

IMPORTANCE OF SOCIOPOLITICAL CONTROL, SENSE OF COMMUNITY AND
CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM PROMOTION AND POLICY

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ABSTRACT

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Since the rise in importance of community-based and sustainable tourism, the concepts of citizen participation, empowerment, and sense of community have emerged as significant areas of study. Active citizen participation has been recognized as a cornerstone of contemporary policies and programs in diverse fields including the tourism domain. Active citizen participation enhances policy control and leadership competence, which are two key ingredients of empowerment. Empowered citizens can contribute to the development of creative solutions and influence policy-making processes in tourism. Citizen participation and empowerment are derived from awareness of citizens' community which they belong. The sociopolitical control scales has been used to test the association between empowerment and citizen participation while sense of community is a key construct for contributing to find the association three notions in influencing policy-making. This study is one of few studies that empirically examine the relationship between citizen participation, sociopolitical control, and sense of community. The empirical results demonstrate: 1) sociopolitical control and sense of community as valid construct in the tourism context; 2) group differences in psychological empowerment and sense of community; 3) relationship among socioeconomic status, sense of community, sociopolitical control, tourism participatory behavior, familiarity of tourism campaign, and perceived impact of tourism policy; and 4) partial mediation effects between variables and sociopolitical control. These results can

contribute to the tourism field by providing policymakers and analysts a valid and reliable quantitative tool for evaluating successful policy outcomes. Furthermore, the study provides empirical evidence to tourism policymakers and agencies for evaluating the social outcomes of their programs with focus on community-based programs and initiatives. This approach can be used in concert to pursue sustainable tourism policies and promotion by obtaining strong support and consensus from local communities.

Dedicated to My Parents, Hyungbong Jeong and Youngmi Cho

&

My Wife, Yonghwa Park and My Daughter, Soring Jeong

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The advancement of technology and expansion of the dissemination of knowledge contribute to individuals taking more interest in their sociopolitical environments and increase opportunities to participate in policy-making processes. In the last few decades, there has been an increase in individual attention to values of locality and community, which are beneficial in establishing long term and sustainable policies and programs.

Citizen participation and empowerment are critical elements of democratic policy-making and a subject of citizens' everyday life (Fung & Wright, 2003). To date, most policies and programs as well as regulations emphasize the significance of these two topics. President Obama (2009) stressed that government should be transparent, participatory, and collaborative which highlighted the importance of citizen participation and empowerment as significant feature of contemporary policy-making in the United States.

Contemporary governmental policies and programs often include procedures for collecting and reflecting upon citizens' opinions as well as achieving citizens' consensus for the policies and programs. A variety of democratic participation approaches have been introduced and implemented in order to enhance consensus through voting, public hearings, and citizen committees. These forms of citizen participation have been widely adopted in policy-making processes; however, they are sometimes criticized as forms of indirect democracy.

Under the indirect democracy system, citizen participation plays a limited role in democratic process (Parry, Moyser, & Day, 1999). Most societies utilize representative democracy systems as indirect democracy, in which citizens elect representatives. Citizens believe that the representatives advocate their need and opinions to policy-making bodies. These features of indirect democratic systems cause citizens to rely on public officials and administrators as well as their representatives (Roberts, 2004).

The skeptical view of indirect democracy has led citizens and researchers to search for more active and direct participatory mechanisms to gain more direct involvement in policy-making. It is evident that there has been a resurgence of interest in policy-making through diverse forms of citizen participation and empowerment in policy-making since the late 20th century (Chamber, 2003; Fung & Wright, 2003; Manzo & Perkins, 2006; Reddel & Woolcock, 2004; Simpson, 2008; Umbach & Wishnoff, 2008).

In the United States, citizen participation and empowerment are rooted in two different philosophies. Thomas Jefferson argued for direct democracy, while James Madison advocated for representative democracy that relies on elected officials who make decisions for citizens (Clarke & Cortner, 2002). Even though their philosophies were different, both emphasized active citizen participation and empowerment as a cornerstone of American society.

In the 20th century, American society witnessed the evolution of citizen participation in fields such as land use policy, urban housing, public education, conservation of natural resources, public health, and tourism (Pennington, 2004;

Roberts, 2004; Smith & Propst, 2001). As a result, governments from federal to local levels recognize citizen participation as a key strategy to enhance healthy communities.

As an essential tool to promote a more democratic perspective in the policy-making processes, citizen participation experts have emphasized the importance of public input in diverse contexts of planning and development. As a result, many contemporary policy and planning organizations have proposed strategies, programs and regulations to respect the need for citizen participation and empowerment. Citizen participation and empowerment require evaluation through proven evaluation tools because there is a need for finding whether mechanisms of citizen participation and empowerment are successful (Rowe & Frewer, 2000).

Citizen participation has been a growing topic in tourism as business, development, and policy-making success are often dependent upon it (Keogh, 1990; Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011; Timothy, 2007). Tourism is a system of which tourist destinations and host communities are an integral part. Citizen's active and voluntary participation is important because without access to natural and cultural resources and local level tourism infrastructure, enthusiasm and hospitality, tourists hardly experience what tourism attractions promise.

The success of tourism promotion also relies on a close relationship with host communities. Influence on host communities has been widely recognized as an element if the tourism promotion aims to be sustainable in the long term (Pérez & Nadal, 2005). Active citizen participation plays an important role to minimize the conflict between host communities and tourism development for pursuing long-term capacity while satisfying the demand of tourists (Liu, 2003).

It is necessary for tourism policy-making and promotion to simultaneously pursue economic enhancement, environmental protection and socio-cultural preservation in host communities (Lansing & De Vries, 2007). Citizen participation plays an important role in sustaining socioeconomic, cultural, and natural environments of tourism host communities. Members of host communities can articulate the shared values that should be sustained for protecting their communities under tourism development, planning, and policies. They also possess the means by which these values are expressed.

Citizen support and motivation to participate in tourism policy-making and promotion come from a variety of sources, beginning with awareness of policies and programs. Hence, it is important to evaluate community assets, which create momentum to carry forward policy and program goals. Two correlates of momentum are individuals' sense of community and active participation in the implementation of tourism policy and promotion (Peterson, Speer, & McMillan, 2008). Active participation, in turn, enhances policy control and leadership competence, which are two key ingredients of empowerment (Ohmer, 2007). Empowered citizens can contribute to the development of creative solutions and influence policy-making processes in tourism.

The sociopolitical control scale (SPCS) has been used to examine the association between empowerment and citizen participation since the 1990s. The SPCS measures three primary dimensions of empowerment: a citizen's sense of leadership efficacy (Leadership Competence), the belief that one can influence the political world (Policy Control), and participatory behaviors. Empowerment-related outcomes of community-based programs and projects have been assessed by adapting the SPCS to various contexts and applications in the last few decades.

Sense of community (SOC) is a key construct in community psychology which contributes to find the association between participatory behavior and sociopolitical control in influencing policy-making that impacts tourism outcomes. SOC refers to the connections between humans and other social groups. Research has found that SOC explains significant variation in citizen participation and empowerment in community groups and activities (Peterson & Reid, 2003; Peterson, Speer, & Hughey, 2006). Since the rise in importance of community-based and sustainable tourism, the concepts of citizen participation, empowerment, and sense of community have emerged as significant areas of study. Tourism research has emphasized that citizens feel tied to their communities and empowered to engage in policy-making relevant to tourism promotion and development (Akama & Kieti, 2007; Blackstock, 2005; Cole, 2006).

Community-based programs and projects generally try to achieve healthy and sustainable communities through economic enhancement. In order to rejuvenate national, regional, and local economies, many governmental agencies have proposed a range of policies. The tourism industry has been recognized as a leading economic force and has the potential to play a significant role in rejuvenating the economy of nations and local communities. Mass tourism, however, is associated with some negative effects such as destruction of natural, ecological, and socio-cultural environments of tourism destinations (Chapman & Speake, 2011). In order to address the tension between economic growth and protection of tourism destinations, citizen participation and empowerment are critical factors.

Many governments have proposed a variety of policies to promote their tourism industries and revitalize their economies (Pearce, Filep, & Ross, 2011; Wang & Pfister, 2008). In the United States, most governmental entities from local to federal have

established tourism promotion campaigns in order to stimulate their economies.

Tourism campaigns, as part of an overall tourism promotion strategy, are mechanisms for advertising tourism destinations to other places and differentiating themselves in the tourism market (Pike, 2005).

The state of Michigan has recently experienced an economic downturn that has caused an increase in the unemployment rate and population decline. Many policies and programs have been established and implemented to regenerate the state's economy. One of the more well-known state economic growth programs is Pure Michigan, an advertising and branding campaign designed to stimulate the state of Michigan's economic growth through tourism.

Since the Pure Michigan campaign launched in 2006, the campaign has had a positive effect on the state's tourism industry and contributed to promoting the state's image brand. Due to the campaign's success, its budget has, with the exception of 2010, continuously increased since 2006. In 2011, the state legislature authorized, and Michigan Governor Snyder signed, a bill transferring \$25 million to the Pure Michigan campaign from the 21st Century Jobs Trust Fund. The continuous investment in the campaign has improved the state's image as a tourism destination, which in turn has increased travel, visitor spending, and state tax revenue (Propst & Jeong, 2011).

