incentives	Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; degree of tokenism, manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
	3. Informing	3. Participation by consultation	
Non-participation	2. Therapy	2. Passive participation	<u>Coercive Participation</u>
	1. Manipulation	1. Manipulative participation	Top-down, passive; mostly indirect, formal; participation in implementation, but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; paternalism, non-participation, high degree of tokenism and manipulation.

Source: Adapted from Tosun (2006)

Positioned at the top of his model and inheriting the highest level of citizen involvement, Tosun sited spontaneous participation as equivalent to Arnstein’s degrees of citizen power and Pretty’s self-mobilization. At this rung, citizens and host communities retain the ultimate responsibility and authority to guide and direct development processes and planning without external interferences from government or private corporations. Such an approach has been identified as a channel to fosters economic, psychological, political and social empowerment (Zhang et al., 2013); and to “generate trust,

ownership, and social capital among residents” (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017, p. 144); and may also influence an atmosphere of consensus building (Innes, 2004) that may positively impact the host destination’s tourism industry and by large its society by alleviating some of the social and political difficulties.

1.1.5 Limitations of the Participatory Approach to Tourism Planning in Developing Countries

The favorability towards undertaking greater community involvement in development and the popularization of this phenomenon specifically in tourism development has been vastly supported and viewed as a paradigm capable of contributing to and maintaining an environment of sustainability (Cole, 2006; Inskip 1994; Joppe 1996; Okazaki, 2008). This seeks to ensure that all stakeholders involved in and affected by the operation and delivery of tourism on destinations have the opportunity to contribute to development (Jamal & Getz, 1995), paying particular interest in promoting the inclusion of the typically excluded local community and its residents in tourism planning and development.

Investigative efforts pertaining to participatory tourism methods presented by scholars such as Murphy (1985), Reed (1997) and Simmons (1994) have been largely influenced by the underlying conditions prevalent in developed countries. Tosun (2006) purported that while the participatory tourism development approach had been employed in the developed world since the 1980s such an occurrence had failed to materialize in the developing world in the early 2000s. In the context of putting into effect the principles of participatory tourism specifically in developing countries, Tosun (2000) captioned operational, structural and cultural limitations (Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005; Marzuki & Hay, 2012; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017) hindering the success and objectives of this development method.

Operational challenges refer to those issues surrounding the political atmosphere within destinations (Tosun, 2000). Developing countries have been characterized by highly centralized, top-down bureaucratic political structures (Marzuki & Hay, 2012). While

efforts have been amassed to encourage and foster some form of decentralized structures and administrative processes, there exists pervading constraints where “central government bureaucracies are reluctant to cede power to others, and they may find indirect means to continue to meet their own priorities” (Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 2005, p. 861). As a result, such occurrences create a persistent barrier towards achieving the goals of local involvement leaving the local community and its residents somewhat defenseless to overcoming such traditionally enshrined structures and their governing powerhouses.

It has been noted that attempts to foster coordination and cooperation among tourism planners who are usually representatives of government agencies and the private sectors and general public have been found to be exceedingly challenging due to the propensity of these planners to favor working in isolation (Jamal & Getz, 1995).

As noted, ‘politicians and decision-makers’ are known to be reluctant to share control of tourism development and planning with citizens (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017), lacking confidence in the people’s abilities by viewing them as not being capable enough to contribute significantly to impending projects. Such circumstances deemed by Tosun (2000) as operational limitations, impact residents’ willingness and interest to participate in tourism development, further harboring a society of paternalism in which citizens are positioned as passive participants in the tourism development process.

The structural limitations that restrict the success of active community involvement include resident’s attitudes, lack of expertise, elite domination, lack of appropriate legal systems, lack of trained human resources and the relatively high cost of community participation (Tosun, 2000). The lack of expertise and know-how of the participatory approach tailored for developing countries by planners and local authorities, coupled with their unwillingness to share power by those who own and control the means of production within tourism destinations have made it especially difficult to achieve satisfactory progresses in local peoples’ involvement. Not only are these powerhouses reluctant to concede the share of power for planning and decision-making but they also do not have confidence in the local peoples’ ability to contribute (idem).

Finally, cultural limitations are inherent in the low capacity levels possessed by the poor and marginalized. Such inadequacies of knowledge and awareness which are necessary elements for engaging in the participation process have been areas of concern limiting citizens' contributions (Marzuki & Hay, 2012; Timothy, 2002; Tosun & Timothy, 2003). Jenkins (1993) also inferred that the technical complexities of tourism planning pose a significant challenge to citizens. Additionally, prolonged periods of authoritarianism and colonialism which have traditionally excluded the local community from tourism planning processes and decision-making have negatively impacted the local people, leaving them uninterested and unconfident about their abilities and potential role in the development process (Cole, 2006).

The application of more inclusive participatory approaches in tourism development have been aligned with benefits ranging from building consensus and support for tourism projects, recognition and achievement of local residents' needs (Tosun & Timothy, 2003); equitable spread of costs and benefits (Brohman, 1996) which may be a catalyst to positive attitudes (Mansfeld, 1994) and collaborative relations among the various stakeholders in the industry, spanning the likes of the more powerful and influential to the lower castes of disadvantaged groups and individuals (Jamal & Getz, 1995).

Notably, attaining significant levels of community participation in tourism development has been affected by underlying conditions prevalent in developing countries that may act against efforts and desires geared towards achieving the ultimate objective of locals' involvement. Conclusively, considerations of such limitations related to community participation in tourism development and the factors which may be used to influence citizens towards actual involvement in the planning initiatives are critical (Sofield, 2003).

1.1.6 Sustainable Tourism Development and Planning

The sustainability debate according to Cole (2007) has been an issue of public interest dating as far back as the 1960s. Sustainable development, as a solid paradigm, took its form in the 1980s, a period known for the concept's popularization (Hunter, 1997; Tosun 2001) which was particularly influenced by the publication of the Brundtland report's "Our Common Future" by the United Nations World Commission on the Environment

and Development (UNWCED) in 1987. As such, the UNWCED defined sustainable development by outlining the objective of the approach as satisfying the needs of current generations while simultaneously preserving future generations' livelihood and survival or life support systems (UNWCED, 1987). The commission recognized that the achievement of these set goals was dependent on the sustenance and better management of elements related to environmental protection, social inclusivity and economic viability. To add to this, Byrd (2007) corroborated that the UNWCED's assessment of sustainable development advocates that current utilization of resources should not affect the potential for future resource use, acknowledging current and future generations as pertinent stakeholders in the sustainability paradigm.

The objectives of sustainable development as proposed by the UNWCED aims at the irradiation of poverty through the channeling of equitability and inclusivity in social development and economic growth, reducing inequality, raising the standard of living and attending to the management and sustainable use of natural resources and ecosystems. As such, the introduction of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) agreed upon at the Rio+20 summit in June (2012) which replace the preceding Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), were presented as a set of seventeen objectives guiding developmental initiatives not only in developing countries, but the world over. See Table 1.3 below

Table 1.3 Sustainable Development Goals

Goal 1	No Poverty	Goal 10	Reduced Inequality
Goal 2	Zero Hunger	Goal 11	Sustainable Cities and Communities
Goal 3	Good Health and Well-being	Goal 12	Responsible Consumption and Production
Goal 4	Quality Education	Goal 13	Climate Action
Goal 5	Gender Equality	Goal 14	Life Below Water
Goal 6	Clean Water and Sanitation	Goal 15	Life on Land
Goal 7	Affordable and Clean Energy	Goal 16	Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
Goal 8	Decent Work and Economic Growth	Goal 17	Partnerships to achieve the Goal
Goal 9	Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure		

Source: Sustainable Development Goals: 17 Goals to Transform Our World (2017)

Consequently, the necessity for adherence to sustainable development principles and policies has been elevated to a level of urgency as it has been recognized that “The world has entered a new era, indeed a new geological epoch, in which human activity has come to play a central and threatening part in fundamental earth dynamics” (Sachs, 2012, p. 2206). As such, the sustainability paradigm has been put forward as a means to guide human behavior and their usage of natural, cultural and other man-made resources.

In the context of this research, it has been cited that the Brundtland report positioned sustainable tourism as a sub-branch of sustainable development (Cole, 2006). Notably, initial planning and policy guidelines for sustainable development that were produced up until the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) focused minimally on tourism (Neto, 2003). Recognition of this limitation prompted the WTO’s execution of the ‘Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry’ in 1996 and subsequently the ‘Global Code of Ethics for Tourism’ in 1999, which represent action plans for sustainable tourism development and frameworks of reference for the responsibility, and sustainable and international tourism, respectively (idem).

Having been characterized as the fastest growing industry (Berno & Bricker, 2001), tourism operations over the past decades have been heralded as the “savior” for many countries and their economy, a label attributable to the industry’s resilience, its capability to generate innovative forms of income, employment and foreign exchange (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). Considering the scale of tourism operations and the dependence of the industry on high quality products and services obtained through the manipulation of the environment, natural, man-made and cultural resources, the sustainable paradigm should be of pertinent interest (Selin, 1999). Wang & Pfister (2008) also inferred that while the tourism industry has been revered for its financial viability, sociocultural innovativeness and capability to promote ecological awareness, associated negative impacts of tourism on the environment, society and the economy have been increasingly identified as areas of concern for planners.

Drawing from this and in an effort to maintain success in the industry, effective management and planning of tourism development cannot be understated and the

implementation of sustainable development approaches have been highlighted as an instrumental blueprint for managing tourism development (Cole, 2006). Following such a paradigm is of paramount importance to planners who seek to achieve environmental, sociocultural and economic viability in the industry. The application of the associated principles, guidelines and prescriptions inherent in the sustainable development model have been accepted as a means to achieving long-term viability within the tourism industry thereby managing its impacts (Liu, 2003). As a result, methods following the objectives of the sustainability milieu have been considered by a plethora of scholars, practitioners (Berno & Bricker, 2001; Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Harris & Leiper, 1995; Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Murphy, 1994; Owen, Witt & Gammon, 1993; Tosun, 1998), geographers and tourism planners as an appropriate and alternative means for undertaking tourism development (Hunter, 1997). Not surprisingly, the principles of sustainable tourism development have penetrated the manner in which tourism planning and development are approached.

Towards gaining a better understanding, various definitions have been put forward to conceptualize sustainable tourism development (Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002). The WTO prescribes to defining sustainable tourism as:

Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems. (WTO, 1998, p. 19)

The framework of sustainability infused into the tourism milieu therefore enforces the mandate of minimizing the environmental impacts of tourism development while simultaneously improving socioeconomic benefits to host destinations (Neto, 2003). To further understand the concept, attention is drawn to the triple bottom line model of sustainable development which follows and is guided by a framework and structure that seek to manage all the elements (environmental, social and economic) which may impact development processes and outcomes (Liu, 2003). Therefore, the management

of tourism which strategically aligns its activities and multifaceted mannerisms in conjunction with the philosophies of sustainable development is that which is referred to as sustainable tourism. Relating to Muller's (1994) perspective, sustainable tourism ought to focus on: economic health, subjective well-being of the locals, unspoilt nature, preservation of resources, healthy culture and optimum satisfaction of guest requirements. This view supports a balanced approach towards sustainable development of tourism, paying equal attention to each of the above objectives.

Goal 17 of the SDGs (see Table 1.3 above) under the headline 'Revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development' has set as one of its targets the improvement of civil society, public and public-private partnerships towards gaining sustainable development. This goal specifically aims at public inclusion and participation in development. Notably, Hunter (1997) and Jamieson & Jamal (1997) indicated that a paramount aspect of sustainability in tourism is established on the premise of fostering community participation in the tourism planning and development process. Choi & Sirakaya (2005) who added that positioning residents as the "focal point" of planning and development in tourism appears to result in improvements in possible operational or conceptual techniques implemented by planners.

More specifically, the relevance of the involvement of the local community and its residents in tourism development is warranted by the hypothesized stakeholder theories and research (Freeman, 1984) in tourism (Gunn, 1994; Marko Perić et al., 2014; Selin & Chavez, 1995). The basis of such theories in tourism planning look to advocate success and sustainability in planning, proposing that the attainment of such objectives is contingent on collaborative and cooperative approaches (Jamal & Getz, 1995) that support the inclusivity of those individuals and groups who stand to affect or to be affected by developmental plans, decisions and policies in the tourism industry (Nicholas et al., 2009). Murphy (1985) further surmised that due to the utilization and exploitation of the local community's resources in the tourism development process, local stakeholders should be viewed as key decision-making participants in the related planning undertakings. Additionally, Swarbrooke (1999) pointed out that consideration

of the host community and their participation in tourism development can ensure a reduction in conflict.

Selin & Chavez (1995) emphasized the significant role played by stakeholders in achieving anticipated results in the tourism industry that exceed economic objectives. Admittedly, the involvement of various stakeholders (individuals and institutional) in tourism development and design should be a crucial area of interest for planners, who also need to take into deliberation these groups' influence, capacity and necessity to contribute to and impact their proposals and initiatives. Tourism planning therefore should not be restrained within an isolated paradigm (Gunn, 1988) but rather should be undertaken in a manner mirroring that of a systems approach considering the industry's interdependent character. Consequently, the considerations of by these proponents based on the role of inclusivity and participation represent significant features of the sustainability model.

While the acceptance of sustainable tourism has been acknowledged and studied among enthusiasts (Inskeep, 1991; Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Nicholas et al., 2009) researchers have questioned the concept's applicability and fit in the tourism field (Garrod & Fyall 1998; Hunter, 1995; Liu, 2003; Sharpley, 2000).

Notwithstanding these viewpoints, the transference of the principles of sustainable development in the tourism milieu continues to be a growing area of popularity and at the same time of concern (Hunter, 1997). Agreed as a viable approach, sustainable tourism development has been allocated as beneficial (Tosun, 2001) especially in its contributions to managing development (Hunter, 1997).

1.2 FACTORS AFFECTING LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

1.2.1 The MOA model as a Factor Affecting Local Community Participation in Tourism Development

Consumer behavior researchers MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) have been cited as the proponents of the motivation, opportunity and ability (MOA) model (Bigné, Hernández, Ruiz & Andreu, 2010; Leung & Bai, 2013). Building on the consumer behavior literature the researchers proposed that consumers' information processing played a fundamental role in achieving desired brand attitudes and outcomes in advertising, further making the connection that opportunity, motivation and ability (OMA)¹ were classified as antecedents to process brand information (Leung & Bai, 2013). As antecedents, these three variables were noted to impact the behavioral outcome of the observed subjects (consumers), also concluding that the outcome intensity was reflective of the capacity or measurement of each antecedent. It is from this standpoint that MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) compounded the understanding of motivation, opportunity and ability as playing a significant role in individual's decision-making and information processing.

By 1991, MacInnis, Moorman & Jaworski readdressed the model and referenced it: motivation, opportunity and ability, the MOA model. In that investigation they conceded that favorable communication outcomes in advertisements are influenced by information processing; an outcome which could be maximized by enhancing customers' motivation, opportunity and ability to process information provided in advertisements.

Under these guidelines, the relevance of the influence of the MOA model, several scholars have imposed such an outlook in their research. Other researchers such as Rothschild (1999) applied the MOA model in the context of social marketing, segmenting education, marketing and law as tools to manage public health and social issues. Through the illustration of binge drinking as an example, Rothschild explained how managers (facilitators or decision-makers) may be guided by varying levels of

¹ Previously referred to as the OMA model (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989), the model was thereafter referred to as the MOA model (MacInnis, Moorman and Jaworski, 1991)

students' motivation, opportunity and ability to take part in binge drinking in order to apply relevant tools to curb these unwanted behaviors.

In the context of operations management, Siemsen, Roth & Balasubramanian (2008) posited that the MOA model plays a pivotal role in inter-employees' information sharing behaviors. They developed the Constraining-factor Model and provided supporting research for the assessment that in the event that one of the MOA variables to share knowledge is weak or absent, this variable would deter employees' intended behavior. One conclusion showed that although employees may be motivated and able to share knowledge with their colleagues, a lack of time or opportunity might deter such knowledge sharing behavior, hence, they recommended that a level of complementarity among the variables for the realization of successful anticipated behavioral outcome.

The significance of the MOA model as seen in the work of MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) and MacInnis et al. (1991) was to contribute to enhanced communication outcomes measurable through the achievement of desirable consumer brand attitudes, brand learning and memory. The scholars sought to achieve these goals through playing close attention to and enhancing consumers' information processing.