Travel Michigan, the official agent of the Pure Michigan campaign, announced that the campaign has had a ripple effect on the state's tourism and economy. As of 2011, the Longwood International (2012) released data showing that the campaign has motivated 10.4 million trips to the state with visitors spending approximately 2,937 million dollars. Further, visitors have paid 208.1 million dollars in Michigan sales tax

since 2006. For generating a sustainably positive impact to both the state and local communities through a tourism campaign like Pure Michigan, sociopolitical indicators of success--such as local level sentiments of empowerment and participation--should be addressed.

Study Purpose

The primary purpose of this study is to examine how a sense of community and citizen participation in tourism policy-making affect a topic-specific measure of sociopolitical control. Additionally, finding the association between these constructs and differences based on citizen characteristics provides recommended strategies to tourism policymakers for enhancing policy success and increasing support and consensus from the host communities of tourism destinations.

The results of this study will contribute to the tourism field by providing policymakers and analysts a valid and reliable quantitative tool for evaluating successful policy outcomes. Knowing how empowered citizens feel, whether or not they see themselves as leaders and current actions they are taking to be active participants should be of broad interest to policymakers. This study will demonstrate how sociopolitical control and sense of community maintain their psychometric properties in the tourism domain. In addition, host and destination communities are vital to the overall tourism system. Community psychologists attempt to improve overall health of communities by studying behaviors. Likewise, it is necessary to study individual behaviors and outcomes in tourism policy-making for this reason.

Study Objectives

In the tourism context, this study is one of few studies empirically examining the relationship between sense of community, citizen participation, and sociopolitical control. The first objective of this study, therefore, is to examine whether the SPC can be modified for use in the tourism domain while maintaining psychological rigor. The second objective of this study is to assess group differences in psychological empowerment and sense of community. The third objective is to explore the relationship among socioeconomic status (SES), sense of community (SOC), sociopolitical control (SPC), tourism participatory behavior, familiarity with a tourism campaign, and perceived impact of a tourism policy. The fourth objective of the present study is to examine partial mediation effects between independent variables and SPC.

Delimitations

There are two delimitations in this study. First, it is not feasible to evaluate the entirety of tourism policies and promotional campaigns in one study. Hence, the subject of this study was the Pure Michigan campaign which began in 2006. This campaign is a representation of Michigan's tourism policy to attract out-of-state visitors. Second, the focus and variables of this study pertain to psychological, as opposed to actual or behavioral empowerment. This is because there has been much research on psychological empowerment in the community psychology literature in recent years. In this literature, psychological empowerment has been found to be associated with benefits of numerous community interventions such as public health programs, substance abuse prevention program, and so forth.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The literature relevant to this study is presented in this chapter. In order to follow a logical composition, the literature is reported under the following topics: (1) tourism promotion; (2) citizen participation and community involvement; (3) psychological empowerment and sociopolitical control; (4) sense of community. The chapter concludes with problem statement, definitions of major variables, and conceptual model and hypotheses.

Tourism Promotion

Marketing is an essential component of success in public and private sectors (Hutt & Speh, 2010; Irwin, 2002). The tourism industry is not only comprised of a variety of sectors, but also is a dynamic and complex system (Rodolfo, 2008; S. Williams, 2004). As such, public policy makers and private businesses devote substantial resources to appropriate and efficient marketing strategies for promoting their tourism products.

Promotion is a cornerstone of successful tourism-related activities (A. Williams, 2006). As an instrument for promoting tourism, a tourism campaign attempts to increase the spread of tourism in destination communities, build opportunities to have more destination publicity to attract tourists, and enhance destination images (Cano & Prentice, 1998; Dore & Crouch, 2003). Organizations, businesses, and governmental authorities of the tourism industry have emphasized tourism campaigns for advertizing their tourism attractions and products through a variety of media such as radio, television, film and the Internet (Butler, 1990; Connell, 2005).

Locations that are featured on television shows, documentaries, or movies, for instance, have grown to be attractive tourism destinations (Hudson & Miller, 2005). Tourist behaviors are significantly influenced by Internet blogs that include visual information (Lin & Huang, 2006). The positive impacts of media-based tourism campaigns have led tourism promotional campaigns to emphasize images of tourism destinations (Avraham & Ketter, 2008; Chaudhary, 2000).

In the United States, most state and local governments have established tourism promotion related policies and strategies in order to stimulate or regenerate their economies. As part of the tourism promotion, campaigns are a mechanism for advertising tourism destinations to other places and tourists, while differentiating themselves in the tourism market by creating brands (Pike, 2005). Brand-based tourism promotion, for example, has attracted significant numbers of out-of-state tourists to Iowa (Mak, 2011).

In the United States, scholars prefer to use “destination branding” rather than “place branding.” According to Cai (2002, p. 722), “destination branding can be defined as selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image branding.” Destination branding is a strategic attempt by tourism destinations to make their identities and characteristics unique and distinguishable (Wright, 2007). Hosany and his colleagues (2006) asserted that destination branding has been essential for making competitive tourism products in the tourism market. A recent study revealed that some state’s tourism promotion campaigns have evolved into destination branding such as “Explore Minnesota,” “Ohio, Too Much Fun for Just One Day,” “Pure Michigan,” and “Awaken Florida” (Propst & Jeong, 2011).

For a leading tourism promotion campaign to evolve into destination branding, sustained funding is critical. In fewer than half of the states in the United States, the financial source for tourism promotion is the general tax fund (Bonham & Mak, 1996; Deskins & Seevers, 2011; Shield, 2006). Additionally, some states tourism promotion funds come from other sources such as tourism industry-related taxes, membership fees, and lottery ticket sales (Shield, 2006). For instance, the total budget of Alaska's core marketing program is \$11.7 million with \$9 million coming from state government and the rest provided by the state's tourism industry through the Alaska Travel Industry Association (Alaska Travel Industry Association, 2010).

Many states have invested heavily in tourism promotion to recover from economic slumps. In the Midwest states for fiscal year 2010, Illinois spent \$48.9 million; Michigan contributed \$18.7 million; Wisconsin paid \$13.1; Minnesota expended \$15.4 million; Ohio paid \$5.4 million; and Indiana disbursed \$2.8 million (Steinke, 2010). To sustain continuous funding sources, states need to show the positive impacts of their investments. The impact indicator of choice tends to be return on investment (ROI), which is used to demonstrate positive economic impacts from tourism promotion spending (Longwoods International, 2010; Strategic Marketing & Research Inc., 2007).

Since tourism is a system, of which destinations and host communities are integral parts, sociopolitical indicators of success, such as local level sentiment of empowerment and participation in tourism planning efforts, are as relevant as return on investment (Bornhorst, Ritchie, & Sheehan, 2010; Propst & Jeong, 2011). Several studies argued that citizen participation and community involvement are significant aspects of long-term oriented tourism promotion (Fallon & Kriwoken, 2003; Li, 2006; Mitchell & Reid, 2001).

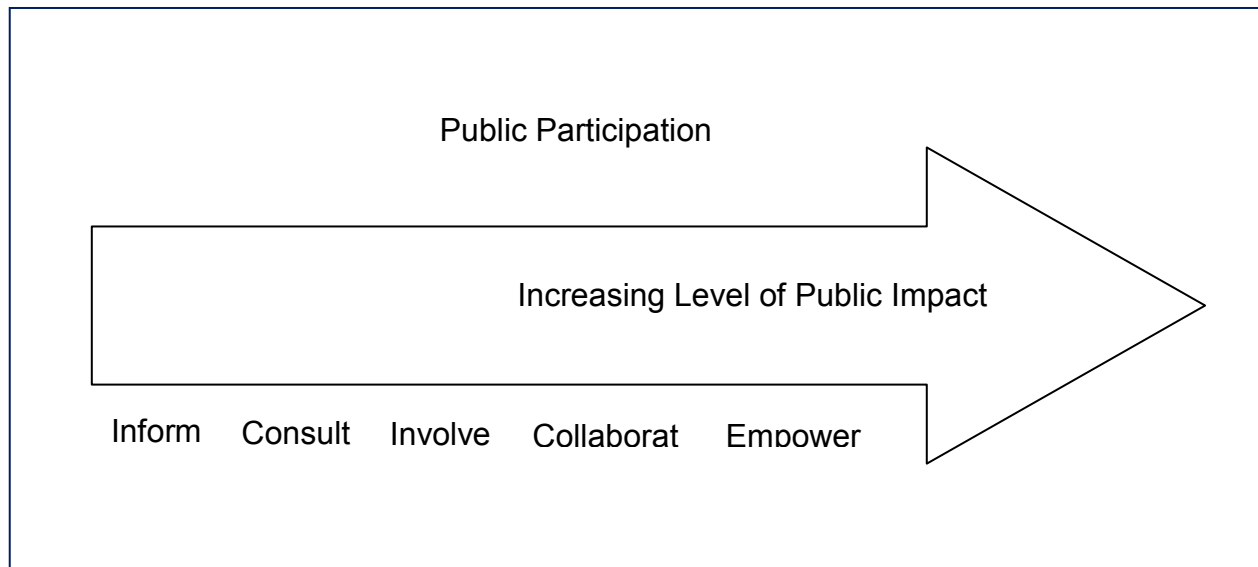
In order to achieve sustainable tourism, promotional strategies are part of the mix and social impacts on host communities are as relevant as economic impacts (Hardy & Beeton, 2001; Saarinen, 2006). Active citizen participation is a key element of maximizing positive social impacts and minimizing negative ones (Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger, 2009; Dredge, 2006; Haley, Snaith, & Miller, 2005).