Toward achieving this objective, they developed a theoretical framework of which its validated conceptual path acknowledged the influence of implementing appropriate ad design strategies and cues in improving information processing. More specifically, the strategies employed were to support enhancements related to consumers' motivation, opportunity and ability to process ad information. While the authors did not discount consumers' preexisting MOA levels when entering into the information processing activity, the conceptual path maps the necessity for undertaking necessary actions that will manage and improve such levels.

In the field of Travel and Tourism, the MOA model has been adopted by a number of researchers in the areas of airline ticket purchase intentions (Bigné et al., 2010), travel intentions (Hung & Petrick, 2012), social media involvement and revisit intention (Leung & Bai, 2013), engagement within local community festivals (Jepson, Clarke & Ragsdell, 2014), World Heritage Conservation (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017) and community

participation in tourism development (Hung et al., 2011). The model is manipulated in a manner that allows researchers and scholars to understand and validate behaviors and intentions based on the level of variability or absence of motivation, opportunity and availability which said to influence subjects' ability to process information and make decisions (MacInnis et al., 1991; Hung & Petrick, 2012).

1.2.2. Motivation as an Antecedent of Community Participation in Tourism Development

Hung et al. (2011) agreed that the conceptualization of information processing as portrayed in the general applications of the MOA model could be equated to the decision-making process. Subsequently, in the context of tourism development explored in this investigation, participation and decision-making process is seen as the anticipated behavior or outcome expectations of the local community.

Aligned with the research matter, MacInnis et al. (1991) defined motivation as "consumers' desire or readiness to process brand information in an ad" (p. 34) and further went on to associate this variable in terms of the consumer's "readiness", "willingness", "interest" and/or "desire" to process information presented before them (idem).

As it relates to behavior, motivation is viewed as playing the role of a stimulant, directing and compelling an individual towards the accomplishment of a more desirable behavioral outcome (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017), such as is seen in achieving certain levels of information processing or participation and decision-making. Simon (1967) attributed motivation as being the mechanism governing the change from one state to a more desirable one. Notably, while the brunt of descriptions of motivation outline its contribution to behavior, MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) did posit that in some instances it simply acts in the manner described by Park & Mittal (1985), which is as a "goal-directed arousal".

Following the prescriptions of Bettman (1975), needs were acknowledged as a vital element necessary for stimulating motivation, which in turn influences the achievement

of desired behaviors or goals. Quoted as “requirements for something essential or desirable that is lacking” MacInnis & Jaworski (1989, p. 2) agreed with Bettman that activated needs stimulate motivation, and also emphasized differing classifications of need, such as utilitarian and expressive. Utilitarian needs are those necessary for managing ones physical environment whereas expressive needs entail managing ones social and psychological environment (Wang, 2002). Additionally, as signified in MacInnis et al.’s (1991) article, the enhancement of attention towards hedonic needs, for example, facilitates interest, and in the bigger picture, individuals motivation to process information.

The relevance of motivation to behavior cannot be understated due to the nature of its influence on decision-making (Hung et al., 2011) and its impact on the intensity and direction of behavior (Bettman, 1975). Not surprisingly, motivation is considered the driving force behind individual decision-making (Bettman, 1975; Jepson et al., 2014).

Therefore, adapting the MOA model to community participation in tourism development, motivation is allocated as those internal drives or mechanisms compelling people to want to get involved in tourism development (Hung et al., 2011; Jepson et al., 2014; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017), thereby, affecting their support and engagement in participation and decision-making processes. In a further conclusion, motivation is discussed by Kayat (2002) and Milne & Ewing (2004) as being a pertinent factor contributing to individuals’ choice to participate in tourism development.

With regards to participation in tourism development, people’s motivation is noted as being influenced by individual perceptions of their community, tourism development, and its tourism impacts. (Hung et al., 2011; Jepson et al., 2014; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Resident perceptions research in tourism have been well studied (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt, 2005; Ap, 1992; Lankford, 1994; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012) and tended to take a tourism impact approach focusing either on types of impacts, social or cultural impacts (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). It has thus been calculated that resident perceptions of tourism impacts acts as a determinant factor in their willingness to support tourism development (Jurowski, Uysal & Williams, 1997). Perdue, Long & Allen (1990) noted that when residents are in receipt of personal benefits from tourism and

perceive impacts to be positive, they are more inclined to show support. Likewise, negative perceptions of tourism and its impacts on the community were aligned with a sentiment of lack of support.

Residents interest and their beliefs of the manner in which those interests might be affected through engaging in the participation process is also said to affect their motivation to participate. Ascertained as being a factor facilitating community participation, Hung et al. (2011) posited that local people's personal interest affect their level of decision-making. Tosun (2000) alluded that, in the context of developing countries, there exists a lack of interest in the local community that may be owing to "the belief that their idea will not be considered, which does not motivate them to express an interest" (p. 625). Adding to this, it is highlighted that social and political environments represent an instrumental aspect affecting residents' decision-making and interest to participate in tourism development. This is exemplary in dominant centralized structures with poor power distribution to local communities, characteristic of developing countries dependent on tourism (Tosun, 2000; Marzuki & Hay, 2012). In such cases, residents have been noted to shy away from tourism decision-making and participation if they believe that the relevant political institutions and principal planners are not willing to disseminate power and provide appropriate structures that would facilitate their participation in tourism development (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017).

Simmons (1994) also highlighted that the public's motivation and interest is impacted by their appraisal of their contributions have been influential in shaping decisions in tourism planning. He further added that in order to encourage people's interests, tourism planners must appropriately define the objectives of participation and provide required conditions and materials necessary to support their involvement.

1.2.3 Opportunity as an Antecedent of Community Participation in Tourism Development

Opportunity, as described in relation to brand processing by MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) is referred to as "circumstances evidenced during ad exposure are favorable for brand

processing” (p. 7). In line with their study MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) further presented an understanding of opportunity as situational factors related to the amount of time available to process information, number of distractions presented and attention paid to advertisements; all of which depending on their variability may impede or enhance information processing (Leung & Bai, 2013).

Drawing reference to local community participation in tourism development, opportunity to participate is similarly constituted by those conditions or situations that enable and facilitate residents to be able to partake in tourism activities. Such circumstances have been associated with the employment of participatory approaches that enable the public to become more involved in tourism development (Hung et al., 2011; Tosun, 2000; Simmon, 1994). Other researchers have referred to this as support towards a collaborative or stakeholder approach in tourism development considering the involvement of all affected parties in tourism activities, decision-making and planning (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Aas et al., 2005).

Taking into account the role of opportunities in creating conducive environments for achieving goals such as the accomplishment of local community participation in tourism development, it has been established that inadequate provisions of opportunities may have a negative impact on such goal achievement, while also noting that in the presence of required opportunity levels the realization of anticipated goals or behaviors are more likely to be positively impacted (Gruen, Osmonbekov, & Czaplewski, 2007). Applying this supposition to tourism development, it can be thus assumed that inadequate provisions of opportunity would hamper residents’ and local peoples’ participation, conversely, the presence of adequate amounts of opportunities, the result would be an increased likelihood in participation.

The availability of opportunities is hence defined in terms of the degree to which environments are made conducive to goal fulfilment. The provision of appropriate participatory approaches that foster the local people or grassroots community’s to participate are therefore noted as a vital mechanism (Hung et al., 2011). Notably, the application of such approaches or opportunities to participate have been defined in terms of political opportunities, policies and appropriate communication channels that

seek to alleviate and foster the conditions of local community to participate in tourism development (Hung et al., 2011; Rasoolimanesh et al, 2017).

Notably, political and state support and affiliation represents a critical branch enabling inclusive public participation in tourism planning and development. This is because the force and resources of the local citizens are not sufficient to foster warranted levels of participation, but rather, a collaborative effort is therefore recommendable (Jamal & Getz, 1995). As such the state plays a pivotal role towards the attainment of local participation through affording opportunities by way of providing essential support and relevant resources and implementation of strategic planning, policies and legislative frameworks (Behaire & Elliott-White, 1999). Supporting the above views, the World Bank added that towards enabling participation of the poor in decision-making and planning initiatives, assistance must be provided by way of “strengthening the organizational and financial capacities of the poor so that they can act for themselves” and suggested that the availability of training and grant programs as possible means of achieving this (World Bank, 1996, p. 8).

Nonetheless, one cannot disregard the reluctance of current political, state and organizing bodies to facilitate the objective of local participation in tourism planning (Yuksel et al., 2005). Such circumstances have been known to thrive especially in developing countries due to the predominant centralized, top-down political structures and administrations which have failed to consider the role of the local community in planning and decision-making (Marzuki & Hay, 2012; Tosun, 2000). Furthermore, there exists challenges in which bureaucrats and tourism planners, who possess centrality of power and decision-making, perceiving the local people as being incapable of contributing substantially in tourism planning and decision-making due to being uneducated and ignorant (Cole, 2006). These issues therefore create a conflicting environment which further complicates the objective of inclusivity of the local people in tourism activities, decision-making and planning.

Another affected element necessary for enhancing and providing opportunities is the availability of open communication channels, of which are further negatively impacted by rigidly central political environments. Aas et al. (2005) concluded that in addition to

the restrictions of political systems in stifling communication, conflicting agendas by the involved stakeholder acts as an additional limitation. The significance of open channels of communication represents an essential element affecting the objective of opportunity provision, as they facilitate relationships among the local people and other stakeholders within the private and public sectors of the tourism industry.

Drawing reference to a few proposed typologies of community participation as characterized in tourism development, it is acknowledged by Tosun (1999) that in the context of developing countries, the most prevalent forms of participation are induced and coercive participation. Typically, these two levels of participation are characteristic of low opportunities given to the local people and grass root communities to participate in tourism decision-making and planning (idem). These undertaken approaches are also known as manipulative and passive (Pretty, 1995) which does not consider the voice of the local people nor does it facilitate their involvement to take part in policymaking. The opportunity for the locals to contribute in such manners are replaced by the implementation of strategies that convert them into mere parties that receive information and hear of plans already decided by planners and other administrators.

1.2.4 Ability as an Antecedent of Local Community Participation in Tourism Development

MacInnis & Jaworski (1991) defined ability as “customers’ skills and proficiencies in interpreting brand information in an ad” (p. 34) and further explained the relevance of previous brand knowledge as a contributing factor strengthening one’s ability. This signifies that a lack of ability may be reflective of poor knowledge structures. Providing further support, Alba et al. (1997) asserted that improvements in individuals’ knowledge result in ability enhancement. The increase in knowledge may be acquired partly from customers’ prior information, beliefs and/or preferences. These authors focused primarily on consumer behavior and so their assessments are particular to the ability of consumers to process brand information (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989, 1991) and the ability of customers to predict brand satisfaction (Alba et al., 1997).

Rothschild (1999) also conceptualized ability in the context of 'individual skills or proficiencies', but further included the variable of self-efficacy as prescribed by Bandura (1997). Bandura (1993) emphasized that while knowledge and skills are important attributes, individuals' incapacity to use them stand to negatively affect the ability construct. As a result, Bandura defined ability by including the involvement of people's cognitive processes. He summarized human ability as "generative capabilities in which cognitive, social, motivational, and behavioral skills must be organized and effectively orchestrated to serve numerous purposes" (p.118). The conception of ability therefore is concerned not only with skills and competencies, but also individuals' belief of their capability to perform a behavior. Self-efficacy according to Bandura (1997) encompasses people's beliefs of their capabilities to execute actions and achieve a desired result. Drawing conclusions from a study on public health, it was inferred that persons with high expectancies of themselves and anticipated personal achievement are more likely to exemplify greater abilities to accomplish set objectives (Rothschild, 1999).

Considering the field of tourism development, aspects aligned with local communities' ability to participate pertains to the necessary awareness, skills, knowledge, experience, information accessibility and financial resources (Hung et al., 2011; Jepson et al., 2014 & Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). A necessary requirement to ensure effective participation is related to the local peoples' acquisition of knowledge of tourism, including the sector's dynamics and operation within host destinations, its impacts and the benefits and challenge incurred (Simmons, 1994; Timothy, 1999). Education is also a vital facet which improves persons awareness of tourism operations and strengthens their output and decision making prowess (idem). For this research, awareness considers the level of cognizance of current tourism issues and events.

Tosun (2000) suggested that a lack of capacity, awareness and knowledge by the local people has been persistent in limiting their ability to participate in tourism development. And so, while the consideration and involvement of local people has been a critical objective of participatory approaches in tourism, the challenge of minimal levels of education and capabilities at the local level has been concerning and cannot be ignored

(Cole, 2006). Moreover, it has been acknowledged that specialized expertise necessary to design, organize and implement participatory approaches has been scarcely available especially in developing countries (Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000). This points out that even tourism planners also fall into that bracket of possessing limited 'know-how' and experience of the dynamics necessary for promoting participatory approaches.

1.3 RESIDENT ATTITUDES AS A FACTOR CONTRIBUTING TO COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

1.3.1 Conceptualization of Attitudes

Historically, the scientific study of attitudes was noted to be directly associated with the field of social psychology establishing among its most definitive assumptions the supposition that attitudes represent a key antecedent to understanding human behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Watson, 1925). The majority of scholars in the early eras appeared to be in agreement with the attitude-behavior relationship (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Fazio, 1986) with the exception of a few, namely, LaPiere (1934) and Corey (1937).

Allan Wicker (1969; 1971) also stood out as one of the principal and most influential proponents to challenge the attitude construct, creating an environment of concern and need for retrospect following decades of conviction and confidence in the construct. Notably, a tug-of-war of support (Fazio & Zanna, 1981; Kelley & Mirer, 1974; Schuman & Johnson; 1981) and refutation (De Fleur & Westie, 1958; Deutscher, 1969; Festinger, 1964) of the validity of attitudes in guiding behavior subsequently ensued.

Conveniently, the postulations of opposition opened the window of opportunity for researchers to profoundly review the somewhat deficient early views on the attitudes construct. Ironically, this led to the 1960s and 1970s being a defining moment for strengthening the foundation of the attitude-behavior construct which was solidified by the emergence of the opposing views which rejected the relationship between the

variables, obliging researchers to revisit preliminary findings and re-substantiate propositions.

Consequently, it was concluded that while Wicker's call to abandon the concept were generally overstated, there lay accuracy in his proclamations regarding the existence of inherent inconsistencies in the relationship between attitudes and behavior as attitudes did not definitively have a one-to-one influence on behavioral outcomes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Fazio, 1986). That is to say, in some instances it is possible for an absolute zero correlation between the two variables while in other cases attitudes may impact behavior or may act as a mediator as opposed to the primary contributing element in behavior formation.

Early theorists have defined attitudes as being constituted by the affective, cognitive and conative trichology (Breckler, 1984; McGuire, 1969; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). Affective components refer to evaluations made of attitude objects (Fazio, 1986) which may take the form of emotional or gut reactions, measurable by psychological responses or verbal reviews of feelings or moods (Breckler, 1984). Cognitive components as prescribed by Ostrom relate to "beliefs about the object, characteristics of the object and relationships of the object with other objects" (1969, p. 16). Such cognitive features are derivative of individuals' thought process and knowledge structures (Breckler, 1984). Completing the trilogy, the conative components denote behavioral intentions (Fazio, 1986; Kothandapani, 1971; Ostrom, 1969), overt actions and verbalizations relating to behaviors (Breckler, 1984).

Each component varies on a continuum and may elicit responses ranging from positive to negative and favorable to unfavorable attitudes (Ostrom, 1969). Following Allport's (1935) summary, evaluations for affect and cognition may range from favorable to unfavorable; with affect ranging from feeling happy and good to feeling unhappy and bad meanwhile cognition may range from supportive versus derogative arguments. Likewise, behaviors can range from protecting to destroying. Individuals with favorable attitudes therefore tend to focus and process the positive attributes of an object, while

those harboring unfavorable attitudes are more directed towards an object's negative features.

While the above trichology has been generally acknowledged with each component understood as predictive antecedents driving individuals' actions, opposing positions are held by scholars with regards to the manner of their functionality in behavior creation. Additionally, it has been statistically proven that the three components can, in some instances, operate in a correlational manner (Idem) while on the other hand the components are capable of operating interdependently of each other as denoted in the outlook and approaches of Fishbein (1967) and Fazio (1986) who limited their conception of attitudes to affect.

Following that rationality, Fishbein proposed the definition of attitudes as "learned predispositions to respond to an object or class of objects in a favorable or unfavorable way" (1967, p. 257). Fishbein's consideration of attitudes as being primarily channeled through the affective component was rationalized by the fact that empirical investigations on attitudes were not significantly capable of proving definitive correlations among the three components (affective, cognitive and conative) (Richardson, 1996).