Tourism psychological studies have highlighted citizen participation and community involvement by examining such diverse constructs as place attachment (Gross & Brown, 2008), community identity (Wang, Yu, & Fesenmaier, 2002), community attachment (Anderreck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005), and sense of place (Derrett, 2003). Citizen participation and community involvement serve as tools to promote integration of tourism development and local communities, minimizing existing conflicts and negative impacts on tourism destinations (Mannigel, 2008).

Citizen Participation and Community Involvement

Citizen participation has been used as an integral part of democratic decision making since the latter part of the 20th century (Laurain & Shaw, 2009). According to the International Association for Public Participation (IAP2), public participation occurs along a spectrum ranging from informing to consulting, involving, collaborating, and empowering. The IAP2's spectrum classifies public participation according to types of engagement with stakeholders. The level of public impact increases as citizens' progress from 'informing' through to 'empowering' types of participatory behaviors (International Association for Public Participation, 2007).

Figure 1. IAP2 Spectrum of Public Participation (Adapted from the IAP2)



Wellman and Propst (2004) indicated that citizen participation can result in improved public understanding and support for policy-making. Citizen participation can also address diverse stakeholders' needs and preferences by cultivating better dialogue and broadening consistencies involved in decision-making (Thompson, Elmendorf, McDonough, & Burban, 2005). There are two distinct goals for participatory approaches: participation as a means to increase efficiency, and participation as an end for empowerment and equity (Clever, 1999; Diamond, 2002). Mannigel (2008) found participation as an end empowers local stakeholders.

Empowerment is indispensable in order for citizens to address the social and political changes in their lives (Laverack & Wallerstein, 2001). The degree of citizen empowerment is one way to consider the effectiveness of citizen participation in policy-making processes. If the goal of citizen participation is to empower citizens and communities, policymakers need to provide: 1) education for citizens about the realities of policy-making processes; 2) a means of informing civic officials about the processes; and 3) more chances for dialogue between community residents and other stakeholders

(Thompson, et al., 2005). These three provisions can empower individuals to become leaders and activists, who can, in turn, facilitate the involvement of entire communities.

Community involvement is described as specific roles that community members play in supporting community activities that can occur within or transcend local boundaries (Nettles, 1991). Community involvement refers to individual engagement in organized community group activities while citizen participation is community-action behavior which focuses on individual civic participation (Speer, Jackson, & Peterson, 2001). Community involvement has long been advocated as an integral part for addressing sustainable community development. Both public and private policies and development, for instance, have implemented community involvement by organizing citizens' advisory committees, community partnerships, deliberative polling, and so forth.

Both citizen participation and community involvement have been identified as prerequisites to engagement in policy-making in a variety of fields such as environmental decision making (Konisky & Beierle, 2001), urban planning (Matsuoka & Kaplan, 2008), and natural resource management (Parkins & Mitchell, 2005; McDonough, Russell, Nancarrow, & Burban, 2002). Likewise, tourism studies have pointed out the importance of citizen participation and community involvement. Citizen participation in tourism creates networks between businesses and local communities in locales with booming tourism economies (Bahaire & Elliot-White, 1999; Byrd, 2007; Lynn, 1992; Mbaiwa, 2005). Some studies have argued that community-based tourism is derived from active citizen participation from host communities (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Reed, 1997; Sebele, 2010; Simmons, 1994). Research has also claimed that

citizen participation plays a significant role in achieving sustainable tourism (Bahaire & Elliot-White, 1999; Byrd, et al., 2009; Cole, 2006; Joppe, 1996; Tosun, 2001).

It is considered important for local communities to take responsibility for their engagement and participation in the tourism policy-making process (Jackson & Morpeth, 1999). Furthermore, even though geographical boundaries significantly affect policy-making in regard to tourism, uniformity in attitudes in local communities should not be expected (Strickland-Munro, Allison, & Moore, 2010). Hence, it is necessary to consider the diverse voices of local stakeholders for involving host communities of tourism destinations.

Community involvement is an important element of collaborative policy-making processes in the tourism context (Buckley, Pickering, & Weaver, 2003). To achieve active community involvement, government and development authorities have the responsibility to encourage stakeholders to take action toward policy-making processes (d'Angella & Go, 2009; Keogh, 1990; Lewis & Newsome, 2003). This requires organizers and planners to efficiently and openly communicate with the public (Yankelovich, 1991).

Jamal and Getz (1995) claimed that community involvement allows government and development authorities to understand local norms and values that need to be addressed through collaborative planning. Yates and his colleagues (2010) proposed three factors that enhance community involvement and collaboration among stakeholders as follows: 1) community ownership; 2) accessibility of planning or management resources; and, 3) maintaining a broad stakeholder base by involving local NGOs.

As can be seen thus far, tourism research in the last few decades has indicated the strong role of citizen participation and community involvement in tourism policymaking and planning (Aas, Ladkin, & Fletcher, 2005; Anderreck, et al., 2005; Bahaire & Elliot-White, 1999; Charlton & Essex, 1996). Parallel to tourism findings, community psychological research has argued that psychologically empowered communities and citizens influence their external sociopolitical environments and also act to improve their circumstances (Ohmer, 2007; Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004; Rapport, 1984; Zimmerman, Israel, Schulz, & Checkoway, 1992).

Many studies have adapted the sociopolitical control scale (SPCS) for evaluating empowerment-related outcomes of community-based programs and projects (Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reich, et al., 2006). Psychological empowerment of citizens is an indicator of the success of community participation in policymaking processes, including tourism promotion.

Psychological Empowerment and Sociopolitical Control

During the past several decades, empowerment has been of academic and practical interest. Empowerment is defined as a mechanism that links an individual's mastery over their sociopolitical environments and their strengths and competencies (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Rappaport, 1981; Rapport, 1984; Speer, 2000). Similarly, empowerment represents the motivational perspective of self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) and is defined as "increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions, which are meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact, reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role" (Speitzer, 1995, p. 1143; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990b).

Power is at the heart of the concept of empowerment (Page & Czuba, 1999). Empowerment is the act of individuals embracing the opportunity to make their sociopolitical decisions by expanding their autonomy in decision making (Chiang & Jang, 2008; Vogt, 1997). According to Wilkinson (1998, pp. 45-46) empowerment can be classified by five types: “information sharing; upward problem solving; task autonomy, attitudinal shaping; and self-management.” Conceptual involvement of empowerment consists of two factors: The internal-psychological factor embodies a competence, responsibility, sense of control, and future orientation, whereas the situational-social factor of empowerment includes interpersonal skills, organizational skills, and control over resources (Kosciulek, 2005; Schalock, 2001; Stein, 1997; Zimmerman, 1995).

Empowerment is a process by which individuals gain greater control over their own lives and participate in the lives of their primary and purposive groups (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Speer, et al., 2001; Tremblay & Gutberlet, 2010; Zimmerman, et al., 1992; Zimmerman & Rapport, 1988). The notion, therefore, includes two aspects: individual and organizational empowerment. Zimmerman (1990b) argued that the former focuses on individuals’ abilities to have efficacy and control in decision-making, while the latter emphasizes a collaborative atmosphere between different members within an organization. Hence, he highlighted that empowerment substantiates an interactional relationship between individuals and their sociopolitical environment.

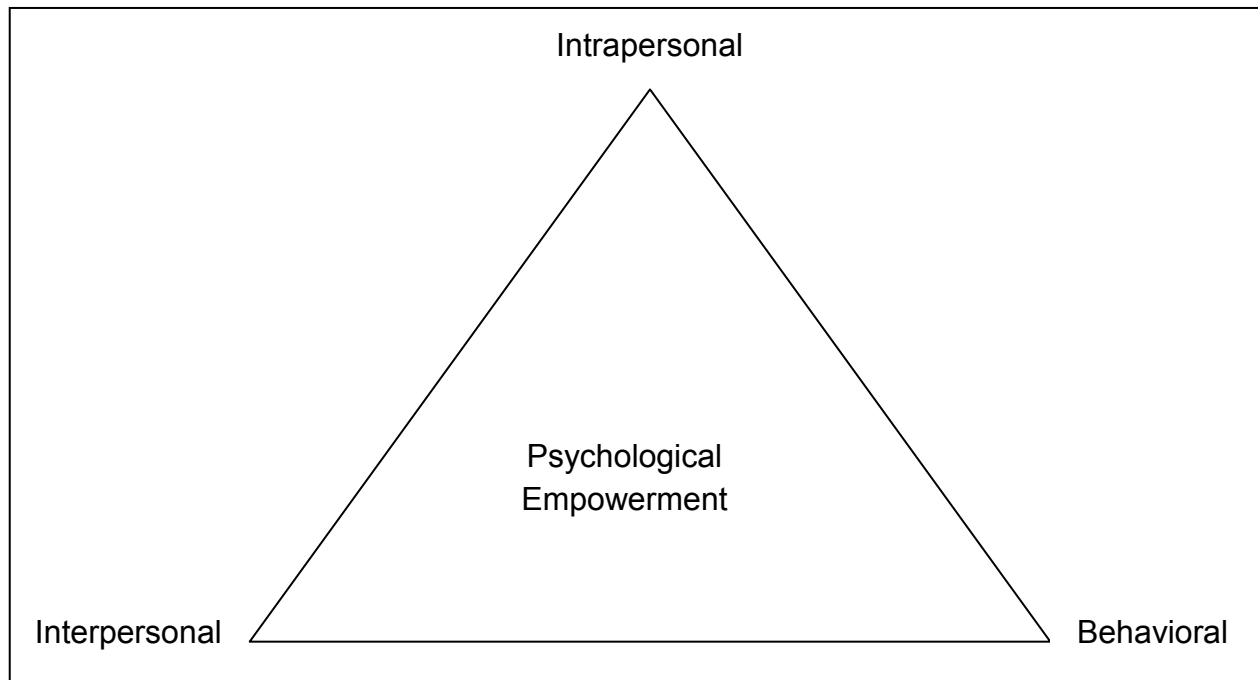
Speer (2000, p. 52) provided the distinction between empowerment and psychological empowerment (PE) as follows: “empowerment at an individual level of analysis is focused solely on the individual without considering contextual influences whereas psychological empowerment embraces the reciprocal influences and