Allport demarcated an attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (1967, p. 8). Similar to the definition produced by Fishbien, Allport viewed attitudes as being predispositions capable of influencing cognitive relationships what in turn guide individuals' behavior or actions.

Additionally, Fazio (1995) contributed to a simplistic definition of attitudes as being affectively constituted, comprising an association between evaluations and a given object. Here, the strength of the association between the object and the object evaluation plays a pivotal role towards the accessibility of attitudes. That is, the stronger the association of an individual's evaluation of an object, the more probable the influence upon and activation of an attitude. In the presence of a strong association

resulting in a more probable object evaluation, ultimately, the influence of the constructed attitude is expected to mold individuals' behavior and perceptions towards that object (Fazio & Williams, 1986; Fazio, Powell & Williams, 1989).

1.3.2 Attitude-Behavior Relationship

Based their conceptualization of attitudes, Azjen & Fishbein further concluded that “the determinants of specific behaviors are guided largely by a reasoned action approach that assumes that people’s behavior follows reasonably from their beliefs, attitudes, and intentions” (2005, p. 174). The reasoned action theory (RAT) as proposed by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) explicated that the attitudinal elements, facilitated by normative elements, independently influence individuals’ behaviors via mediation of behavioral intentions. As previously stated, the attitude elements are reflective of individuals’ evaluation of the behavior or object in question. The normative elements (subjective norms) reflect individuals’ perceptions which are influenced by the viewpoints of important people in their lives and the manner in which the individual perceives these acquaintances think he or she should carry out a behavior (Terry & Hogg, 1996).

Beliefs or behavioral beliefs as depicted in the RAT have been considered as individuals’ evaluation of possible consequences of the behavior in question (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and relate to the costs and benefits they associate to the behavior or object (Becker, 1974). Such an effect therefore positions beliefs as pertinent in attitude formation, and in turn behaviors. Reference is made to Ajzen’s (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) in this research which represents an extension of the RAT with the main difference being the addition of the Perceived Behavioral Control variable which according to Ajzen is also a predictor of intentions and actions.

Building on the above assertions is Fazio’s MODE model which is the acronym for “motivation and opportunity determinants of spontaneous versus deliberative attitude-to-behavior processes” (Fazio, 1995, p. 257) is founded on the above assertions. Presenting this model, Fazio asserts that the strength of object-evaluation associations or attitudes may vary in intensity and do contribute to behavior. Fazio also stated that

the probability that automatically activated attitudes will impact the judgment of an object is dependent on a subject's motivation and opportunity to process information "evaluative characteristics" related to that object (Gawronski, 2007).

According to the MODE model, judgments and behaviors may arise from two processing modes: a spontaneous process which results in the automatic activation of attitudes from memory once contact is made with the attitude object or a more deliberate process which consists of effortful consideration of information processing usually involving the deliberation of negative and positive attributes of an attitude object. The spontaneous process of attitude activation may occur without the subject being consciously aware as opposed to the deliberate process which has been equated to Azjen & Fishbein's TRA/TPB where a more deliberative effort is made in ascertaining the character and attributes of the attitude object (Schuette and Fazio, 1995).

1.3.3 Residents' Attitudes and Sustainable Tourism Development

There has been a proliferation of research efforts that concentrate on the relevance of residents' attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Choi and Syrakaya, 2005; Lepp, 2007; Butler 1980; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, Gursoy & Chi, 2009; Doxey 1975; Liu and Var 1986; Perdue et al., 1990; Sönmez, 2002; Teye, Syrakaya; Um & Crompton 1987; Yu et al., 2011). The consideration of attitudes and the resultant imposition on tourism development and planning has been perpetuated as a relevant aspect for concern (Andereck & Vogt, 2000).

Andereck & Vogt (2000) affirmed that the emphasis on local people's opinions and perceptions occupying tourism research has proven to be of paramount significance in the industry's planning. As a result, awareness and understanding of residents' attitudes is instrumental in the achievement of sustainability and success in tourism programs through the facilitation of means for maintaining tourism planning and inciting support from the local community (idem). More specifically, Nicholas et al. (2009) further confirmed the relevance of tourism planners' and administrators' knowledge of

residents' attitudes and perceptions, implying that such information acts as a facilitator of sustainability in protected area management.

Likewise, involvement of residents in tourism planning should be a mandated requisite so as to mitigate negative impacts of tourism development and manage benefits (Wang & Pfister, 2008). As a result, the focus on mitigating negative impacts and the management of benefits will propel support for tourism initiatives from locals and encourage favorable attitudes towards tourism (Idem).

Building on Murphy's (1985) conclusion, Jurowski (1994) and Garrod & Fyall (1998) conceded that the "good will" portrayed by residents is of profound relevance, explicating that their support or lack thereof for tourism development can be constructive or impose a threat to the operations, development and sustainability of tourism on destinations. Additionally, Ap (1992) identified residents' attitudes as being "important planning and policy considerations to successful development, marketing, and operation of existing and future tourism programs and projects" (p. 665).

Planners' awareness of residents' assessments of tourism projects and enterprises should be held in high regard due to the representation of residents as key stakeholders who stand to be directly and indirectly affected by operations in the industry (Ap 1992; Gunn 1994; Murphy, 1985; Nicholas et al., 2009). That is to say, planners should be mindful of the impact of their decisions on the livelihood of the local people, considering the negative and/or positive repercussions involved.

In his research, Lepp (2007) aligned residents' attitudes as a means of gauging tourism's appropriateness. Accordingly, this line of thinking elucidates that residents' attitudes are likely to be positively influenced under circumstances where tourism development meets their sociocultural and economic needs, and negatively influenced when these needs are not met. In addition, the objective of gaining knowledge of residents' attitudes is productive in the sense that such insight may be used as a channel for stimulating pro-tourism and pro-conservation behaviors from residents (idem).

Furthermore, the relevance of outlining host citizens' attitudes in investigative productions is evident in available attitude-behavior studies (Brown, 1999; Hudson & Ritchie, 2001; Kim & Littrell, 1999; Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2004). The research efforts in this regard are significant in recognizing that attitudes act as a good measure of predicting behaviors. They have done so with the resolve of illustrating the relationship between attitudes and their positive or negative influence on behavior intentions, and then the impact of such behavioral intentions on individuals' specific or general behaviors (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980). Such a theoretical concept has been strongly supported by the Ajzen's (1985) TPB.

1.3.4 Theoretical Perspectives of Resident Attitudes Towards Tourism

Generally, factors proposed as being capable of altering resident attitudes towards tourism are mostly atheoretic in nature (Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002). These factors range from residents' economic dependence on community resources and the tourism industry (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Lankford, 1994; Lawson et al., 1998; Long, 1996; Martin et al., 1998; Pizam, 1978), the overall level of tourism development in the community (Ap & Crompton, 1993; Murphy, 1985), spatial factors (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Gursoy & Jurowski, 2002; Harrill & Potts, 2003), length of residency (Liu & Var, 1986) and the level of tourism dependence by host destinations (Pizam, 1978).

In his analysis of socioeconomic variables, spatial factors and economic dependency, Harrill (2004) presented rationalizations of residents' attitudes toward tourism development and concluded that while socioeconomic variables such as ethnicity, length of residency and income do impact residents' attitudes on some level, such variables are not representatively significant influencers of attitudes. Such a viewpoint was further supported by Perdue et al. (1990). Alternatively, economic dependency was found to be a more appropriate measure of molding attitudes.

In a tourism context, the postulations of economic dependency provide one possible explanation of residents' inclination towards positive or negative attitudes as being a derivative of their level of dependence on tourism. Thus, the more economically

dependent one is on tourism, the higher the likelihood that he or she would be inclined towards positive attitudes of tourism activities, whilst residents who are not depend on tourism would more likely exemplify negative dispositions towards tourism development and its impacts (Harrill, 2004).

Also in line with the above assertion is the analysis presented in Ap's (1992) Social Exchange Theory (SET). SET is characterized by "a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation" and provides useful conclusions for residents' perceptions or attitudes towards tourism development. The outlook under the framework of SET interprets the conditioning of individuals' reactions and viewpoints towards an object as being influenced by anticipated economic and social benefits.

Support for SET is exemplified in the work by Wang & Pfister who asserted that "attitude toward tourism is based on an exchange for something of value attributed by tourism" (2008, p. 85) and who went on to define 'valued' objects in terms of their economic benefits, which are related to income, tax revenues, employment, consumer spending and level of economic dependency while sociological gains are associated with social, aesthetic, community pride and less tangible variables in specific circumstances.

Drawing attention to the behavior and interaction of residents in host communities, SET hypothesizes that as a social activity, individuals' reactions necessitate an anticipated exchange which is dependent on tangible or nontangible costs or benefits. Hence, exchanges may be viewed as the foundation of human behavior and are dynamic (Homans, 1961). Moreover, Ap (1992) emphasized that individuals would be more inclined to partake in the exchange process if they perceive associated rewards as outweighing costs.

SET acts not only as a measure of attitudes but can be used to explain residents' support for tourism, or the lack thereof (Lee, 2012). To clarify, it must be highlighted that economic, sociocultural and environmental concerns are critical areas influencing residents' decision to become dependent on tourism, and as such, support for tourism is based on individuals' assessment of the associated costs and benefits of exchanges

related to these concern areas. This means, residents' support for tourism plans and initiatives is more likely once perceptions of benefits in the exchange process surpass that of associated costs. Conversely, the perception that costs emanating from tourism development are more significant in comparison to benefits is likely to be a catalyst for opposition from residents for tourism development (Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997).

In analyzing factors that influence host residents' support for sustainable tourism development, Hung (2012) also highlighted perceived benefits as one of the precedents for support of tourism. In his review, Hung used the SET to substantiate the hypothesized positive effect that residents' perceived benefits of tourism has on their support for development on host destinations. He added to the above assertions by confirming that not only do residents' perceived benefits affect their support for tourism development but also their interrelationships within the local community and their participation in community-based tourism initiatives.

Continuing with the evaluation of residents' attitudes towards tourism development, it may be interpreted that the range of antecedents influencing residents' evaluations of tourism tend to vary from one destination to another and is especially influenced by the growth phase at which development is recorded in the respective location (Butler, 1980; Cooke, 1982; Doxey, 1975; Getz, 1983; Haywood, 1986 Williams, 1979).

In Butler's Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC), there is said to be a relationship between residents' perceptions and the development of tourism in destinations. Butler concluded that at the initial stages of development, residents are relatively more accepting and welcoming to the development of tourism and the presence of tourists in their localities. However, with the consequent rapid evolution and expansion owed to tourism accompanied by negative impacts which accompany and at times appear to supersede the positive ones, residents begin to exude mixed and unfavorable perceptions or negative attitudes toward tourism development.

The concept of the TALC proposes that tourism development goes through an evolutionary cycle consisting of the following stages: exploration, involvement,

development, consolidation, stagnation, decline and/or rejuvenation. The destination is said to enter the life cycle experiencing low numbers of tourist visits and facilitating amenities (exploration). With time, noticeable changes are realized in the form of increase in tourists' arrivals, usually achieved through rigorous marketing and promotions, infrastructural improvements to meet growing tourist demands and attracting foreign investors. Over time the transitioning of each stage within the destination cycle is expected culminate in either decline or a state of rejuvenation though innovative means, rebranding or remarketing.

In a similar approach, Doxey (1975), in the Irridex model delineated the manner in which residents' attitudes towards tourism progresses from a state of euphoria in the early tourism development stages and later progresses to feelings of apathy, irritation and ultimately, antagonism. According to Harrill (2004), Doxey's Irridex conceptualizes residents' attitudes as being a derivative of social impacts experienced in destinations.

Other evaluations of resident attitudes were presented in Rothman's (1978) investigation of two Delaware coastal communities which defined attitudes toward tourism development as differently characterized by three groups. While the first group perceived that its community would be better off without tourism, the second one favored tourism, and the third community demonstrated ambivalence toward the industry.

Ap & Crompton (1998) categorized residents' reactions by focusing on their responses specifically to tourism impacts in four Texas communities. The categorization was illustrated on a continuum which was distinguishable by noting residents' strategies for responding to tourism impacts (Harrill, 2004). This continuum consists of four strategies which include: embracement, tolerance, adjustment and withdrawal. Following the specifications of Ap & Crompton's model, embracement represents favorability towards tourism and is most probably a reaction from those individuals who benefited more directly from tourism. Tolerance is defined as a state of forbearance as residents attempted to cope with the costs and unfavorable aspects of tourism development in their community. Adjustment is defined as a level of ambivalence and disinterest towards tourism where residents displayed acceptance of the reality of tourism in their

locality and day-to-day routine. Lastly, the withdrawal strategy represents resentment by silent acceptance of tourism initiatives, which results in a lack of participation by residents culminating in their withdrawal.

Typically, tourism development has been justified by its economic benefits (Liu & Var, 1986) and positive socioeconomic contributions such as employment and revenue flows to destinations (Lankford & Howard, 1994). Conclusions from the above contentions emphasize the manner in which residents make assessments in the face of the benefits of tourism, its typically rapid evolution and development on destinations combined with the negative impacts that ensue. These evaluations prove to contribute to residents' or local communities' positive and negative attitudes of tourism, its development and planning processes.

1.4 HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL PRESENTATION

1.4.1 Hypothesis Development

Towards synthesizing the main ideas and positions proposed in this investigative production, eight hypotheses (outlined below) are presented and supported by a conceptual model constituted by mapping the relationships of the research variables. Towards substantiating the hypothetical assertions presented, the conceptual model is elaborated guided by appropriate referential corroborations. Hence, the relationships between variables are justified by theoretical findings of existing empirical investigative studies.

Fazio's (1986) MODE is utilized to validate the relationship between individuals' motivation and opportunity to participate and their attitudes towards sustainable tourism development. This MODE model plays a relevant role in this research as it concedes that people's active deliberation and reasoning is pivotal in attitude formation and such a deliberative process is centrally dependent on the availability of motivation and opportunity to activate attitudes. Furthermore, the assertions by MacInnis et al. (1989)

which state that consumers' motivation, opportunities and ability to process information influence their brand attitudes provide support for the impact of the MOA model's variables on individuals' attitudes. Following these theories, it is hypothesized that:

- H1:** Motivation to participate in tourism development positively and significantly impacts the local community's attitudes toward sustainable tourism development.
- H2:** Opportunity to participate in tourism development positively and significantly impacts the local community's attitudes toward sustainable tourism development.
- H3:** Ability to participate in tourism development positively and significantly impacts the local community's attitudes toward sustainable tourism development.

The influence of motivation, opportunity and ability on community participation has been adapted from the work of Hung et al. (2011). These researchers used the MOA model designed by MacInnis & Jaworski (1989) to explain the effects of the model's variables as antecedents affecting residents' capability to participate in tourism development and planning. Providing support to the assertions made by Hung et al. (2011) in this regard, a more recent study by Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) reaffirmed that the existence of required levels of each antecedent of the MOA model acts as a facilitator of residents' participatory behavior and the extent of their participation levels. Moreover, inadequate availability of these antecedents is said to act as inhibitors to such participatory behaviors. Based on these contentions, it is hypothesized that:

- H4:** Motivation to participate positively and significantly influences the local community's participation in tourism development.
- H5:** Opportunity to participate positively and significantly influences the local community's participation in tourism development.
- H6:** Ability to participate positively and significantly influences the local community's participation in tourism development.

Having justified the influence of residents' motivation, opportunity and ability to participate on their attitudes toward sustainable tourism development, the MOA model is subsequently integrated with Ajzen's (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) via the mediating role of attitudes. Accordingly, as illustrated in the TPB, individuals' attitudes influence their behavioral intentions, and in turn these intentions impact their behavior.

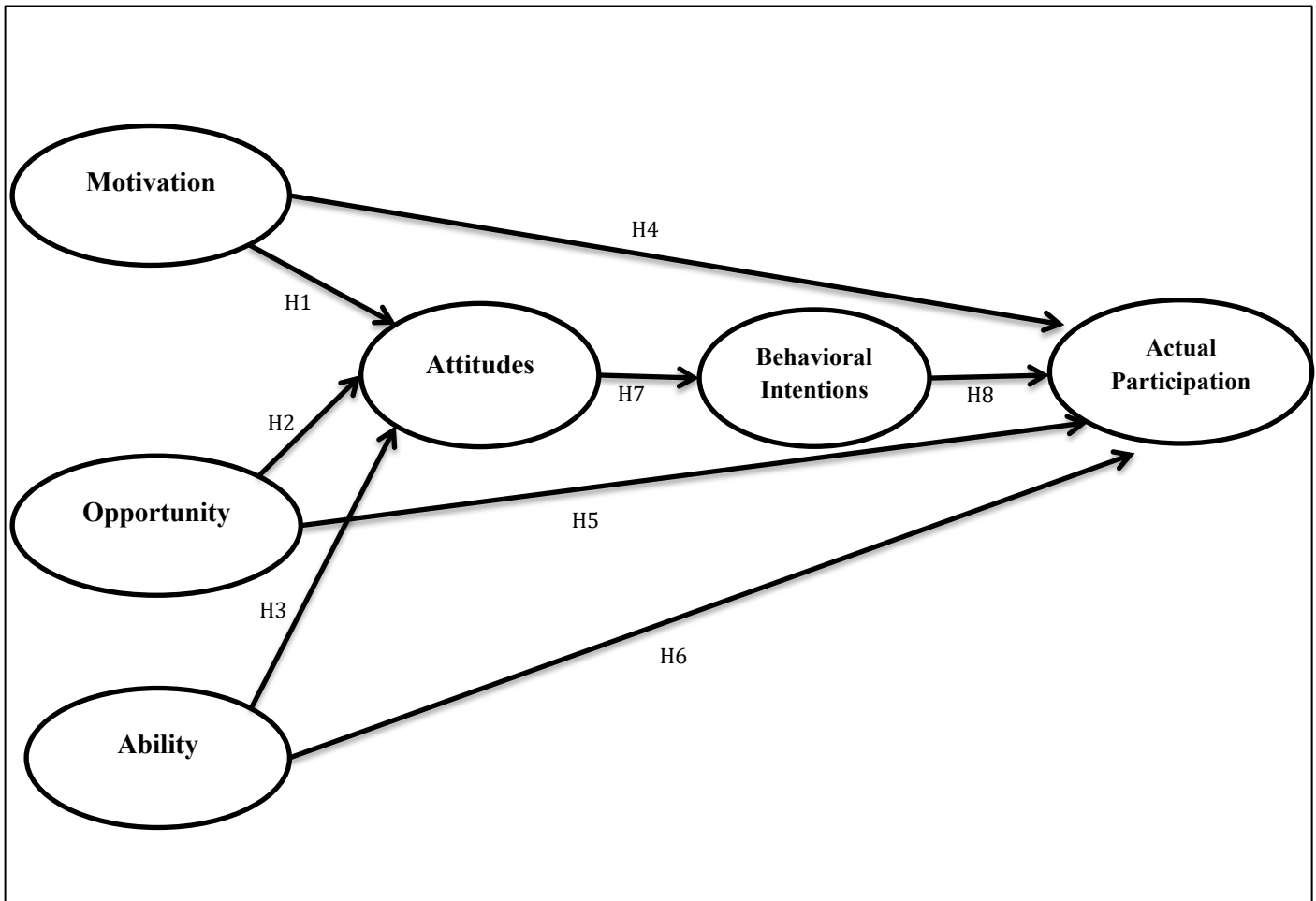
In the context of the present framework, behavior is defined as participation in tourism development or actual participation. Based on these assessments, it is hypothesized that:

- H7:** Attitudes toward sustainable tourism development positively and significantly affect intentions to participate in tourism development.
- H8:** Intentions to participate in tourism development positively and significantly affect community participation levels.

Under the guidance of the preceding relationships and the aligned theoretical substantiations, the following conceptual model is presented (see Figure 1.1).

1.4.2 Conceptual Model

Figure 1.1 Conceptual framework depicting factors affecting community participation in tourism development



Chapter 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 Research Design

This investigation is reflective of a cross-sectional quantitative research methodology, employing an explanatory and descriptive design in exploiting the chosen variables and data presented. According to Nykiel (2007) quantitative research methods allow for the measurement of large amounts of data and makes possible predictions of the effects of dependent variables on independent variables, providing insight on the relationship and effects that one variable has on the other.

The quantitative design undertaken in this study has been characterized as being evaluative by nature and therefore appropriate for measuring issues or problems such as those factors affecting the participation of residents in the selected research area as it relates to tourism development. Quantitative research methods are advantageous as they allow for statistically reliable results. They also provide the opportunity for building on the knowledge base of previously available phenomena, events, behaviors or areas of study. This is accomplished through the assessment of the plausibility and validity of newly proposed hypotheses following distinctive techniques under the quantitative framework (idem). Therefore, the quantitative design implemented in this study attempts to draw conclusions and additional understanding of those antecedents affecting the local community's inclination to participate in tourism development on the island of Saint Lucia.

Accordingly, the employment of a descriptive design method was aimed at uncovering the "what?" aspect of the study (De Vaus, 2001), which included describing the concept of community participation and the levels of anticipated behaviors that may be exemplified by the local community residents. Meanwhile the explanatory method seeks to address the study's "why" aspects (De Vaus, 2001) which essentially evaluates the dominant factors affecting participatory levels and behaviors towards tourism development in Saint Lucia.

2.2 Structure of the Investigation

As a means of achieving the objectives of this investigative thesis, an analysis of secondary data was conducted in which an assessment of preexisting information sources which supported and conceptualized the “what” and “why” questions of the research. The sources of such data included book publications, data bases such as Research Gates, Scopus, SAGE Journal, Science Direct, Redalyc, Dialnet, Elsevier and Google Scholar; all of which provided a strong foundation for the substantiation of the theoretical and conceptual framework. This evaluation was then used to pen the literature review which elaborated the role of all relevant variables and terminology: motivation, opportunity and ability to participate in tourism development, attitudes towards sustainable tourism development, sustainable tourism development, community participation and participation typologies.

Subsequently, an evaluative analysis of the relationship between the independent variables represented by the factors affecting locals’ participation and the dependent variable of participation in tourism planning and development in Saint Lucia. As such, the factors affecting participation included residents’ motivation, opportunity and ability to participate in tourism development and residents’ attitudes towards sustainable tourism development.

2.3 Research Area

The island of Saint Lucia had been designated as the object of this research investigation. The island is located in the Eastern Caribbean Sea right on the boarder of the Atlantic Ocean. Identified as part of the West Indies, Saint Lucia is more specifically located to the south of Martinique and north of the islands of Barbados and Saint Vincent, encompassing a total land area of 617 km² or 238.23 square miles.

Saint Lucia possesses a wealth of culture and heritage which is derived from its historical exchange of hands seven times to the French and another seven times to the British. Although the island remained colonized under English rule until 1989, the

French heritage and culture remains predominant in the natively spoken creole language, the cuisine, music, dance, expression and architecture on the island (Invest Saint Lucia, 2015).

2.3.1 Economy

Owing to its location on the Caribbean Sea, the volcanic island has been identified as one of the few Eastern Caribbean islands to have an expanse of beaches, very lush vegetation and mountains. Notably, the island's landscape has been attributed as one of its main visitor attractions in addition to making it ideal for agricultural production.

Not surprisingly, the agriculture industry has played a major role in contributing to the sustenance of the economy and development in Saint Lucia, from as far back as the early mid-1700's under the reign of the sugarcane trade until the 1980's when banana production and exportation replaced the sugarcane trade and represented the island's premier economy contributor.

Manufacturing and production also contribute to the island's economy with products ranging from other agricultural produce, electrical machinery, food, beverages, precious stone and metal, to name a few. However, the persistent high volume of imports on the island which continue to surpass exports has been viewed as problem affecting the overall Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Private sector construction provides yet another avenue to add value to the island's economy especially in relation to hotel construction projects and the growth of the tourism industry.

2.3.2 Tourism Industry

By the early 1900s, the island's dependence on the agriculture industry had been replaced by tourism recording the highest contributions of the island's GDP; a necessary change due the failing banana production and exportation. As of this current

date, tourism has remained the main industry in Saint Lucia through the generation of foreign-exchange and investments, employment and other forms of indirect revenues.

Saint Lucia's tourism product, like many other surrounding Caribbean islands is based on sun-sea-sand tourism, ecotourism, nature-based tourism and heritage tourism. The island's lush and tropical landscape, attractive public beaches, rich culture and patrimony have been hailed as the island's main tourist attractions.

In 2015, the Tourism sector recorded a 2.0 percent increase in the number of stayover visitors on the island, achieving a record of 344,908, with the US market having contributed the highest stayovers followed by the UK, Caribbean and Canadian market, respectively. While increases were noted in the US market, significant decreases were also recorded in leading markets such as Canada, the UK and other European countries. Major direct tourism activities contributing to the island's GDP include hotel accommodations/stayovers, cruise ship passenger arrivals, yacht passenger arrivals and food and beverage operations.

For the year 2016, the economic activity drawn from the tourism sector contributed the island's highest GDP, recording 39.6% of the island's total GDP equivalent to USD572.2 million. In the same year, the industry also supported an approximate total of 36,000 employment opportunities related to travel and tourism, equivalent to 46.5% of the island's total employment including indirect jobs. Direct contributions of the total GDP and employment were recorded as USD\$198 million or 13.7% of the GDP, and 17,500 jobs or 22.7% of total employment for the year 2016 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2017).

In order to ensure the success and sustenance of the service industry, the organizations responsible for tourism planning and development in Saint Lucia include the private sector's nonprofit Saint Lucia Hotel and Tourism Association and the public sector's Saint Lucia Tourist Board and the Ministry of Tourism. These are the three major bodies with the principal objectives and duties geared towards the effective and sustainable management of the island's tourism industry, its marketing, promotion and product development.

2.3.3 The District of Gros Islet, Saint Lucia

Saint Lucia is separated into ten districts. According to the last Housing and Population Census of 2010 conducted on the island, the population of total residents was recorded at 166,526 with a total of 173,720 including non-residents (Central Statistics Office Saint Lucia, 2011).

After careful examination, the northernmost district of Gros Islet was selected as the targeted community from which the data collection process would be applied. The community of Gros Islet has somewhat grown and developed overnight. In 2001, it was noted that the district in question recorded the smallest population density on the island. By 2010, this situation changed noticeably, as Gros Islet was positioned as the second most populated district housing a total of 15% of the island's population. This position is superseded by the islands' capital, Castries, which has a 40% share of the island's total population. From 2001 to 2010, the community of Gros Islet had experienced a 20.8% population increase, the highest of all other districts recorded for that period (Central Statistics Office Saint Lucia, 2011).

The district of Gros Islet is characterized as one of the major tourism hubs on the Island, the others being Soufrière West Coast and the island's capital Castries. Notably, the majority of hotels and restaurants catering to the service industry on the island are located in the north of the island and Castries, with the popular Rodney Bay strip one of the most prominent and centric locations for tourism activity located in the north of the island.

Figure 2.1 Map of Saint Lucia



Source: Century Capital Inc.

Figure 2. 2 Map of Gros Islet, Saint Lucia



Figure 1 Gros Islet, Saint Lucia (West Indies)
Source: Google Maps

2.4 Sample Determination

As a means of attaining relevant information and analysis capable of providing support for the theoretical and hypothetical contentions of this study, a non-probabilistic stratified random sampling method was selected as the foundation for determining an appropriate sample for this thesis.

A two-step approach was undertaken in the determination of suitable participants. The first step involved the selection of three diverse groups of residents from the northernmost district of Gros Islet, Saint Lucia, which includes citizens who are either unemployed, others who work in the tourism industry and thirdly those who occupy employment in other sectors not related to tourism. This step is used as a vital element for obtaining diversely essential knowledge of local residents' opinions, their attitudes and the manner in which they relate to the tourism industry's operations. For this reason, particular emphasis was made to include, as stakeholders of this research, residents who are not only dependent on tourism economically or otherwise, but also those who have little to no reliance on the industry including individuals who are unemployed or those who do not work in the tourism industry. This sample determination is founded on the assessment that such dependency or lack thereof could possibly elicit variations in results. Such an outlook is consistent with the explanations of Wang & Pfister (2008) who proposed that in the context of tourism development, residents' reactions and evaluations differ based on their perceptions of the benefits and costs they associated to tourism.

The second stage in the sample's selection involved the random selection of participants by means of convenience for the application of the research questionnaires. To achieve this, several centric and commonly traversed locations such as supermarkets, bus stops and malls were selected to distribute the surveys as a means of managing representiveness.

The estimated population of the research area is recorded at 22,493. This figure is corroborated by the Island's 2010 Population Consensus: Estimated Population by Political Constituency, of which males accounted for 10,821, females 11,627 and a total of 8,600 households. To manage the representiveness of the population, a 5% margin of error was allocated with a confidence level of 95% resulting in a sample size of 378 for which questionnaires should be distributed to.

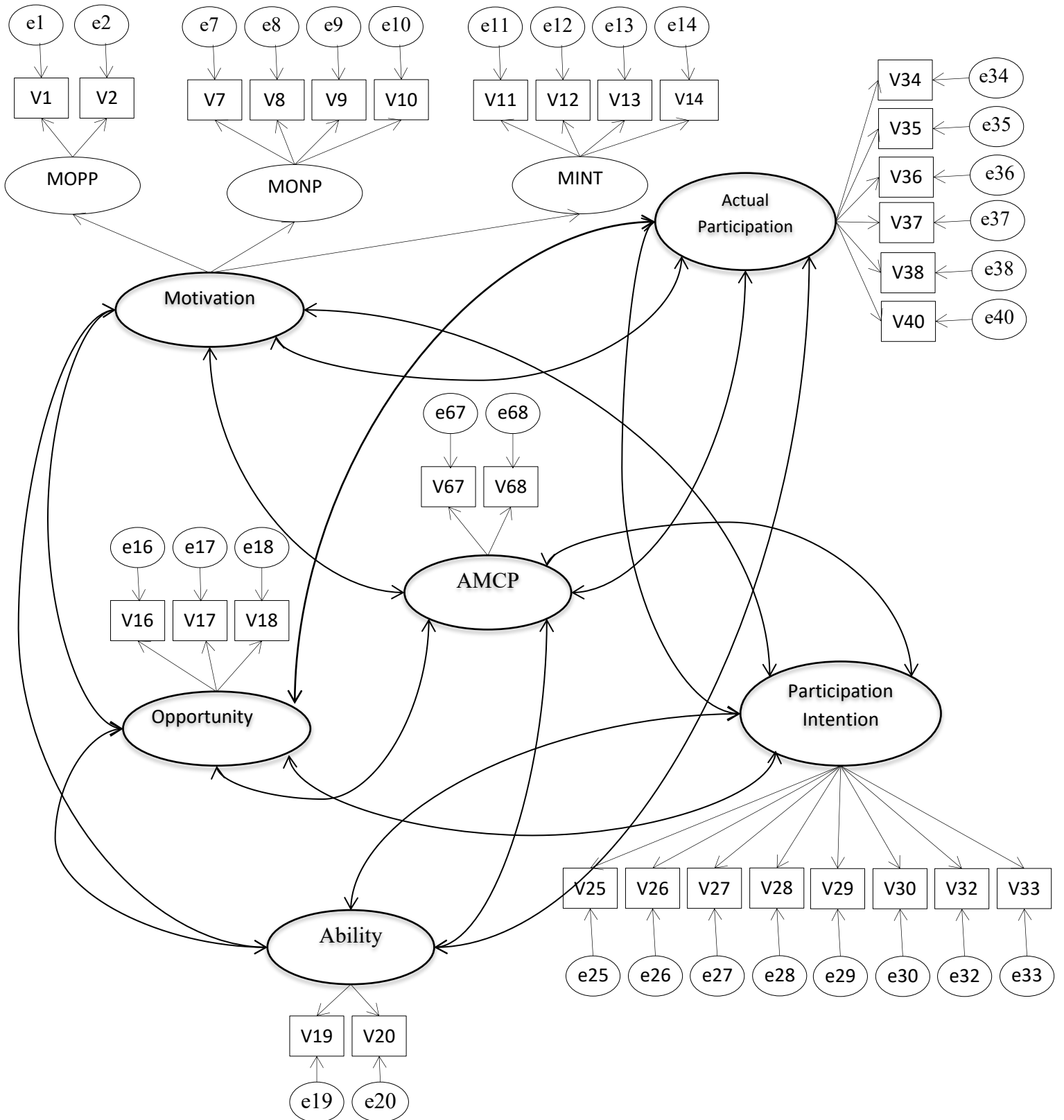
Regarding the aspect of allocating proportionate distribution of the research questionnaires, using the three strata highlighted in step one above, consideration was given to the 24.1% unemployment rate on the island of Saint Lucia. Having made

provision for unemployed residents using the noted statistic, the remainder of the sample was consequently proportioned equally to represent the other two selected groups; that is, between residents who are employed within the tourism industry and those who have no such employment affiliation with tourism: 38% to each group. Of the selected sample $n = 378$ participants, 90 questionnaires should be distributed to unemployed residents, 144 to residents who work in the tourism sector and another 144 to those who work in other sectors not related tourism.