confluence of macro and micro level forces that impact the emotional, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of individuals.” Empowerment refers to the act of empowering others while psychological empowerment denotes the internal state of the individual being empowered (Menon, 2001).

The term PE as a self-perception of competence is not merely individualism because it includes not only active involvement in an individual’s community but also a direct understanding of one’s sociopolitical circumstances (Zimmerman, 1995, 2000; Zimmerman, et al., 1992). Research has discovered that the degree of PE varies according to the sociopolitical situation that one encounters (Foster-Fishman, Salem, Chibnall, Legler, & Yapchai, 1998; Speer, 2000; Zimmerman, 1990b, 1995).

According to Zimmerman’s (1995) framework, PE is composed of three interrelated parts: intrapersonal, interactional and behavioral. The intrapersonal component of PE involves self-perceptions of competence, efficacy and mastery (Ohmer, 2007; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Speer, et al., 2001). The interactional component of PE refers to awareness and comprehension of the political situation; and the behavioral piece refers to actions taken purposefully to affect outcomes (Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reich, et al., 2006).

Figure 2. Three Interrelated Components of Psychological Empowerment.



Data Source: Zimmerman (1995) and Speer (2001).

For representing the intrapersonal component of PE, sociopolitical control (SPC) is a construct that represents how strongly individuals believe in their abilities and efficacy in social and political contexts (Itzhaky & York, 2003; Peterson, Lowe, Aquilino, & Schneider, 2005; Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reich, et al., 2006; Peterson & Reid, 2003; Peterson, Speer, & Peterson, 2011; Smith & Propst, 2001; Zimmerman, Ramírez-Valles, & Maton, 1999; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991b). Empirically, sociopolitical control has been found to consist of two dimensions: an individuals' sense of leadership efficacy (Leadership Competence: LC) and the belief that one can influence the political world (Policy Control: PC) (Peterson, Speer, et al., 2006; Zimmerman, 1990a). It is considered to be a 'sphere-specific' measure of perceived control. Sphere-specific measures were found to be efficient and theoretically relevant in the psychology literature as they helped reduce contradictory results of early investigations of more global measures of perceived control (Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991b). In order to

develop specific-sphere measure of perceived control that integrates personality, cognitive, and motivational domain because it can differ across life sphere and psychological domain (Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991).

The SPC has been recognized as a public policy assessment tool in diverse areas such as natural resource decision-making (Smith & Propst, 2001) and community-based programs and projects (Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reid, et al., 2006). Additionally, research has revealed the relationship between the SPC and citizen participation behaviors (Smith & Propst, 2001; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991a). For example, Smith and Propst (2001) found that those who reported high levels of participation in natural resource-related political behaviors had significant higher scores on the SPCS (Sociopolitical Control Scale) than those who did not. Studies have adapted the SPCS to diverse settings in the last few years. Peterson's recent research (2011), for instance, demonstrated the validation of the SPCS which was designed to represent the two dimensions of LC and PC by studying urban youth.

In order to improve the internal consistency of the SPCS, Peterson and his colleagues (2006) rephrased the two negatively worded items so that all statements were positively worded. Further tests of the modified SPCS supported the scale's hypothesized two-factor structure: leadership competence (LC) and policy control (PC) (Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reich, et al., 2006; Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991a).

In the past decade, researchers have demonstrated that the association between community participation and psychological empowerment incorporates individuals' socio-demographic characteristics as moderating variables (Itzhaky & York, 2000;

Peterson, Hamme, & Speer, 2002; Peterson & Hughey, 2002). Christen and his colleagues (Christens, Speer, & Peterson, 2011) asserted that socio- economic status (SES) moderated the relationship between the intrapersonal and interactional component of psychological empowerment. They found that there was a positive relationship between SES and the intrapersonal component of psychological empowerment.

Tourism studies have also focused on empowerment in a variety of contexts, including customer or tourist empowerment (Hjalager, 2001; Niininen, Buhalis, & March, 2007; Stockdale, 2007); employee empowerment (Erstad, 1997; H. J. Kim, Tavitiyaman, & Kim, 2009; Klidas, van den Berg, & Wilderom, 2007; Lashley, 1999; Ross, 2005); and the relationship between community empowerment and sustainable tourism (Hughes, 1995; Manyara & Johnes, 2007; Okazaki, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999; Timur & Getz, 2009).

While the tourism and hospitality domains have been interested in the interpersonal component of PE within the wider agenda of the professional workplace level, community psychologists have approached PE at the level of community-based organizations. Thus, community psychologists have further extended their attention to the relationship between PE and a sense of community.

Sense of Community

Tourism is “essentially place-based and involves the product of destination identity” (Dredge & Jenkins, 2003, p. 383), which indicates that geographical boundaries seem to play a significant role in communities for tourism planning and policymaking. Sociopolitical environments and technical advancement have caused the definition of community to be expanded (Iriye, 2002). Community, however, still highlights a

geographical place where personal relationships, face-to-face interaction, and attachment to place occur (DeFilippis & Saegert, 2008).

The recognition of community has also been a popular research topic for tourism scholars. Investigators have found that a key component of achieving sustainable tourism is the appreciation of local communities' needs and preferences as well as socio-cultural and physical values (Blackstock, 2005; Joppe, 1996; Murphy, 1988; Simpson, 2008). Community attachment plays an important role in assessing the impacts of tourism development, as a significant positive relationship between tourism development and community attachment has been found (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; McCool & Martin, 1994).

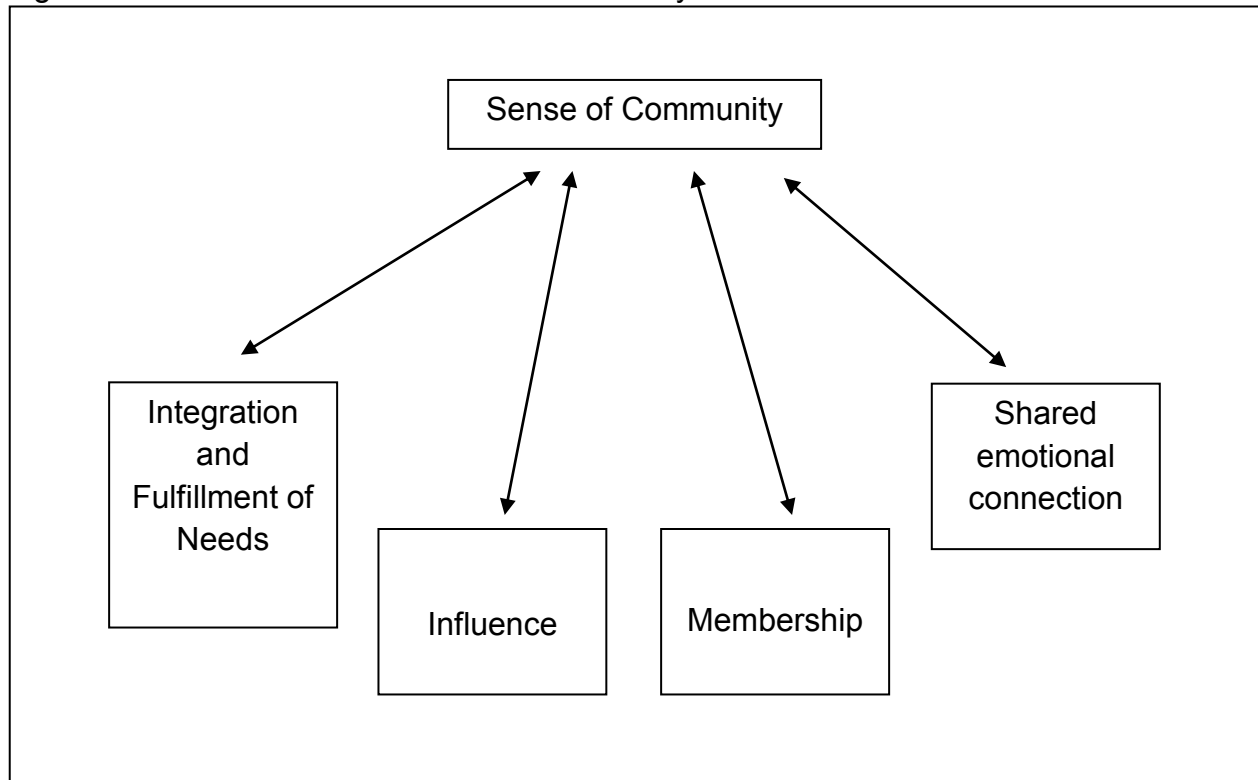
While these tourism studies have focused on the relationship between the tenure of residency of community members and their attitudes toward tourism development, community psychologists have focused their attention more on the psychological features of community including feeling and belonging. In particular, sense of community has been found to be a key variable related to empowerment and participatory behaviors related to public health (Goodman, et al., 1998; Peterson & Reid, 2003).