While the preliminary design required the distribution of a total of 378 questionnaires, in actuality, a final total of 303 valid questionnaires were collected due to a number of limitations which are explained below. The acquisition of valid surveys did not affect the intended 5% margin of error, although there was a reduction in the confidence level which was subsequently recorded at 90%. In spite of this occurrence, it has been confirmed by Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) that a sample of 300 participants is sufficiently large when conducting structural analyses of variance and covariance.

Furthermore, it has been agreed that a sample sizes is validated when each parameter being evaluated possesses at least 5 observations or a minimum of 150 observations (De Vellis,1991). Figure 2.5 below demonstrates a diagram of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis for this investigation which meets these standards proposed for satisfactory research samples.

Figure 2.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis



2.5 Research Instrument

In line with the quantitative approach undertaken, a questionnaire was constructed as an appropriate means for measuring the variables of this study. The design of this research instrument had the primary purpose of analyzing local residents' propensity to participate in tourism development by measuring the previously stated four antecedents allocated as either facilitating or inhibiting such participation. The measurement scales of the questionnaire were adapted from previous studies (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2009). The questionnaire consisted of 69 measurement items for which a 7-point Likert scale was used requesting that participants answered the questions based on their level of agreement, with 1 representing "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree". The variables of motivation, opportunity, ability and intention to participate were adopted from measurement scales developed by Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017), while attitudes toward sustainable tourism development by Yu et al. (2009).

The research instrument was replicated from the work of Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) in their investigation of community participation in World Heritage Site conservation and tourism development. Having made appropriate adjustments to fit the specifics of their research, the instrument was also previously utilized by social scientists like Hung et al. (2011), Jepson et al. (2014) and Tosun (2006) whose research were concerned with various levels of behaviors related to or affecting tourism development and planning.

In assessing the reliability and validity of the construct, Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) measured composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) using PLS-SEM. In a review of the statistical analysis results, it was noted that the loading of all indicators exceeded the acceptable standard of .70. In addition, convergent and discriminatory validity of the measurement model also satisfied acceptable standards as proposed by Chin (2010) and Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt (2011) for all measurements.

2.5.1 Motivation to Participate

Drawing reference from the MOA model, motivation has been aligned as a pertinent factor contributing to individual's decision and guides behavior which are guided by

internal driving forces. Considering the above, the construct for measuring motivation to participate is defined by the following three dimensions: residents' positive and negative perceptions of tourism development and residents' interest to participate.

Residents' positive perceptions consists of five items: "Tourism development would create more jobs for my community", "Tourism development would attract more investment to my community", "Our standard of living would increase considerably because of tourism and its development", "Tourism development provides more infrastructure and public facilities like malls, roads, shopping, etc." and "Tourism development enhances the image of local culture and residents take pride in their culture".

Residents' negative perceptions also contains five items: "Local residents would suffer from living in a tourism destination area", "Tourism development would result in traffic congestion, noise, and pollution", "Tourism development would increase the rate of crime", "Tourism development would increase the costs of living" and "The construction of hotels and other tourist facilities would destroy the environment".

And the third dimension of motivation, interest to participate, is represented by four items, which include: "I am interested in participating in the process of decision-making for tourism development", "I will join those activities that are relevant to the promotion of tourism development", "I encourage my friends to participate in planning and the management processes of tourism" and "I am interested in participating in the process of decision-making for development programs".

Notably, the construct reliability for positive perception, negative perception and interests to participate as reported in the analysis presented by Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) were all adequate, possessing CR coefficients of .927, .898 and .949 respectively; convergent validity of .717, .638 and .825, respectively; and discriminant validity of .847, .799 and .907, respectively. In a research conducted by Hung et al. (2011) based on community participation in tourism development, the factor of motivation was unidimensional and measured perceived benefits of tourism. In this research's analysis, the divergent validity was satisfied under the criterion of t-testing,

discriminant validity was below the stipulated .800 and reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha was recorded at .860.

2.5.2 Opportunity to Participate

Opportunity to participate is unidimensional and includes 4 items related to share of power and political will in facilitating low, medium and high levels of participation, which are: "Local authorities and state government officials host meetings or other Local forums regarding tourism programs and tourism development", "Local authorities and state government officials are interested in hearing my opinions regarding tourism programs and tourism development", "Local authorities and state government officials consider my interests in terms of tourism programs and tourism development" and "Local authorities and state government officials provide opportunities for me to be represented in decision-making bodies regarding tourism and tourism development" (Rasoomanilesh et al. (2017).

CR for this factor was .955, average variance extracted (AVE) was .842 and discriminatory validity was .917. The four items noted in this instance were also replicated in the work of Hung et al. (2011) whose analysis proved appropriate the use of these factors given that Cronbach's alfa was .809 and satisfactory convergent and discriminatory analysis.

2.5.3 Ability to Participate

Ability to participate is measured by two dimensions: awareness and knowledge of tourism development, with each comprising 3 items. The question statements related to awareness include: "I keep up with the news regarding tourism programs and tourism development", "I am familiar with tourism programs and tourism development" and "I receive information about tourism program and tourism development in my community", while those questions pertaining to knowledge are "I know a lot about tourism and tourism development in my community", "I know a lot about my community" and "I know how to participate in tourism programs and tourism development".

In the construct analysis the AVEs of both factors, awareness and knowledge, exceeded .5 reaching .853 and .771 respectively, with the CR being noted as .946 and .910, respectively (Rasoomanilesh et al. (2017).

2.5.4 Actual and Intended Participation

As operationalized by Rasoomanilesh et al. (2017), actual participation was measured by one dimension consisting 3 levels: high, medium and low levels of participation, each occupied by three factors. High levels of participation constituted: “I contribute to tourism and tourism development decision-making in my community”, “Local residents have the power to change the decisions taken by local authorities and state government officials regarding tourism development” and “Local authorities and state government officials make decisions based on the opinions of local residents regarding tourism programs and tourism development”; while medium levels included: “I provide assistance/resource for tourism development”, “I meet with local authorities and state government officials to discuss conservation programs and tourism issues” and “I do what local authorities and state government officials ask regarding tourism development”; and low levels of participation “I promote tourism development initiatives by using posters, banner, leaflets, and so on”, “I join those activities that are relevant to the promotion of tourism development” and “I am involved in the tourism industry”. CR for high, medium and low levels were .836, .881 and .830 respectively, with all three factors satisfactorily attaining validity standards.

In regards to the variable of intentions to participate, the researcher of this study adapts an identical tridimensional construct comparable to the one used above to measures the variable of actual participation. Accordingly, one significantly change was uniformly made to all of the nine factors associated with the three dimensions by converting each item to reflect conditionality in order to assess respondents’ intentions towards the behavior of participate in tourism development and planning. As an example, following this guideline, the three items constituting the dimension of high levels of participation is: “I would contribute to tourism and tourism development decision-making in my community”, “I would contribute toward changing the decisions taken by local authorities and state government officials regarding tourism development” and “I would contribute

my opinions regarding tourism programs and tourism development to local authorities and state government officials". The same technique is applied to the remaining two dimensions of medium and low levels of participation.

2.5.5 Attitudes Towards Sustainable Tourism Development

Residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development were adapted from the research instrument used by Yu et al. (2009) in their study focused on attitudes towards sustainable tourism. This investigation was concerned with the reevaluation of the reliability and construct validity of Choi & Sirakaya's (2005) sustainable tourism attitudes scale (SUS-TAS). After their review the researchers presented a shorter version of the SUS-TAS from forty-four items with seven loading factors reduced to twenty-seven items having justifiably eliminated the items that did not meet statistical relevance.

The omissions resulted in strengthening the scale's psychometric properties with Cronbach's Alpha of the variables ranging from .64 ~ .87 and standardized factor loading ranging from .60 ~ .77. While some factor loadings were low this did not affect the credibility of the results. The statistics for the goodness-of-fit indices achieved acceptable measurements: $\chi^2(303) = 690.9$, $p = .00$, RMSEA = .048, GFI = .92, AGFI = .90, CFI = .97, NFI = .95, NNFI = .97, and SRMR = .045.

The seven dimensions include perceived social costs (4 items), environmental sustainability (5 items), long-term planning (4 items), perceived economic benefits (4 items), community-centered economy (3 items), ensuring visitor's satisfaction (4 items) and maximizing community participation (3 items).

2.6 Demographical Classification

Situated at the end of the questionnaire, residents' demographic characteristics were solicited using appropriate range approximations requesting information pertaining to respondents' ages, gender, employment status and employment sectors, community of residency and length of residency, etcetera. Knowledge of such demographic characteristics is pivotal in assessing residents' responses and perceptions. According to Lankford (1994) the analysis of residents' sociodemographic characteristics is critical

in understanding the differences in attitudes of diverse groups, also pointing out that resident's attitudes and judgements influence their level of support and involvement in tourism development.

2.7 Fieldwork and Data Collection

Initially, a pilot test was administered to 35 participants as a means of fine-tuning the data collections instrument and checking the initial psychometric properties of the instrument. This process was used to gather feedback from individuals as a means of enhancing the readability and ease of comprehension of the statement questions. Once this information was assessed the application process of the questionnaires was proceeded, having been undertaken during the periods August to November, 2017 and January to March, 2018. The assistance of two trained assistants was solicited for the distribution of the surveys. They were previously enlightened on the objective of the research and the significance of the information sought out from respondents during the process of the fieldwork.

Various key locations within the district of Gros Islet were chosen as a means of making contact with high volumes of residents and also broadening the randomness and representability of the distribution process. Once contact was made, individuals were asked if they were from the district of Gros Islet and then given a synopsis of the investigation. Further assistance was provided if the respondents encountered any difficulties or doubts in interpreting the questions.

The preliminary design required the distribution of a total of 378 questionnaires. In actuality, a final total of 303 valid questionnaires were collected excluding the sum of approximately 66 surveys which were deemed unusable due to not being entirely completed. While many individuals showed interest in the subject matter of the questionnaires and research, a number of limitations were experienced during the fieldwork. Due to time constraints and/or disinterest, some respondents were reluctant to complete the questionnaire while others opted to provide their email address as a

means of completing the questionnaire in their spare time and then having it forwarded to the researcher.

2.8 Data Processing and Analysis

Following the fieldwork process, the compiled questionnaires were organized and then transferred into a Microsoft Excel data base. Subsequently, the SPSS program was used to analyze the validity of the data collected for each questionnaire and preliminary reliability of the constructs' variables was tested. Once these checks were verified, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling were conducted using the EQS 6.3 program. The findings from the data processing stage were then thoroughly analyzed and presented followed by a discussion of the results. Conclusions were made drawing implications for the island of Saint Lucia and future research endeavors.

Chapter 3
DATA ANALYSIS AND
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter focuses on the analysis of the data collected. In the first instance descriptive analysis of the demographic characteristics of respondents is presented followed by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) between three groups distinguished by employment statuses. Thereafter the data process and results for reliability testing via the SPSS program are presented followed by the report from the confirmatory factor analysis and structural equational modelling conducted using the EQS software.

A total of 303 questionnaires were used in the final data analysis process. To ensure that the surveys being used were valid, the frequencies of the 69 indicators/items were processed using the SPSS program. The results of this analysis presented missing values for each variable, showing a total of 17 missing values. The majority of variables have a maximum of one missing value out of 303 except for 'Maximum Community Participation' where 3 values were recorded. Furthermore, only one questionnaire registered a maximum of 3 missing values, with another 12 questionnaires missing 1 value per questionnaire. Considering these results, all 303 questionnaires analyzed were accepted as valid.

3.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Demographic Information

The examination of the gender of respondents showed a total of 66.6% (N = 202) which are females and 33.4% (N = 101) are males. Regarding the ages of the sample's respondents, 6.9% (N = 21) are 20 years or less (14 are females and 7 are males); 34% (N = 103) are 20-29 years (72 females and 31 males); 36.6% (N = 111) are 30-39 years (68 females and 43 males); 14.5% (N = 44) are 40-49 years (30 females and 14 males); 4.3% (N = 13) are 50-60 and represent females only; and 0.7% (N = 2) are 61 years and older (1female and 1 male). The majority of respondents were recorded to be between 20-39 years which represents 70.6% of the total sample as seen in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Demographic profile by age and gender

Age	Female	Male	Total	%
Under 20	14	7	21	6.9
20-29	72	31	103	34.0
30-39	68	43	111	36.6
40-49	30	14	44	14.5
50-60	13		13	4.3
61+	1	1	2	0.7
Missing data			9	3.0
Total	198	96	303	100

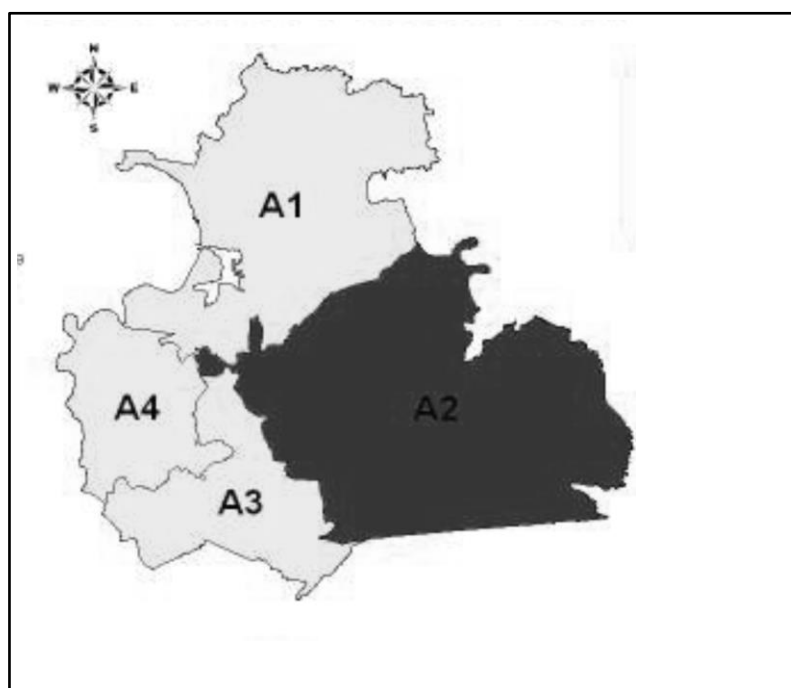
Regarding the employment status of the sample, 16.8% (N = 51) of the participants are unemployed, 31.7% (N = 96) are employed in the tourism industry while 51.5% (N = 156) of the individuals were employed in private and public sectors not related to tourism. Of the 202 females represented in the sample, 14.9% (N = 30) are unemployed, 32.7% (N = 66) are employed in the tourism industry and 51% (N = 103) employed in non-tourism related sectors. Of the 101 males respondents, 52.5% (N = 53) are employed in non-tourism related sectors while 29.7% (N = 30) are directly employed in the tourism industry and 15.8% (N = 16) represent unemployed males. (See Table 3.2)

Table 3.2 Demographic profile by employment status and gender

Employment Status	Female		Male		Total
		%		%	
Unemployed	33	16.3	18	17.8	46
Tourism Industry	66	32.7	30	29.7	96
Non-Tourism Industry					
Private Sector	37	18.3	20	19.8	57
Public Sector	65	32.2	29	28.7	94
Self Employed	1	0.5	4	4.0	5
Total	202	66.7	101	33.3	303

The sample population used in this research follows the guidelines of the constituency polling divisions of the district of Gros Islet as stipulated by the Saint Lucia Electoral office (Saint Lucia Electoral Department). Therefore, the use of the four subdivisions as seen in Figure 3.1 below have been acknowledged as the guideline for the geographical delineation of the research area.

Figure 3.1 Map of Gros Islet – Electoral subdivisions



Source: Saint Lucia Electoral Department

The percentage of electorates (referring to the voting population) per division was also used to gauge the representativeness of respondents' from each electoral subdivision or polling area (See Table 3.3). Division A1 is inhabited by a total of 42.9% of the electorate of Gros Islet and is also identified as the central hub for tourism activities and infrastructure. The remaining three divisions/zones are characterized more specifically as residential areas.

Table 3.3 Number of participants per polling division

Polling Division	Electorate		Actual	
	Per Division	Percentage	Participants	Percentage
A1	7,732	42.9	129	42.6
A2	3,662	20.3	58	19.1
A3	1,623	9.0	39	12.9
A4	4,998	27.7	51	16.8
Missing data			26	8.6
Total	18,015		303	

3.2 Variance Among Groups Based on Employment Status

Table 3.5 below presents the results of a One Way ANOVA test which was conducted to analyze the variance of individuals' responses to the research survey making a distinction between three groups based on employment status. As such, the supposition is made that residents' responses to the subject matter of this investigation would be significantly influenced or differentiated based on the demographic characteristic of employment status.

The three groups include: (1) residents who are employed within tourism, (2) those who are employed but not within the tourism industry and (3) unemployed residents. Following the ideologies of Economic Dependency and Social Exchange Theory, it is hypothesized that respondents' who are employed in or are more directly associated with the tourism industry are more susceptible to favorability of tourism development. In this sense, Harrill (2004) and Ap (1992) explained the effects of the theories by stating that individuals who are economic or social beneficiaries of the tourism product would be more inclined towards supporting and taking part in tourism and its development. This means, tourism employees would be more positively inclined towards tourism than other employees who were not associated with the tourism sector and unemployed residents.

In the analysis, significant differences were confirmed between and among the three groups in relation to the independent variables of motivation, opportunity, ability and

intention to participate in tourism development and actual participation. Notably, significant variance was not supported for only one of the independent variables, which is that of attitudes towards maximizing community participation ($p = .84$). See Table 3.4 below

Table 3.4 Descriptive and ANOVA statistics

Employment Status	Mean	Standard Deviation	ANOVA	
			<i>f</i>	sig
Motivation to participate in tourism development			9.52	.00
Tourism	4.84	.75		
Non-Tourism	4.55	.81		
Unemployed	5.05	.67		
Opportunity to participate in tourism development			5.71	.00
Tourism	3.32	1.53		
Non-Tourism	2.74	1.28		
Unemployed	2.75	1.40		
Ability to participate in tourism development			3.95	.02
Tourism	5.13	1.21		
Non-Tourism	4.68	1.31		
Unemployed	4.95	1.08		
Intention to participate in tourism development			8.51	.00
Tourism	5.25	1.13		
Non-Tourism	4.65	1.22		
Unemployed	5.03	.93		
Actual participation in tourism development			12.63	.00
Tourism	3.41	1.37		
Non-Tourism	2.75	1.27		
Unemployed	2.39	1.12		
Attitudes towards maximizing community participation			.17	.84
Tourism	5.39	1.44		
Non-Tourism	5.32	1.54		
Unemployed	5.33	1.57		

** Mean values significantly different @ $p < 0.05$ with 95% confidence level*

Table 3.5 Analysis of Variance between groups based on employment status

	Tourism Sector		Non-tourism		Unemployed	
	Non-Tourism	Unemployed	Tourism Sector	Unemployed	Tourism Sector	Unemployed
Motivation	0.010*	0.286	0.010*	0.000*	0.286	0.000*
Opportunity	0.004	0.047*	0.004*	0.999	0.047*	0.999
Ability	0.017*	0.684	0.017*	0.379	0.684	0.379
Intentions to Participate	0.000*	0.532	0.000*	0.093	0.532	0.093
Actual Participation	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	0.190	0.000*	0.190
Attitudes	0.942	0.836	0.942	0.935	0.836	0.935

*** Variance significant at $p < .05$**

A summary is presented below of the significant differences noted from the ANOVA test. In processing this analysis, descriptive statistics were extracted reproducing the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) for each variable as noted in table 6. This was followed by the ANOVA and pos hoc test which confirmed the significant differences between and within the selected groups. In ANOVA, significance is achieved when the critical p-value is lower than the alfa of .50. Before analyzing the data, Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances was conducted to verify the applicability of the results reproduced proving that there exist significant differences between and among variables. According to Uriel & Aldás (2005), homogeneity is validated once the significant values noted in Levine's test exceed 1% or 5%, a condition which was met in this instance as the significant values exceeded the requirement suggested ranging from 0.50 ~ 0.796.

3.2.1 Motivation to Participate in Tourism Development

Significant differences were noted between (1) tourism employees and non-tourism employees and between (2) non-tourism employees and unemployed residents with all three groups registering positive levels of motivation (M = 4.55 to 5.05). Non-tourism employees appeared to have the lowest levels of motivation in comparison to the other two groups with unemployed residents showing the highest level of motivation to participate.

3.2.2 Opportunity to Participate in Tourism Development

For the opportunity variable, the three groups registered varying levels of disagreement (M = 2.74 to 3.32) which infers that general low levels of opportunity exist through which the state provides adequate structures/circumstances to facilitate citizens' participation in tourism development. The significant differences are seen between (1) tourism employees and non-tourism employees and between (2) tourism employees and unemployed residents. Unemployed residents and non-tourism employees showed more significant levels of disagreement than residents employed in the tourism industry.

3.2.3 Ability to Participate in Tourism Development

For the ability variable, a significant difference was noted only between tourism employees and non-tourism employees with both groups showing agreeability towards ability levels (M = 4.68 to 5.13). Considering the operationalization of attitudes in this research it is concluded that residents who work in the tourism industry are more aware of tourism programs and development than residents who are employed in private and public sectors not related to tourism.

3.2.4 Intention to Participate in Tourism Development

Residents employed in the tourism industry showed higher intention to participate in tourism than those non-tourism employees. These results suggest that regarding the

intention to participate in tourism decision-making measured by residents' willingness to provide their opinions to tourism planners, unemployed residents appear more interested than non-tourism employees (M = 4.65 to 5.25).

3.2.5 Actual Participation in Tourism Development - Community Participation

Actual participation refers to involved in tourism planning and decision-making. All three groups showed disagreement for having actually participated (M = 2.39 ~ 3.41). Significant differences were noted between (1) tourism employees and non-tourism employees and between (2) tourism employees and unemployed residents. The two groups not associated directly with tourism employment showed lower levels of actual participation than residents employed in the tourism industry.

3.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis: An Analysis of the Measurement Model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a 'confirmatory technique' used to validate the proposed theoretic construct of a measurement model through testing the relationships between observed variables and latent factors. This analysis considers the comparison of a population covariance matrix and an observed covariance matrix, with the hope that the difference between the observed and estimated matrices is minimal (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006).

For this research, a CFA was conducted as a means of testing the psychometric properties of the proposed theoretical model using the robust maximum likelihood method processed through the EQS 6.3 software. To gauge the overall fit of the model, goodness-of-fit was conducted using chi-square (χ^2) estimates. The goodness-of-fit method is necessary as it 'assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices' (Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 2). In order to validate the fit of the measurement model, the following indices should achieve recommended thresholds which include scores between .90 and .95 for the Normed Fit Index (NFI: Bentler & Bonnet, 1980), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI: Bentler & Bonnet, 1980), Comparative Fit Index (CFI: Bentler, 1990) and Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI) (Coughlan & Mullen,

2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Hooper, Kline, 2005). Additionally, the estimate of Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) of .80 or less is necessary to confirm goodness-of-fit (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996).

In conducting the CFA for this model, a necessary decision was made to eliminate items with low standardized loading to avoid the problem of poor convergent validity. According to Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson (2014) standardized loading estimates of factors are a good measure for construct validity and should be recorded at a minimum of .50, although .70 has been deemed as more ideal. Consequently, loading values below the .50 mark is considered a justifiable reason for the deletion of indicators once this aids to improving the fit of the model.

For the attitudes construct, while the original intention of this investigation was to measure residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development using a seven dimensional scale, low indices were registered for the goodness-of-fit estimates in the second order CFA analysis. In spite of significant estimates in the first order analysis indices were noted as $\chi^2(682) = 1,902.4548$, $p = .00$, NFI = .646, NNFI = .714, CFI = .737, IFI = .740 and RMSEA = .078.

To remedy this, a unidimensional factor for measuring residents' attitudes was decided upon through the elimination of all other dimensions with the exception of the dimension of 'maximizing community participation'. This dimension was retained as it measured an appropriate measure of residents' attitudes in consideration to the direction of the investigation, and includes the items: [AMCP1] "Tourism decisions must be made by all members in communities regardless of a person's background" and [AMCP2] "Full participation by everyone in the community regarding tourism decisions is a must for successful tourism development".

This decision was put into effect as a means of improving the functionality and overall fit of the model and also reducing the number of parameters in the measurement construct in relations to the corresponding data and sample size available/ being used (Hatcher, 1994 and Ullman, 1996). These adjustments reproduced acceptable robust fit indices

which include: $\chi^2 (465) = 4,785.295$, $p = .00$, RMSEA = .053, NFI = .842, NNFI = .912, CFI = .921 and IFI = .922, verifying the goodness-of-fit of the measurement model.

With regards to evaluating the reliability of the measurement construct, the results of the CFA presented the following Cronbach's Alfa (α) values: .68 for motivation, .91 for opportunity, .79 for ability, .88 for attitudes, .92 for participation intention and .88 for actual participation. Furthermore, the Composite Reliability (CR) for these factors ranges from .811 ~ .927 with Average Variance Extracted (AVE) ranging from .566 ~ .796. The Cronbach's Alfa results satisfy the .70 benchmark needed to confirm reliability of the observed and latent variables as specified by Nunnally & Bernstein (1994). Moreover, Bagozzi & Yi (1988) recommended that AVE of dimensions should be greater than .50 while Fornell & Larcker (1981) suggested a .60 minimum for the CR of latent variables. Agreeably, the results above confirm appropriate internal consistency of the research model (See Table 3.6 below).

In verifying convergent validity, the standardized loading of each indicator should measure at about .60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Convergence therefore is indicative of the correlations among a latent variable's indicators, which is expected to be high (closer to one) in order to be considered significant. Notably, the factor loadings for each of the variables exceed the .60 standard except for two items related to motivation: [MONP3] "The construction of hotels and other tourist facilities would destroy the environment" and [MONP4] "Tourism development would increase the costs of living". As both were close enough to the .60 mark at .599 and .576 respectively, they were retained (See Table 3.6). Furthermore, the average loading for all factors is statistically satisfactory ranging from .740 ~ .892. Hair & Sarstedt (2011) also explained that significance in convergent validity is met when AVE values exceed .50, "meaning that the latent variable explains more than half of its indicators' variance" (p, 146), a condition which is met as seen above.

Proceeding to discriminant validity, which refers to the ability of each factor within the construct to distinctly measure its stated concept, producing low levels of correlations among themselves (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988); Table 3.7 shows the assessment of the measurement construct for which discriminant validity was verified. All but one of the

squared correlation coefficients exceeded the corresponding AVE value while the confidence intervals (\pm two standard deviations) for all but one of the paired dimensions remain below 1. To address doubts for the correlation between motivation and participation intention, which exceeded the recommendation for the interval boundary and squared correlation value as noted above, subsequent discriminant validity was computed through the chi-square difference test. Resultantly, the test proved the comparison of the χ^2 values for two models did not present a significant difference, inferring the verification of discriminant validity between the two factors as stipulated by Anderson & Gerbing (1988).

Factor	Item Code	CONVERGENT VALIDITY			RELIABILITY		
		Factor loading	Loading average	Robust t-value	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Motivation							
Positive perspectives	MOPP1	.969	.740	1.00	.68	.927	.566
		MOPP2		.738			
Negative perspectives	MONP2	.664		1.00			
	MONP3	.744		8.24			
	MONP4	.599		8.45			
Interest	MONP5	.576		7.74			
	MOIN1	.849		1.00			
	MOIN2	.902		17.87			
	MOIN3	.683		1.47			
	MOIN4	.699		10.80			
Opportunity							
	OPPO2	.907	.892	1.00	.91	.921	.796
	OPPO3	.919		21.64			
	OPPO4	.849		18.19			
Ability							
	ABAW1	.843	.826	1.00	.79	.811	.682
	ABAW2	.808		8.29			
Attitudes							
Maximizing community participation							
	AMCP1	.719	.860	1.00	.88	.860	.758
	AMCP2	1.000		9.14			
Participation Intention							
	PAIN1	.777	.770	1.00	.92	.920	.592
	PAIN2	.841		15.57			
	PAIN3	.82		10.60			
	PAIN4	.852		12.64			
	PAIN5	.784		10.40			
	PAIN6	.647		12.52			
	PAIN8	.713		10.18			
	PAIN9	.695		9.95			
Actual Participation							
	PAHL1	.722	.730	1.00	.88	.875	.540
	PAHL2	.703		12.32			
	PAHL3	.655		12.35			
	PAML1	.811		17.88			
	PAML2	.794		14.09			
	PALL1	.712		14.9			
Goodness-of-fit indexes							
S-B χ^2 (465) = 4,785.295 (p = 0.00000)			BBNFI	BBNNFI	CFI	IFI	RMSEA
			.842	.912	.921	.922	.053

Table 3.6 Covariance matrix of latent constructs - Φ (correlations among factors)

	MOT	OPP	ABI	AMCP	P-INT	P-ACT
MOT	0.566	[.057, .449]	[.250, .658]	[.199, .667]	[.574, 1.034]	[.143, .543]
OPP	0.064	0.796	[-.010, .414]	[-.081, .343]	[.027, .391]	[.362, .918]
ABI	0.206	0.041	0.682	[.012, .428]	[.266, .650]	[.179, .631]
AMCP	0.187	0.017	0.048	0.758	[.125, .525]	[-.087, .313]
P-INT	0.646	0.044	0.21	0.106	0.592	[.150, .526]
P-ACT	0.118	0.41	0.164	0.013	0.114	0.54

Note. The diagonal represents average variance extracted values; the shared variances (squared correlations) are below the diagonal; above the diagonal are the 90% confidence intervals.

MOT = Motivation; OPP = Opportunity; ABI = Ability; AMCP = Attitudes towards maximizing community participation; P-INT = Interest to participate; P-ACT = Actual participation.

3.3 Structural Equational Modelling: An Analysis of the Structural Model

After having verified the psychometric properties of the measurement model, the structural model was analyzed. Structural Equational Modelling (SEM) has been commonly used as an essential tool for evaluating hypothetical models by assessing the relationship of the variables within such structures (Hu & Bentler, 1999). SEM therefore is used by researchers to verify stated hypotheses or paths within structural models.

For this research, eight hypotheses have been put forward (See Figure 3.4 below). Considering that the eight relationships have been theoretically justified in the literature review of this investigation, SEM hence aims at substantiating the statistical significance of the effect of the exogenous variables (motivation, opportunity and ability) on endogenous variables (attitudes towards maximizing community participation, participation intentions and actual participation) in this study. That is, the relationship between independent and latent variables.

After having adequately specified the structural model, the goodness-of-fit was examined and confirmed by the results $\chi^2(419) = 1,016.4181$, $p = .00$, RMSEA = .069, NFI = .788, NNFI = .847, CFI = .862 and IFI = .863.