Sarason (1974) introduced Sense of Community (SOC) as a significant principle of community psychology. However, there was no consensus regarding the definition, model, or method of investigating sense of community before McMillan and Chavis developed a theory in 1986. This is because "researchers' constructions of their own community experience oriented their hypotheses, methods, and interpretations of a community's response" (Chavis & Pretty, 1999, p. 636). McMillan (1976) initially

defined sense of community as “a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together” (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 9).

Based on this definition, McMillan and Chavis (1986) proposed four elements of sense of community: membership, influence, integration and fulfillment of needs, and shared emotional connection. McMillan and Chavis defined these four elements accordingly: “1) membership is the feeling of belonging or of sharing a sense of personal relatedness; 2) influence is sense of mattering, of making a difference to a group and of the group mattering to its members; 3) integration and fulfillment of needs is the feeling that members’ needs will be met by the resources received through their membership in the group; and 4) shared emotional connection is the commitment and belief that members have shared and will share history, common places, time together, and similar experiences” (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 9).

Figure 3. Four Elements of Sense of Community.



Data Source: McMillan and Chavis (1986).

Much of the published literature has examined the variables related to a strong sense of community, but there are few robust findings (Colombo, Mosso, & DePiccoli, 2001; Hill, 1996; Peterson, et al., 2008). One reason for this lack of consistent findings is that certain aspects of a sense of community differ from setting to setting (Hill, 1996; Peterson, Speer, et al., 2006). Regardless of the debate on the causes of inconsistent findings, the four elements of sense of community by McMillan and Chavis have been widely studied in a variety of contexts such as neighborhood solidarity (Brodsky & Marx, 2001; Colombo, et al., 2001), psychological rehabilitation (Herman, Onaga, Pernice-Duca, Oh, & Ferguson, 2005), community organizations (Hughey, Speer, & Peterson, 1999), and international communities of interest (Obst, Zinkiewicz, & Smith, 2002). Studies find that a sense of community affects local action (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990) and psychological empowerment (Peterson & Reid, 2003).

There have been ongoing debates on the factor-structure of the SOC since it was introduced to the community psychology context in 1974. Some research has asserted that the SC is validated only as unidimensional construct (Lounsbury, Loveland, & Gibson, 2003; Okun & Michel, 2006; Proescholdbell, Roosa, & Nemeroff, 2006; Rosenbaum, Ostrom, & Kuntze, 2005) while other studies claimed that the SC is a multifactor construct (Obst & White, 2004; Peterson, Speer, et al., 2006; Peterson, et al., 2008). This controversy may reflect, as mentioned above, the variety of sociopolitical settings among communities and different life situations of community members (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Maton & Salem, 1995; Tu & McIsaac, 2002).

Long and Perkins (2003) conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the SOC. Their analysis revealed a poor model fit for the original items from McMillan and Chavis's theoretical formulation. Therefore, they prompted the development of the brief sense of community (BSC) scale, which yielded a three-factor solution when combining the five original items from McMillan and Chavis, plus three additional items. Obst and White (2004) conducted CFA utilizing Long and Perkins's BSC scale; however, they found that the hypothesized factor structure of the BSC scale did not have a good fit for their data. Hence, they proposed that it is more appropriate to preserve the four-factor structure for the sense of community scale. Peterson and his colleagues (2008) supported the finding that the four-factor structure is valid for the BSC scale.

In the past decade, community psychologists have attempted to find the relationship between SOC and SPC. Peterson and Reid (2003) found that a sense of community predicted psychological empowerment, which was measured using the Zimmerman and Zahniser's (1991) SPC scale (SPCS). They found that citizens with a greater sense of community participated more and were more psychological

empowered and concluded that SOC predicted PE both directly and indirectly through its positive effect on participatory behavior. Hughey and his associates (2008) found that the intrapersonal component of psychological empowerment was significantly predicted by SOC in community organizations by measuring the SPCS. Their main finding also indicated that SOC of community organizations can contribute to intrapersonal empowerment by utilizing SPCS.

Peterson, Speer, and Peterson (2011) explained the relationship between environment-related features, perception of community utilizing SC, citizen participation related to community-based substance abuse prevention, and psychological empowerment which was measured by SPC. Some findings of the study revealed that individuals who greatly participated in the prevention activities tend to experience higher level of psychological empowerment. Additionally, awareness of community programs had a direct positive influence on citizen participation and citizen participation had a direct positive influence on psychological empowerment.

Problem Statement

Little attention has been given to the association between sociopolitical control, sense of community, and citizen participation in the context of tourism policy and promotion. Without identifying these relationships, it is difficult to assess how well local communities will be able to achieve certain positive outcomes, like empowerment, and thereby continue on a path to sustainable tourism. Furthermore, a valid tourism-specific measure of sociopolitical control is required but does not exist.

Definitions of Major Variables

The major variables of this study are defined as:

Sociopolitical Control: Individuals' belief about their abilities and efficacy in social and political context (Itzhaky & York, 2000; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991a).

Tourism Policy Control: A sense of control over one's own life toward tourism policy-making processes (Holden, Evans, Hinnant, & Messeri, 2005; Smith & Propst, 2001; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991a).

Leadership Competence: Individuals' skills that may include organizing others for achieving common goals and speaking in front of a large group (Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reich, et al., 2006; Smith & Propst, 2001; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991a).

Sense of Community: A feeling that members matter to one another and to the group (McMillan, 1976; McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Peterson & Reid, 2003).

Tourism Participatory Behavior : Behavior is classified whether a citizen participates in a voluntary activity by each citizen intended to affect, either directly or indirectly, political choices at various levels of the tourism policy-making processes (Conge, 1988; Smith & Propst, 2001; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991a).

Sociopolitical Control Profile Group: A group of adults based on their sociopolitical control score by cross-tab analysis such as higher scores on both dimensions, lower scores on both dimensions, and higher scores on only one of the two dimensions (Peterson, Peterson, et al., 2011; Speer, 2000).

Socioeconomic Status: It is calculated by combining a measure of household income and level of educational attainment into a single score (Christens, Speer, et al., 2011).

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

Studies have demonstrated the pathways to empowerment through sense of community (SOC) and citizen participation. The conceptual model of this study proposes that there are direct positive associations between SOC, tourism participatory

behavior (TPB), and sociopolitical control. Citizens with a greater level of SOC tend to participate in TPB more and are more psychologically empowered. In addition, SOC predicts psychological empowerment both directly and indirectly through its positive effect on TPB, and there are positive relationship between SPC and familiarity with tourism campaign (FTC) and perceived impact of tourism policy. The model also predicts that socioeconomic status (SES) and SOC between TPB and SPC. Based on the suggested conceptual model (See Figure 5), the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: SOC, FTP, PITP, TPB, and SES will have a direct positive influence on SPC.

H2: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by TPB.

H3: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by SES.

H4: The relationship between TPB and SPC is partially mediated by SES.