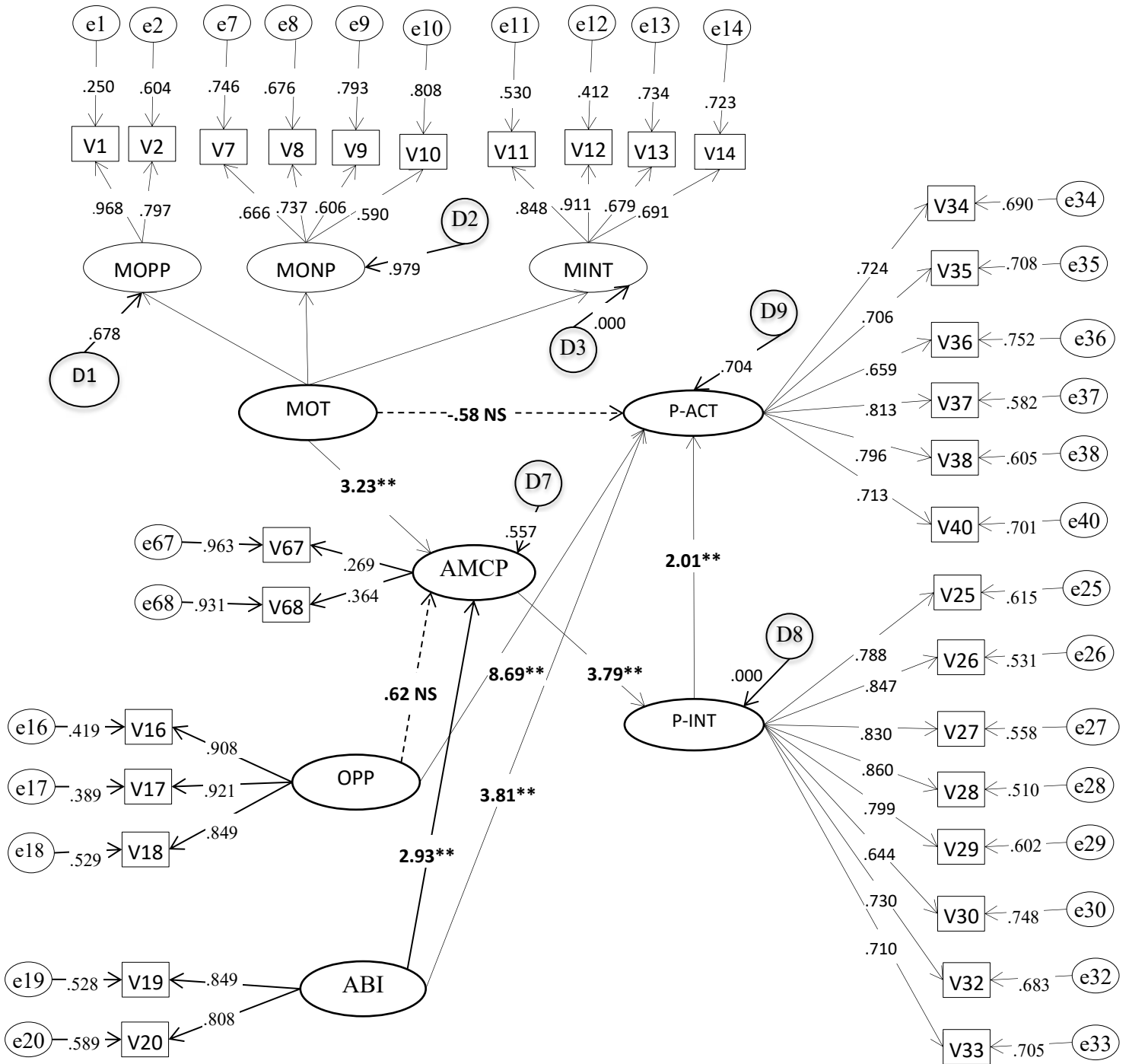
In relation to the hypotheses put forward in this study, the structural analysis provided statistical acceptance for six of the relationships proposed while two were rejected (see Table 3.8 below). The results show that motivation to participate positively influences attitudes towards maximizing community participation, accepting H1 ($\beta = 3.23$; $p < .001$) while the relationship between motivation and actual participation was not validated, resulting in the rejection of H4 ($\beta = -.58$; $p < .001$). H2 was also rejected proving that opportunity to participate did not impacted on attitudes towards maximizing community participation ($\beta = .62$; $p < .001$) while the positive relationship between opportunity to participate and actual participation in H5 was accepted ($\beta = 8.61$; $p < .001$). Ability to participate positively impacted on both actual participation ($\beta = 3.81$; $p < .001$) and attitudes towards maximizing community participation ($\beta = 2.93$; $p < .001$), accepting the hypotheses of H6 and H3, respectively. And finally, H7 and H8 were accepted, confirming that attitudes towards maximizing community participation positively influence intentions to participate ($\beta = 3.79$; $p < .001$) and that intentions to participate positively influence actual participation in tourism development ($\beta = 2.01$; $p < .05$). See Table 3.8 and Figure 3.2 below

Table 3.7 Structural Equation Modelling: Causal relationship analysis

Hypotheses	Structural Relation	®	Robust <i>t</i>	Testing		
H1	Motivation to participate → Attitudes towards maximizing community participation	.659	3.23**	Accept		
H2	Opportunity to participate → Attitudes towards maximizing community participation	.039	.62	Reject		
H3	Ability to participate → Attitudes towards maximizing community participation	.301	2.93**	Accept		
H4	Motivation to participate → Actual participation	-.034	-.58	Reject		
H5	Opportunity to participate → Actual participation	.570	8.61**	Accept		
H6	Ability to participate → Actual participation	.243	3.81**	Accept		
H7	Attitudes towards maximizing community participation → Intention to participate	.868	3.79**	Accept		
H8	Intention to participate → Actual participation	.130	2.01*	Accept		
Goodness-of-fit indexes		BBNFI	BBNNFI	CFI	IFI	RMSEA
S-B χ^2 (418) = 1,014.6914 (p = 0.00000)		0.788	0.847	0.862	0.863	0.069

*p < .05; **p < .001.

Figure 3.2 Diagram of the Structural Equation Modelling



3.4 Discussion of the Results

3.4.1 Descriptive Analysis of Variance Among Groups

The primary content of this thesis investigation was to focus on the factors affecting local communities' participation in tourism development on the island of Saint Lucia. This was achieved through an analysis of four principle antecedents which are predicted as having a positive and significant effect on residents' intentions to participate and actual participation in tourism development. These factors include motivation, opportunity and ability to participate, and also residents' attitudes towards maximizing community participation (Hung et al., 2011; Jepson et al., 2014; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). It was therefore assumed that the availability of each antecedent results in the facilitation of the local people's involvement in tourism development on the island.

It is agreed that the local community is not a homogeneous entity (Brunt & Courtney, 1999) but rather, within it there exists diverse groups of individuals who are distinctively characterized. Noting this, it is expected that to some extent individuals would react differently to the various factors proposed in this study. So, as a means of gaining insight of the predispositions and dissimilarities that may exist to individuals' responses to the subject matter expressed in the research instrument, the population sample was stratified into three groups. These groups are distinguished by the participants' economic status, and include: tourism employees, non-tourism employees and unemployed residents. The analysis of variance among these three groups was processed through a One Way ANOVA statistical analysis.

Grouping the residents by employment status (affiliation with the tourism sector) is substantiated by theories that align varying levels of benefits received from tourism as potential influencers of distinctive behaviors in the tourism field (Harril, 2004). Such theories include that of Economic Dependency and the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Ap, 1992; Lee, 2012; Wang & Pfister; 2008). Based on these rationalizations, the supposition was made that the level of economic benefits gained from tourism acts as a viable determinant of respondents' propensity to participate in tourism development. Such dependency is therefore expected to notably impact their perceptions and

reactions towards the factors that are proposed here as affecting participatory tourism behaviors.

Not surprisingly, the ANOVA statistics reproduced significant variances between and within groups with significant p-values ranging from .000 ~ .020 (see Table 3.4). These results indicate support for the hypothesized assumption made of the existence of response variance resulting from residents' employment status and dependence on tourism. Significance for One Way ANOVA is noted at $p < .50$ and was achieved for all the associated dependent variables except attitudes towards maximizing community participation, which has a p-value of .847.

For motivation to participate, significant variance of responses are noted between tourism employees ($M = 4.84$, $SD = .77$) and non-tourism employees ($M = 4.55$, $SD = .81$) and between non-tourism employees ($M = 4.55$, $SD = .81$) and unemployed residents ($M = 5.05$, $SD = .67$). Also, considering the 7-point Likert scale used for gauging respondents' agreeability where 1 represented "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree", all three groups are seen as displaying agreeability, confirming respondents' motivation to participate in tourism development. See Figure 3.5

In this study motivation is defined by residents' perceptions and their interest to participate in tourism. The analysis proved that all three groups appeared to be motivated to participate. This condition has been affirmed in literary productions that point out that amidst the positive and negative impacts that influence citizens' perceptions of tourism development, residents are generally willing and motivated to participate in tourism development (Andereck & Vogt 2000; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). In comparing the means among the groups, it was confirmed that tourism employees are more highly motivated. Research has shown that citizens who directly benefits from tourism either by income and/or employment hold more positive perceptions of tourism in spite of the impending negative impacts and costs incurred by the industry's development (Ap, 1992). As a result, those who stand to benefit more directly from tourism appear more willing and interested in the consideration of aspects related to the tourism sector. As non-tourism employees on the other hand do not share this

dependence, this may explain the reduced value of their motivation to participate in comparison to that of tourism employees ($p = .010$).

A significant variance was also noted between unemployed residence and non-tourism employees ($p = .000$). While unemployed residents may not be direct beneficiaries of the tourism sector, they may view the sector as a potential opportunity for employment and income earnings hence their propensity to be motivated ($M = 5.05$, $SD = .67$). Meanwhile, non-tourism employees may not share such justifications and necessity being that they are employed outside the tourism sector, which may explain the lower level of their motivation ($M = 4.55$, $SD = .81$). The island of Saint Lucia is heavily dependent on tourism like many other neighboring islands for example Barbados, Antigua and Grenada; and so, the people understand the role of the industry in contributing to their livelihood both communally and personally, an argument which may be used to explain their motivation to participate. Finally, it is concluded that tourism-employed and unemployed residents display higher levels of motivation to participate in tourism development than non-tourism affiliated employees, a result which is also substantiated by the dependency theory.

The ANOVA results for opportunity to participate confirmed that significance of variance exists for responses between the groups of tourism-employed and non-tourism employed respondents ($p = 0.004$) and also between tourism-employed respondents and the unemployed ($p = 0.047$). Examining the mean scores it was concluded the three groups all registered disagreement to the availability of opportunities to participate in tourism development in the local community of Gros Islet, and by extension, in Saint Lucia. The lower opportunity levels were reported by non-tourism employees ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.28$) and unemployed residents ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.40$). The responses from tourism employees were significantly different in comparison to the other two groups as seen in the p-values above (see Table 3.5) with average responses of $M = 3.32$ and $SD = 1.53$.

The low mean results for opportunity to participate in tourism development are not surprising considering that the majority of literature on this subject point to a lack of

circumstances facilitating opportunities for the local community to participation, especially in the case of developing countries (Hung et al., 2014; Jepson, 2014; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Tosun, 2000). Conway & Timms (2010) and Pattullo (1996) agreed that paternalism, top-down planning, highly centralized and bureaucratic administration of tourism have been barriers to enabling conditions for local community participation within Caribbean islands like Saint Lucia, Jamaica, Barbados, Saint Vincent and Dominica. As such, the results in this portion of the study provide evidence of these assessments as all three groups of respondents perceive that local government and state officials have not facilitated more substantial means for their participation in tourism.

For ability to participate, significant variances were noted between tourism employees and non-tourism employees ($p = .017$) with average responses of $M = 5.13$, $SD = 1.21$ and $M = 4.68$, $SD = 1.31$, respectively. This suggests that effectively, both groups expressed that they “somewhat” possess the ability to participate in tourism development. Considering these statistical differences it is also inferred that tourism employees in Saint Lucia are more aware of initiatives and programs relating to tourism development in their environs than employees who are not directly related to tourism.

In a study of three groups' levels of community participation in heritage tourism, Su & Wall (2012) also verified significant differences among responses in a similar manner. The groups were differentiated based on their involvement in the heritage site, with community residents being the least involved group while employees of the heritage site and small business owners were cited as having more significant and direct involvement. The examination of the knowledge of the tourism initiatives being implemented appeared to be higher among the group of employees who were in closer proximity to the information source and those more directly involved in the planning of the heritage site. The other two groups, local residents and small business owners registered lower levels of awareness regarding the ongoing project cited. Such direct involvement in tourism planning aspects may therefore result in more awareness of programs either due to closeness to the information source or interest influenced by people's economic reliance on tourism from employment.

Regarding interest to participate, a high level of statistical significance was seen between tourism employees and non-tourism employees ($p = .000$). While both groups expressed the intention to participate in tourism development, tourism employees appeared to possess high intentions to participate ($M = 5.13$, $SD = 1.13$) than non-tourism employees ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.22$). As expressed earlier, in the Caribbean, the primary economy for most if not all of the small islands is tourism and as a result the region remains very dependent on the industry. Residents' interest to participate in the industry's management and decision-making is understandable considering its contribution to the island's economy and the consequential implications on host communities' livelihoods. Tourism employees especially may stand to be more invested and interested due to the direct benefits that they accrue mainly from employment and income.

For actual participation of residents in tourism development, the ANOVA analysis also provided statistical significance for variance between tourism employees and non-tourism employees ($p = .000$) and between tourism employees and unemployed residents ($p = .000$). Interestingly, while all three groups of residents demonstrated willingness to participate in tourism development, their responses pointed to a common disagreement for their actual participation in tourism decision-making and planning. The means observed for actual participation were higher for tourism employees ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.13$) than that of non-tourism ($M = 2.39$, $SD = 1.22$) and unemployed residents ($M = 2.39$, $SD = .93$). These statistics follow the previous patterns of variance among the groups where tourism employees appear to exert more significant efforts and express more favorable responses for the content relating to community participation and the corresponding antecedents affecting participatory behaviors in this investigation.

There was no significance noted in the ANOVA analysis among the groups for the dependent variable of attitudes towards maximizing community participation. This is due to the relatively close means for each group: tourism employees ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.37$), non-tourism employees ($M = 5.32$, $SD = 1.27$) and unemployed residents ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 1.12$). The interpretation of the means confirms that residents' have positive attitudes

towards maximizing community participation in tourism development in Saint Lucia.

3.4.2 The Structural Model and Hypothesized Relationships

Hypothesis 1 (H1) of this investigation proposed that motivation to participate in tourism development has a positive impact on residents' attitudes towards maximizing community participation. The hypothesis was accepted in the structural analysis ($\beta = 3.23$, $r = .659$). This outcome implies that motivation to participate in tourism development does have a positive influence on the host community's attitudes towards maximizing community participation. See Table 3.8 above

Motivation to participate is reflective of residents' interest in the participatory tourism approach and the extent that they are willing to engage in profound retrospection and examination of the positive and negative aspects of the subject matter in this study. In an attempt to substantiate the motivation-attitude-behavior relationship, the MODE model established by Fazio (1990) claims that "some motivating force is necessary to induce individuals to engage in reasoning" (p. 91). The presence of motivation is thus particularly necessary for those instances where attitude formation is reliant on a deliberative process, as is in the case of this study. Such deliberation suggests that effortful reflection of the subject matter is required by individuals. Therefore, in the presence of some level of motivation individuals' attitudes are expected to be activated.

To add to this, MacInnis et al. (1991) in their research on information processing for advertisements agreed that motivation to process brand information is a productive ingredient to achieving positive brand attitudes. In an analysis of Chaiken's (1980) modes for processing persuasive communications, it is suggested that "Only when message recipients are motivated by the personal relevance of the issue at hand do they show evidence of having expended the effort of carefully considering the quality of the presented arguments" (Fazio, 1990, p. 93).

In a review of residents' average responses for the motivation construct in this investigation, a mean score of $M = 4.81$ with $SD = .74$ was achieved, confirming residents' motivation towards maximizing participating in tourism development (see

Table 3.4). Accordingly, this level of motivation is accredited as inducing residents' attitudes towards maximizing community participation in tourism development, which is further confirmed by the average responses relating to residents' attitudes of $M = 5.35$.

The second hypothesis (H2) which draws a relationship between opportunity to participate and resident's attitudes towards maximizing community participation was rejected, see Table 3.8. This result assumes that the availability of opportunities to participate does not have a significant effect on residents' attitudes towards maximizing community participation ($\beta = .62, r = .039$).

In analyzing the descriptive statistics for the opportunity construct, residents' responses suggested that they had not been provided with opportunities necessary to push them towards participate in tourism ($M = 2.94, SD = 1.40$) yet they continue to exhibit positive attitudes. These statistics prove that in spite of residents' sentiment that their needs and views were not being considered by local government and tourism authorities coupled with the unavailability of circumstances necessary to enable their participation, residents continue to exude positive attitudes towards community participation. Hence in the absence of the opportunity to participate in tourism development, residents would still have positive attitudes.

While H2 was not substantiated in the structural model, opportunity does play a significant role to community participation in tourism development (see H5 below). This means that the state and other authorities should play close attention to fostering more open channels of communication, decentralized tourism planning and administrative systems and alleviating other constraints that do not permit residents to be more active participants in tourism planning and its development (Behaire & Elliott-White, 1999; Tosun, 2000).

In hypothesis 3 (H3), it is proposed that ability to participate has a positively impact on residents' attitudes. This hypothesis was accepted ($\beta = 2.93$ and $r = .301$) and therefore confirms that residents' awareness of tourism initiatives and programs on the island and in their local area does positively influence their attitudes towards maximizing community participation.

In their study of brand advertisement and information processing, MacInnis et al. (1991) substantiated the positive relationship between individuals' ability to process information in advertisements and brand attitudes. This assertion supports the claim that the ability to perform a behavior contributes to individuals developing attitudes towards that behavior.

A review of residents' responses to the ability construct presented an average value of $M = 4.92$, proving that residents' perceived themselves to be capable of participating in tourism development beyond the realm of employment, further solidifying the ability-attitude relationship proposed in other literary works by Fazio (1986), MacInnis et al. (1991) and Petty & Cacioppo (1986).