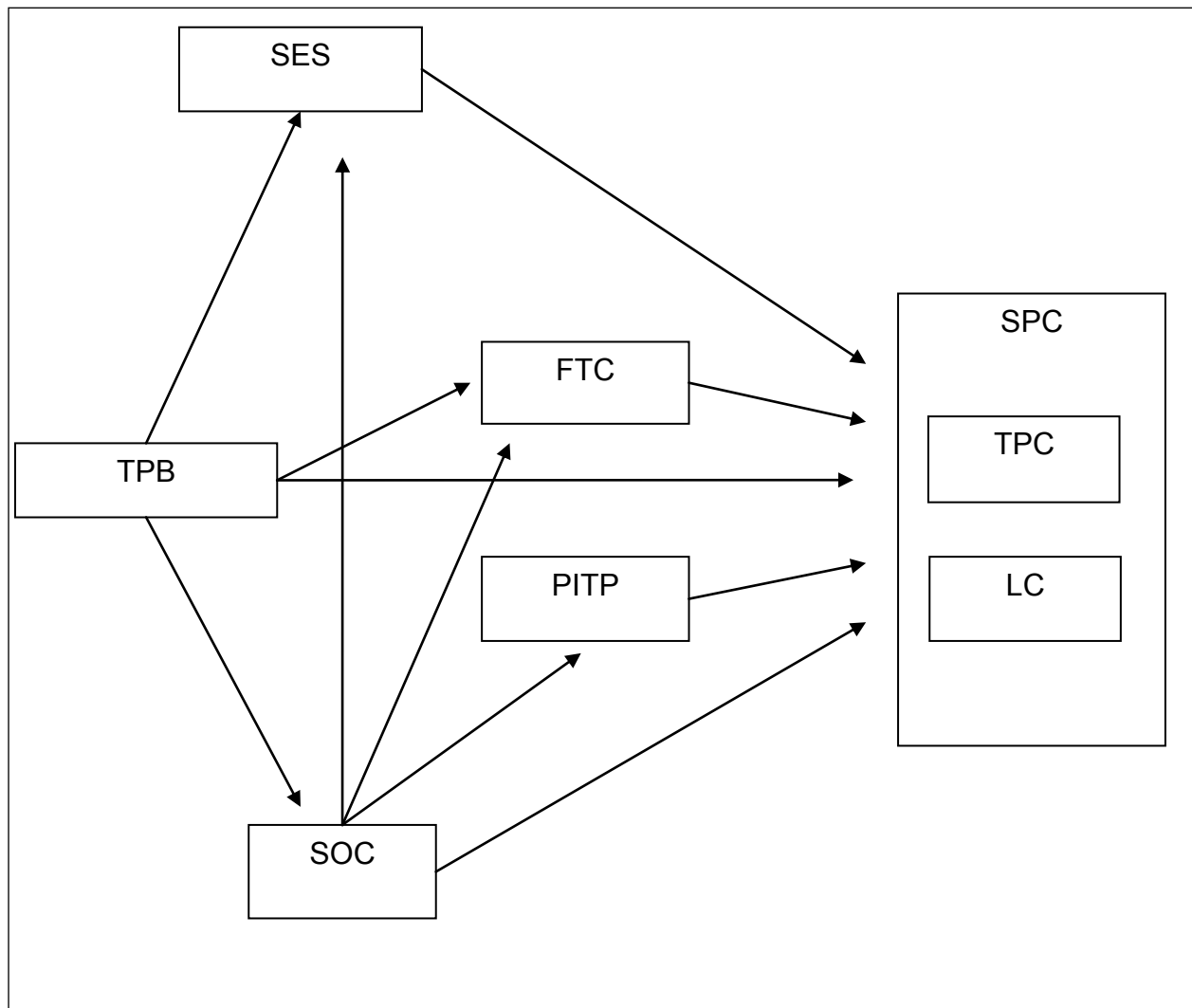
H5: The relationship between TPB and SPC is partially mediated by FTC.

H6: The relationship between TPB and SPC is partially mediated by PITP.

H7: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by FTC.

H8: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by PITP.

Figure 4. Conceptual Model for Path Analysis of This Study.



Note: SPC (sociopolitical control); TPC (tourism policy control); LC (leadership competence); SOC (sense of community); TPB (tourism participatory behavior); FTC (familiarity of tourism campaign); and PITP (perceived impact of tourism policy).

Chapter 3

Methods

Study Authorization

This study was initiated under the 2010-2011 Michigan Applied Public Policy Research (MAPPR) Grant, entitled “Policy Implications of the Pure Michigan Campaign” with data collection and analysis provided under the Institute for Public Policy and Social Research (IPPSR) at Michigan State University (MSU). The MAPPR grant is intended to support research that is related to economic development in the state of Michigan (Institute for Public Policy and Social Research, 2012).

The IPPSR’s Office of Survey Research (OSR) at MSU utilized its computer-assisted telephone interview (CATI) system to conduct a telephone survey of a random sample of Michigan residents. Instruments were developed using research related to the objectives of this study and the OSR added demographic and other variables for its “State of the State Survey (SOSS).”

Sample Design

The population of the SOSS is comprised of non-institutionalized Michigan residents. Since the Office of Survey Research conducted the SOSS by telephone, only individuals who lived in households that had landline telephones could be interviewed (Hembroff, 2011). The SOSS used a stratified random sample of Michigan residents who were more than 18 years old and English-speaking adults (IPPSR, 2011). Data sets were weighted based on the MSU Extension Office’s regional categories (See Appendix C.) in order to ensure they were representative of the adult population of

Michigan (Hembroff, 2011). Each survey participant's county of residence was also coded in the data set in order to allow reclassification into alternative regional groupings (Hembroff, 2011).

Figure 5. Six Regions in the State of the State Survey, Spring 2011.



A stratified sampling design assured sufficient minimum number of respondents from each of the strata to permit detailed analysis (Hembroff, 2011). The sample size recommended by the SOSS is approximately 1,000 respondents and calls for: (1) 150 telephone interviews from the East Central, the Southwest, and the combined Upper Peninsula and Northern Lower Peninsula regions; (2) 200 telephone interviews from the West Central and the Southeast regions; and (3) 150 telephone interviews from the City of Detroit (Hembroff, 2011).

Data Collection Procedure

Data for this study were collected as part of the SOSS Round 59 which provides information about citizen opinion on critical issues in Michigan (Institute for Public Policy and Social Research, 2012). The section of the SOSS that this research utilizes assesses the familiarity and satisfaction of the Pure Michigan campaign by Michigan residents. The spring 2011 version of the SOSS also collected responses of residents to four itemized scales that measure tourism policy control (TPC), leadership competence (LC), sense of community (SOC), and tourism participatory behaviors (TPC) related to tourism planning and policy at the local level (Appendix A).

The careful development of survey questions is critical because measurement error is derived from poor questionnaire wording and construction (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). To reduce measurement error, survey questions should use words that are consistent and valid measures of phenomena the study wants to examine (Flower, 1995). The study should conduct an appropriate literature review, consult with experts, and conduct pre- or pilot tests in order to minimize measurement error even further.

Before conducting the SOSS, two pilot studies were conducted. The first pilot study (n=36) was conducted in January 2011 with graduate students at MSU to test the initial instrument. The scales for TPC, LC, and SOC demonstrated acceptable reliability ranging from $\alpha=.87$ to $\alpha=.94$. After conducting the first pilot study, a second pilot study (n=34) was conducted by the OSR for all SOSS items in order to develop clearer wording for the final telephone survey instrument. Michigan residents were randomly selected by telephone number from a telephone directory and were sent an informational letter about the SOSS approximately one week prior to their interview (Hembroff, 2011). The telephone interview for the SOSS study survey was completed between May 13, 2011 and July 7, 2011. A total of 40,562 calls were made; 23.7% of calls were refused. In total, 947 Michigan residents completed the SOSS. The statewide sampling error was plus or minus 3.2%; regional sampling errors ranged from a low of plus or minus 7.2% for the West Central region to a high of plus or minus 13.1% for the Upper Peninsula (Hembroff, 2011).

Table 1. The Margins of Error for Each Region and the Total Statewide Sample.

Region	Number of Cases	Margin of Sampling Error
Upper Peninsula	57	± 13.1%
Northern Lower Peninsula	98	± 10.0%
West Central	187	± 7.2%
East Central	150	± 8.0%
Southwest	155	± 7.9%
Southeast	181	± 7.3%
Detroit	119	± 9.0%
Statewide Total	947	± 3.2%

Data Source: Hembroff, L.A. (2011).

Survey Measurement

The reduced survey items for this study were developed based on previous studies (Appendix B). The reason for the need to reduce the number of scale item was

because the questions of the study were in a larger survey so it needed to keep the part of the study as brief as possible. The operational definitions of major constructs are below.

Sociopolitical Control

The SOSS survey included 11 out of 17 items used by Zimmerman and Zahiser (1991), Smith and Propst (2001), and Peterson and his colleagues (2006) to measure the two dimensions of sociopolitical control: TPC and LC. TPC items were reworded slightly to reflect tourism content from the original items of policy control.

The response format for the six TPC items was a five-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with the following statements: “I feel like I have a pretty good understanding of the important issues surrounding the Pure Michigan campaign,” “I enjoy political participation because I want to have as much say as possible in influencing a state government agency like Travel Michigan,” “People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting state programs like the Pure Michigan campaign,” “There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how Pure Michigan funds are spent,” “It is important to me that I actively participate in influencing state government,” and “It is important to vote in state elections that might affect the outcome of the Pure Michigan campaign.”

The five selected items for the LC scale were previously used by Zimmerman and Zahniser (1991), Smith and Propst (2001), and Peterson and his colleagues (2006). The response format for the LC items was a five-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with the following statements: “I am often a leader in groups,” “I would prefer to be a leader rather than follower,” “I would rather have a

leadership role when I am involved in a group project,” “I can usually organize people to get things done,” and “Other people usually follow my idea.”

Sense of Community

This study used a reduced, four-item version of the original eight-item sense of community scale developed by Peterson and Reid (2008). One item represented each of the four dimensions of SOC: integration and fulfillment of needs, influence, membership, and shared emotional connection. The four items selected had the highest Cronbach alpha reliability scores based on pilot test data. The response format for the SOC scale was a five-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with the following statements: “My neighborhood or community helps me fulfill my needs,” “I feel like a member of my neighborhood or community,” “I have a say about what goes on in my neighborhood or community,” and “I have a good bond with others in my neighborhood or community.”