It was further hypothesized that motivation, opportunity and ability to participate in tourism development all have a positive relationship on the local community's actual participation in tourism development, representing H4, H5 and H6 respectively. The structural analyses for H5 and H6 were accepted, inferring that opportunity and ability to participate positively influence actual participation. However, the relationship between motivation to participate and actual participation in tourism development was not significant, resulting in the rejection of H4. See Table 3.8

The rejection of the structural relationship between motivation to participate and actual participation in tourism development ($\beta = -.58$, $r = -.034$) suggests that motivation to participate is not a good predictor of actual participation in tourism development especially in the context of tourism development in Saint Lucia. That is, while residents may be motivated to participate in tourism development this will not always translate into actual participation. In a review of the descriptive statistics, while residents' appeared to be motivated ($M = 4.8$) the evidence indicated that they did not exemplify real participation in tourism development ($M = 2.85$), hence the rejection of the hypothesis.

In the previously cited study by Hung et al. (2011) a similar observation was made regarding the rejection of the hypothesis that citizen's motivation to participate positively and significantly influences community participation in tourism development. These

authors discussed the rejection of the structural relationship as possibly being attributed to their use of the unidimensional factor of positive perceptions to measure motivation and recommended that future studies account for residents' interests and negative perceptions to better analyze the motivation construct. All of these dimensions were considered in this current study and the hypothesis was similarly rejected. This goes on to prove that motivation does not directly impact residents' actual participation in tourism development.

The rejection of H4 may also be related to residents' perceptions not being a strong enough motivator for eliciting direct participation. While generally residents are supportive of tourism development, their perceptions are not solely positive as they do acknowledge the existence of negative impacts associated with tourism development (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Sirakaya, Jamal, & Choi, 2001). For instance, in their investigation of factors affecting community participation in world heritage site conservation and tourism development, Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) found that for the factor of motivation, while the dimensions of residents' positive perceptions and interest to participate were accepted as having a positive influence on participation, negative perspectives did not have the same effect. Consequently, considered in its entirety, motivation on its own is not a consistent enough construct for directly influencing actual participatory tourism behavior.

Notwithstanding the rejection of H4, motivation to participate does have a positive and indirect impact on local residents' actual participation through the mediating influence of resident's attitudes and intentions to participate. This is the evident through acceptance of the structural relationship between residents' attitudes towards maximizing community participation and intentions to participate ($\beta = 3.79$, $r = .866$) and subsequently the accepted influence of intentions to participate on actual participation ($\beta = 2.01$, $r = .130$) See Figure 3.4. This indirect path may be represented as motivation to participate → attitudes towards maximizing community participation → intentions to participate → actual participation. Therefore, the antecedent of motivation to participate remains a pertinent antecedent in facilitating the participatory tourism process, and influences community participation in an indirect manner.

Hypothesis 5 (H5) suggested that opportunity to participate in tourism development has a positive and significant influence on residents' actual participation in tourism development. In testing the structural relationship between these two variables, the hypothesis was accepted ($\beta = 8.61$, $r = .570$), supporting the proposition that opportunity to participate does enable actual participation in tourism development. Confirmation is therefore provided for the assumption that for local people to realize any significant involvement in tourism planning and development they must perceive that tourism authorities and planners are cognizant of their interests and that these governing bodies are willing to consider their views and needs in the tourism development process.

Additionally, when local tourism authorities and state government officials facilitate open channels of communication, more inclusive and decentralized administrative systems, local residents are prone to being more active participants in tourism planning and its management. Without such conditions it remains impossible for residents to be more involved in tourism decision-making and planning in their community or host destination (Aas et al., 2014; Rasoomlimanesh et al., 2017).

In revising residents' responses for opportunity to participate in this study, low levels of opportunity to participate were generally observed ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.40$). These statistics are interpreted to mean that residents have not been provided with the necessary circumstances or conditions necessary to propel more real involvement in the tourism planning process. And so, it is not surprising that low levels of actual participation were noted in the descriptive statistics ($M = 2.89$). These levels of actual participation and opportunity to participate noted in the community of Gros Islet are in keeping with Tosun's (2000) evaluation that in developing countries there is a persistent disregard and reluctance by tourism planners and other local powerholders to enable conditions necessary for the achievement of more functional levels of local involvement in tourism planning.

The acceptance of H5 continues to draw attention to the role of state and local governing bodies in breaking down the current barriers that currently exist in SIDSs like Saint Lucia in order to encourage active involvement from the local community in tourism projects and initiatives.

Hypothesis 6 (H6) proposed that residents' ability to participate positively impacts their actual participation in tourism development. This hypothesis was accepted ($\beta = 3.81$, $r = .243$), supporting the claim that in situations where residents are familiar with and are aware of tourism related initiatives and programs, they would/will be more susceptible to participate in tourism development. This assertion was also confirmed in the findings of Hung et al. (2011) and Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) who affirmed that citizens' awareness of the aspects related to tourism programs, planning and development has a positive impact on local community participation.

In the assessment of the sample's responses to the ability construct, relative agreement was noticed among residents' regarding their awareness of tourism activities and plans in Saint Lucia ($M = 4.92$). As previously seen, tourism employed residents appeared to be among the individuals most capable to participate in tourism development ($M = 5.13$) while non-tourism employees appeared to be at a lower margin ($M = 4.68$) with unemployed residents noting a mean of 4.95.

Hypothesis participation 7 (H7) proposed that residents' attitudes towards maximizing community influence their intention to participate in tourism development and subsequently it was stated by hypothesis 8 (H8) that residents' intention to participate positively impacts their actual participation in tourism development. Both hypotheses were accepted in the structural analysis with H7 presenting statistical significance of $\beta = 3.79$, $r = .868$ and H8 the values of $\beta = 2.01$, $r = .130$. See Figure 3.4

The acceptance and positive correlations confirmed for H7 and H8 provide support for Ajzen's (1985) theoretical postulations of the attitude-behavior relationship in the Theory of Planned Behavior. Intentions towards a behavior is claimed to be influenced by motivational factors or an individuals' attitudes towards the behavior at hand, a relationship proven by the acceptance of H7. Lai & Nepal (2006) also confirmed the positive relationship between attitudes and intentions on behavior in their study of locals' perspectives of ecotourism development by stating that positive attitudes significantly correlate with participation. In conducting SEM, Sirivongs & Tsuchiya (2012) also found that when local residents have positive attitudes the likelihood for them to actually participate in tourism activities is more probable. Furthermore, Ajzen

(1985) stated that intentions are good predictors of behavior and in the presence of positive intentions to perform a behavior individuals would be more inclined toward the actual performance of that behavior.

Additionally, the acceptance of H7 and H8 further plays a critical role not only in substantiating the attitude-behavior relationship but also in synthesizing the proposed theoretical and structural framework of the thesis, by integrating the MOA model and the TPB. The importance of the attitude construct cannot be understated due to its instrumentality in creating indirect paths for the factors of motivation and ability to influence residents' actual participation in tourism development.

In analyzing responses, aggregate scores for attitudes towards maximizing community participation was $M = 5.35$ inferring that the local community has deemed it necessary for them to be included in tourism development on the island. Moreover, it was confirmed that residents are willing to participate in tourism development as illustrated in the descriptive statistics for the intentions construct ($M = 4.98$). Such assessments should be given attention by tourism planners as they represent a need by the host community to be more active participants in tourism development, and by extension those planning initiatives that invariably impact their livelihood in the short and long run.

Finally, it is important to note that although it has been concluded that generally residents possess positive attitudes and expressed intentions to be involved in the decision-making and management processes of tourism development, they have yet to participate due to the lack of facilitative measures by local authorities. This is evident in responses from residents who directly benefit from tourism and those who are not perceived as direct beneficiaries of tourism development in Saint Lucia. This realization highlights a critical area within the tourism domain on the island (Simmons, 1994; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000). Fortunately, the model presented in this dissertation offers an effective apparatus for evaluating the weaknesses within developing countries or SIDSs within the Caribbean that restrict participatory tourism development and its implementation.

CONCLUSION AND MANAGERIAL CONSIDERATIONS

At the root of the success of the tourism industry rests the manner in which its planning and development are embarked upon (Timothy, 1999). It is proposed that such planning should essentially “optimize the potential contribution of tourism to human welfare and environmental quality” (Tosun & Timothy, 2001, p. 352). Towards achieving these goals and moving towards a more sustainable tourism development paradigm, the need for more inclusive planning on host destinations has been explored as a new direction in tourism development (Brohman, 1996). Accordingly, the participatory approach to tourism development has been underlined as an appropriate means for achieving more viable tourism planning within destinations as it seeks to overcome the issues of more traditional planning by allowing for a wider network of collaboration, inclusivity in decision-making and equitable dispersion of benefits and costs (Brohman, 1996; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Kayat, 2002; Simmons, 1994; Timothy, 1999).

In addition, community participation seeks to overcome the limitations of more traditional development approaches characterized by rigid and centralized planning experienced within paternalistic societies (Midgley, 1986). The participatory tourism development method therefore has at its heart the abandonment of these archaic approaches by replacing them with more inclusivity in the planning and decision-making processes. Of particular concern are the views and concerns of typically excluded groups and individuals on host destinations. This approach does not merely seek to achieve sustainability and viability in tourism initiatives but advocates for a wider spread of benefit sharing among destination communities and the inclusion of the local people’s views and interests in decision-making and planning initiatives (Ross & Wall, 1999).

It is noted that the tourism industry continues to dominate trade, employment and foreign exchange earnings in the SIDSs of the Caribbean (McElroy & Albuquerque, 1998). These gains have overtime resulted in high dependency and investment on the service industry. As with all industries, tourism development has been held accountable for the inheritance of negative impacts which continue to plague the Caribbean islands evident through the destruction of wetlands and mangroves for resort construction, loss of beaches, increased sand mining, nearshore dredging, sewage pollution from hotels

and cruise liners, reef damage from diving, yacht anchorage and the displacement of traditional economies and prime lands (McElroy & Albuquerque, 1998; Pattullo 1996). All of these impacts are especially predominant in the Leeward and Windward Islands for which Saint Lucia is a part of and therefore exhibits these traits.

The tradeoffs of tourism development have been considered a critical matter in sustainable debates especially as it relates to the direct and indirect impacts on destinations' host communities. Li (2005) and Tosun (2000) claimed that while the local community stands to be among one of the groups most affected by the impacts of tourism development, they continue to be excluded from tourism planning and development initiatives that affect their livelihoods. As a consequence, this exclusion results in further deterioration of the position of the local people while affecting the long-term sustainability of tourism destinations.

Considering the limitations of the Caribbean islands, Conway & Timms (2010) suggested "slow-tourism" as a new approach to tourism development. This alternative form of tourism embraces a bottom-up approach in tourism administration and planning as it reflects an approach that "decentralizes the tourist industry from foreign-control toward local empowerment" (p. 330). While such situations are highly desirable not only for alleviating the disadvantaged position of the local people but also towards achieving sustainable tourism, support for tourism initiatives and more viable planning, such implementation has been difficult especially in the case of developing countries and SIDSs like Saint Lucia. Conway & Timms (2010) added to this argument by stating that "the hierarchical and oft-times undemocratic power relations within just about all Caribbean societies favor 'top-down' practices, and only rarely has community-level ownership of local projects been successful over the long haul" (p. 334).

Accepting the endemic limitations that exist within the spheres of the developing world and especially SIDSs like Saint Lucia, the principal objective of this investigation was to focus on those factors that stand to affect the application of the participatory approach. It was subsequently proposed and confirmed that residents' attitudes and motivation, opportunity and ability to participate represent antecedents that stand to either enable or stifle citizens' actual participation in the tourism planning process in Saint Lucia.

Taking into account the preceding arguments, it is not surprising that the interpretation of the data collected from the local residents on the island corroborates a lack of consideration by local authorities and tourism planners of the views and opinions of the local citizenry. While respondents expressed overall interest to involve themselves in tourism planning and decision-making, an assessment of the results confirmed residents' disagreement towards having actually participated in any form of tourism development beyond employment.

This reinforces the claims that within the context of developing countries the local people have not been properly considered as valuable participants in the tourism planning process. Moreover, tourism planners have failed to understand the associated implications and benefits of making an allowance for residents' perceptions as invaluable to themselves, the tourism development process and residents alike. Such opinions may be used as a means of drawing attention to critical areas of concern in the planning and management approach of tourism thereby acting as a springboard for more viability and success in the tourism development process and ultimately the implementation of the participatory approach. In the long run, this information sensitizes both groups (planners and local community) on the roles they play in tourism development while simultaneously highlighting the necessity for reinforcing local involvement.

Consequently, this research has made available essential assessments of the local residents' actual and intentional volition towards involvement in tourism decision-making and planning on the island of Saint Lucia. In analyzing the sample's data along with participants' demographic characteristics, it was noted that individuals who appeared to be more directly associated with tourism through employment exhibited better attitudes, willingness and abilities to participate in tourism development than other groups who do not directly benefit from tourism. This assessment should be considered by planners as a need to revise the share of benefits on the island thereby ensuring that residents beyond those employed in the tourism sector feel that they benefit from tourism development.

The extent to which fair amounts of motivation, opportunity and ability must be possessed by the local population in order to affect any real form of participation beyond employment cannot be understated. It was observed that opportunity and ability to participate are sources that influence community participation in tourism development more directly than motivation to participate. Meanwhile, residents' motivation and ability to participate are confirmed as also being relevant indirect facilitators of community participation through the mediating role of residents' attitudes. This information remains pertinent to planners in their approach to tourism development by providing them with a rubric for the undertaking or implementation of the participatory approach.

While it is their democratic right, the local people cannot on their own mobilize more emphatic involvement in tourism planning and decision-making owing to the mentioned social and political structures within islands like Saint Lucia in addition to their own disadvantaged positions within society. As a result, the power holders must be mindful of the role that they play in driving such a movement. As previously agreed, the sustainability of the tourism industry is to some extent dependent on participatory approaches especially for islands like Saint Lucia that depend heavily on tourism.

It is acknowledged that there is no one-size-fits-all framework for the implementation of participatory tourism. Planners therefore have the opportunity to be flexible in their application of the forms of participation that appear more appropriate depending on the tourism initiative or program being considered and the readiness of the local community to commit themselves.

Conclusively, the implications of this study for local authorities and tourism planners seek to emphasize the importance of inclusivity in tourism development as a means to achieving sustainability in the tourism industry. It is important for all affected parties on tourism destinations to be considered in tourism development as a means of ensuring equitability in the share of benefits and cost associated with tourism, paying close attention to how the local community can be greater beneficiaries in this development process. While the implementation of the participatory approach has not been particularly defined especially for SIDSs like Saint Lucia, the improvement of residents' motivation, opportunity and ability to participate plays an integral role which planners

need to acknowledge and facilitate. Consideration of these factors as presented in this investigation also offers a starting point for the application of the participatory approach in tourism destination planning. This is because the concepts presented here educate planners on the factors impeding more progressive strides in the participatory approach and the advantages they could inherit by eliminating such constraints.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

While the sample used in this quantitative research was acceptable for structural and confirmatory analysis, a larger sample of approximately 376 to 400 participants was anticipated considering the population of the research area. The expected number of respondents was not achieved as a result of the disinterests and limited time available by residents to be involved. The restricted time factor for the completion of this research also impacted the researcher's final production of the thesis, that is, the composition of the final document and associated articles.

In addition, there exists an apparent limitation of documentation including available research and data sources for the subject matter being studied in this thesis relevant to the island of Saint Lucia. Hence, it is necessary to widen the pool of accredited data available for the island in relation to its main industries which include tourism, agriculture and manufacturing.

This research is among the first to specifically providing an alternative model to understanding those factors affecting community participation in tourism development on the island of Saint Lucia by integrating motivation, opportunity, and ability with attitudes and intentions as antecedents contributing to community participation. For future research efforts in tourism, it is encouraged to build on this data base provided here. This will provide gains for a more comprehensive understanding of the requirements needed to improve community participation in tourism development for the SIDSs within the scope of the Eastern Caribbean and other developing countries.

It may also be interesting to implement the research framework in the city of Castries and subsequently in the town of Soufrière which are the other two main tourism hubs on the island on Saint Lucia. Soufrière being not as developed and considering the dynamics of Castries as the capital of the island and the most diverse and populated town may be elements leading to different results and understanding of the dynamics of residents' participation.

Another area of interest would be to conduct a research which specifically takes into account tourism planners' perceptions of the application of the participatory approach. Their assessments of residents' current levels of motivation, opportunity and ability to participate in tourism decision-making and planning, and their view of the attitudes held by residents of tourism development should also be understood in order to overcome structural and operational challenges.

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