Tourism Participatory Behavior

The SOSS employed Smith and Propst’s (2001) participatory behavior scale modified to reflect tourism content. The responses to the five TPB item were given on a categorical scale from 0= no to 1=yes with the following questions: “I attended a public hearing or meeting that addressed statewide or local tourism issues,” “I communicated with Travel Michigan or state government about some matter related to the Pure Michigan campaign,” “I served on a committee or advisory board that addresses tourism issues such as the Visitor and Convention Bureau, or a similar body,” “I wrote a letter to an editor of a newspaper about the Pure Michigan campaign,” and “I posted a comment on Facebook, Twitter, or a blog about the Pure Michigan campaign.”

Familiarity with Tourism Campaign

Survey participants were asked their degree of familiarity with Michigan's recent tourism promotion, Pure Michigan. The response to the one FTC item was given on a five-Likert scale from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with the following statement: "How familiar are you with the Pure Michigan campaign?"

Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy

Two items related to the perceived impact of Pure Michigan were asked. The responses to the two items were given on a five-Likert scale from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with the following questions: "The Pure Michigan campaign has positively affected tourism in Michigan"; and "The Pure Michigan campaign has positively affected tourism in my local community."

Data Analysis

Survey data were analyzed in several steps. Preliminary statistics were calculated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. Descriptive statistics were calculated to determine the distributional characteristics of each variable including the means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis. Skewness and kurtosis statistics assess the normality of each variable (Babbie, 2001). In addition, all observed variables were standardized by transforming them into z-scores. The standard score allows calculation of the probability of a score fitting the standard normal distribution with a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1 (Field, 2005). Standardization into z-scores also permits the identification of univariate outliers (Hepper & Hepper, 2004).

Reliability is the extent to which a particular measure applied repeatedly to the same population will yield the same or relevant result each time (Babbie, 2001). One measure of reliability, internal consistency, is the degree of consistency within responses to a set of questions (Vaske, 2008). Cronbach's alpha test was conducted in order to estimate internal consistency. This technique measures the extent to which answers to survey questions correlate with each other (Cronbach, 2004). This tool can be used to estimate if survey participants consistently answer the items within a given scale.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used for evaluating the psychometric properties of the various scales in this study. CFA can be used to examine construct validity and whether a measure is invariant or unchanging across groups, populations, or time (Harrington, 2009). Therefore, CFA can be used to confirm the factor structure of this study as a step to assess whether the same structure can be identified in a new sample (Harrington, 2009). In other words, exploratory factor analysis may be used as an exploratory first step during the development of a measure. However, SPC has been developed with a strong theoretical framework in community psychology so it can be possible to skip the initial exploratory factor analysis and go directly to the CFA.

For examining the mean difference of the levels of independent variables on dependent variables, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. In addition, the present study used multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) to support construct validity of the scales of this study. The MANCOVA was used to test if there was covariation between variables. There should be significant covariation between variables and the SPC profile groups that were created on the basis of their SPC scale scores.

To determine overall model fit and direction as well as significance of relationships, path analysis was performed by ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Path analysis enables the proposed model to simultaneously evaluate variables in a causal process (Baloglu, 2000). In addition, path analysis allows this study to analyze direct and indirect relationships by examining path coefficients (beta weight) between variables in the model (de Vaus, 2002). A path coefficient as a standardized partial regression coefficient expresses the importance of a direct association between two variables (Yu & Littrell, 2003).

Most research studied moderation effects between observed variables by utilizing hierarchical regression tests. However, the moderation effect hardly explains a causal step approach because “a moderator is independently a third variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between a predictor and a criterion variable” (Vaske, 2008, p. 593). To demonstrate the indirect flow of the variables in the present study, mediation hypotheses were employed and tested through a causal step approach. Hence, this study explains several mediation effects toward SPC between observed variables in the tourism context by using ordinary squares regression.

For testing indirect (or mediation) effects between independent and dependent variables, a causal step approach using OLS (Table 2 and Figure 7.) was followed (Hoyle & Robinson, 2004; Vaske, 2008) to determine the existence of mediation effects, a series of criteria (Table 2) should be satisfied (Vaske, 2008). The mediation analysis is derived from its capacity to go beyond descriptive to a more operative understanding of the association among variables (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). In other words, mediation hypotheses are conducted to assess the indirect effect that an independent

variable affects a dependent variable through at least one mediator (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Additionally, this study conducted the Sobel test for assessing statistical significance of mediated relationships. The Sobel test has been recognized as one of common statistics for assessing mediation effects (Vaske, 2008). Partial mediation is satisfied when the Sobel's z-value is significant.

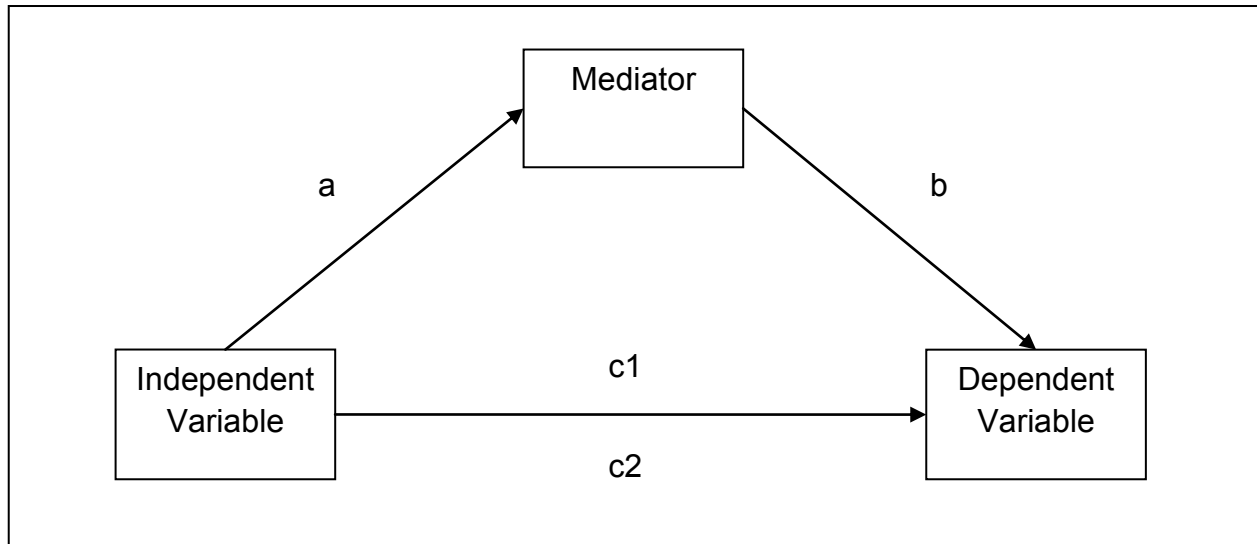
Table 2. Steps in Establishing Mediation Effects through the OLS Regression^a.

Step	Description	Regression Model	Equation
1	Demonstrates that the: Independent variable affects the dependent variable. This step estimates path c1 in Figure 7.	$Y=\beta_1(X)$	1
2	Independent variable affects the mediator. This step estimates path a in Figure 7.	$M=\beta_1(X)$	2
3	Independent variable and mediator affects the dependent variable. This step estimates path c2 and b in Figure 7.	$Y=\beta_1(X)+\beta_2(M)$	3
4	If M fully mediates the X→Y relationship, path c2=0. If M partially mediates the X→Y relationship, path c2<path c1.		
5	Conduct Sobel Test (Z-score): $\frac{a * b}{\sqrt{b^2 * SE_a^2 + a^2 * SE_b^2}}$ If the value of z is significant, M partially mediates between independent and dependent variable		

Note: X= independent variable, Y=dependent variable, and M=moderator

^aAdapted from Vaske (2008), p.578.

Figure 6. Mediation Regression Model.



Note: Adapted from Vaske (2008), pp.576-578.

Chapter 4

Results

Study results are presented in this chapter. First, descriptive statistics are reported to include: socio-demographic characteristics of survey respondents, familiarity with Pure Michigan, perceived impacts of Pure Michigan, respondents' participatory activities in tourism policy and planning, and group differences in familiarity and perceived impacts. Second, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results are presented: descriptive statistics of the constructs, reliability and normality tests, and then overall CFA results. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) test results are also presented in order to evaluate the mean differences of the major constructs by some of socio-demographic variables. Third, multiple analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) results are reported as another way to provide evidence for scale validity. Finally, path analysis results are discussed to assess the quality of the proposed model, hypotheses and mediation effects.

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Table 3 contains the survey respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. The majority of participants (56.6%) were female. The greatest proportion of participants, 36.4%, were 65 years or older; around 22.5% were in their 50s; 15.3% were between 60 to 64 years old; 14.0% were in their 40s; 7.8% were in their 30s; and 4.0% were in their 20s or less than 20 years old.

As for race, 84.8% were white while 12.1% were black/African Americans and 2.7% were other racial groups. As to employment, 44.0% of the respondents had at least part time jobs. Retirees comprised 37.4% of the participants, and 18.7% were

unemployed, laid off, looking for a job, full time students, disabled, homemakers, or unable to classify. The preponderance of survey respondents came from the West Central (19.7%) and Southeast (19.1%) regions of Michigan; 16.4% were from the Southwest; 15.8% were from East Central regions of the state; 12.6% were from the city of Detroit; and 10.3% and 6.0% of the participants resided in the Northern Lower and Upper Peninsulas, respectively. In terms of educational background of the respondents, 65.9% of the respondents enrolled or were enrolling at least technical/junior colleges or 1-4 year colleges.

As to the survey participants' marital status, 54.4% of the respondents were married or remarried while 17.2% and 13.5% were widowed and divorced, respectively. The survey participants' level of household income was also calculated. Among the survey respondents, 17.7% of them earned less than 20,000 dollars in their household in 2010 whereas 14.7% of the respondents earned more than 100,000 dollars in the year.

Table 3. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents.

Variable Name	Value	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	411	43.4
	Female	536	56.6
	Total	947	100.0
Age	Less than 30 years	37	4.0
	30-39 years	72	7.8
	40-49 years	130	14.0
	50-59 years	209	22.5
	60-64 years	142	15.3
	65 or older	337	36.4
	Total	927	100.0
Race	White	803	84.8
	Black/African American	120	12.7
	Other	24	2.5
	Total	947	100.0
Employment	Work full time	295	31.5
	Work part time	104	11.1
	Work and go to school	4	0.4
	Have a job, but not at work last week	9	1.0
	Unemployed/Laid off/Look for work	27	2.9
	Retired	350	37.4
	School full time	8	0.9
	Homemaker	89	9.5
	Disabled	48	5.1
	Other: Unable to classify	3	0.3
	Total	937	100.0
Region	Upper Peninsula	57	6.0
	Northern Lower Peninsula	98	10.3
	West Central	187	19.7
	East Central	150	15.8
	Southwest	155	16.4
	Southeast	181	19.1
	Detroit	119	12.6
	Total	947	100.0
Education	Lower than high school	25	2.8
	High school graduate	274	29.0
	Technical/Junior college	23	2.4
	College (1-4 year graduate)	472	50.1
	Some post graduate	24	2.6
	Graduate degree	125	13.2
	Total	945	100.0

Note: The value of "frequency" varies, due to questions not answered.

Table 3. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents (Cont'd).

Variable Name	Value	Frequency	%
Marital Status	Married/Remarried	509	54.4
	Divorced	126	13.5
	Separated	7	0.7
	Widowed	161	17.2
	Member of an unmarried couple	15	1.6
	Single/Never been married	117	12.5
	Total	935	100.0
Household Income	<\$20,000	153	17.7
	\$20,000<\$30,000	93	10.8
	\$30,000<\$40,000	102	11.8
	\$40,000<\$50,000	108	12.5
	\$50,000<\$60,000	91	10.5
	\$60,000<\$70,000	71	8.2
	\$70,000<\$90,000	84	9.7
	\$70,000<\$100,000	34	3.9
	>\$100,000	127	14.7
	Total	863	100.0

Note: The value of “frequency” varies, due to questions not answered.

Familiarity with the Pure Michigan Campaign

Respondents’ overall familiarity level of the Pure Michigan campaign is presented in Table 4. Approximately 87% of the survey participants were at least a little familiar with the campaign: very familiar (25.4%); somewhat familiar (47.0%); and not very familiar (15.2%) whereas 12.5% of the respondents were not familiar at all with the campaign.

Table 4. Familiarity with the Pure Michigan Campaign.

Variable Name	Value	Frequency	%
FTC	Not familiar at all	118	12.5
	Not very familiar	143	15.2
	Somewhat familiar	444	47.0
	Very familiar	240	25.4
	Total	946	100

Note: FTC (Familiarity with Tourism Campaign).

This study considered whether citizens' familiarity with the Pure Michigan campaign differed according to age, region, education, and household income. The question was analyzed utilizing one-way ANOVA with an F-test in order to assess the statistical significance of the resulting difference among the four groups of data (Table 5).

The study found statistically significant differences according to age [$F(4, 920) = 5.174, p=0.000$], region [$F(6, 938) = 4.162, p=0.000$], education [$F(3, 938) = 21.312, p=0.000$], and household income [$F(8, 852) = 11.178, p=0.000$]. The 30s age group ($M=3.04$) was most familiar with the Pure Michigan campaign while those less than 30 years old ($M=2.46$) were least familiar with the campaign. The respondents who resided in the Southeast region of Michigan were most familiar with campaign whereas the survey participants in the Upper Peninsula ($M=2.47$) were least familiar. The survey participants who had more than a college education ($M=3.01$) were most familiar with the campaign while the respondents who had less than a high school education ($M=2.39$) were least familiar. The respondents who earned more than 100,000 dollars were most familiar with the campaign whereas those who earned less than 20,000 dollars were least familiar.

Table 5. Mean Differences in Familiarity with the Pure Michigan.

Variable	Value	Mean	S.D.	df	F-Value
Age	Less than 30 years	2.46	1.07	4	5.174***
	30s	3.04	0.84		
	40s	2.98	0.94		
	50s	2.83	0.96		
	More than 60 years	2.68	0.98		
	Total	2.77	0.97		
Region	Upper Peninsula	2.47	1.12	6	4.162***
	Northern Lower Peninsula	2.73	1.02		
	West Central	2.82	0.96		
	East Central	2.64	0.99		
	Southwest	2.88	0.91		
	Southeast	2.96	0.87		
	Detroit	2.53	1.00		
	Total	2.76	0.97		
Education	Less than High School	2.39	0.92	3	21.312***
	High School	2.42	0.98		
	Some College	2.82	0.97		
	More than College	3.01	0.89		
	Total	2.76	0.97		
Household Income	<\$20,000	2.36	1.04	8	11.178***
	\$20,000<\$30,000	2.54	0.94		
	\$30,000<\$40,000	2.71	0.90		
	\$40,000<\$50,000	2.70	0.98		
	\$50,000<\$60,000	2.98	0.87		
	\$60,000<\$70,000	2.87	0.86		
	\$70,000<\$90,000	3.15	0.75		
	\$70,000<\$100,000	3.09	0.87		
	>\$100,000	3.19	0.82		
	Total	2.80	0.95		

Note: Legend: 1. Not familiar all to 4. Very Familiar

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Perceived Impact of the Pure Michigan Campaign

Citizens' opinions on statewide and local impacts of the Pure Michigan campaign was evaluated (Table 6). As for statewide impact, approximately 87% of the survey participants expressed that the campaign positively affected Michigan's tourism; the remainder did not. As for local impact, the response was evenly split with 49.0% agreeing that the campaign had a positive impact on their local communities and 48.8% disagreeing.

Table 6. Respondents' Perceived Impacts of the Pure Michigan Campaign.

Variable Name	Value	Frequency	%	Mean	S.D.
Statewide	Strongly Disagree (1)	11	1.4	4.03	.910
	Somewhat Disagree (2)	75	10.2		
	Neither (3)	5	0.6		
	Somewhat Agree (4)	437	58.7		
	Strongly Agree (5)	209	28.1		
	Total	737 ^a	100.0		
Local	Strongly Disagree (1)	90	12.3	3.02	1.327
	Somewhat Disagree (2)	268	36.5		
	Neither (3)	16	2.2		
	Somewhat Agree (4)	259	35.3		
	Strongly Agree (5)	100	13.7		
	Total	733 ^a	100.0		

Note: The value of "frequency" varies, due to questions not answered.

The present study assumed whether citizens' perceived impact of the Pure Michigan campaign differed according to age, region, education, and household income. The assumption was assessed using one-way ANOVA with an F-test for evaluating the statistical significance of the resulting differences among the four groups of data (Table 7). The study found that there were statistically significant differences between citizens' perceived statewide impact of the campaign and the four socio-economic variables: age [$F(4, 746) = 2.967, p=0.05$]; region [$F(6, 757) = 3.567, p=0.01$]; education [$F(3, 757) = 3.855, p=0.01$]; and household income [$F(8, 700) = 2.336, p=0.01$]. The respondents, who were in their 30s ($M=4.11$) and 40s ($M=4.11$), were most positive about the statewide impact of the campaign while the 20s ($M=3.54$) were least positive. Survey participants who resided in the Southwest region of Michigan were most positive about the statewide impact of the campaign whereas residents of Detroit ($M=3.55$) were least positive. Survey participants who possessed more than a college education ($M=4.05$) were most positive about the statewide impact of the campaign while those who had less than a high school education ($M=3.71$) were

least positive. Respondents who earned more than 100,000 dollars (M=4.24) were most positive about the statewide impact of the campaign while those who earned less than 20,000 dollars (M=3.69) were least positive.

Table 7. Mean Differences in Perceived Statewide Impact of Pure Michigan.

Variable	Value	Mean	S.D.	df	F-Value
Age	Less than 30 years	3.54	1.04	4	2.967*
	30s	4.11	0.92		
	40s	4.11	0.82		
	50s	3.95	1.06		
	More than 60 years	3.84	1.11		
	Total	3.92	1.04		
Region	Upper Peninsula	3.75	1.10	6	3.567**
	Northern Lower Peninsula	3.91	1.22		
	West Central	3.83	1.01		
	East Central	3.88	1.10		
	Southwest	4.11	0.83		
	Southeast	4.08	0.98		
	Detroit	3.55	1.21		
	Total	3.91	1.05		
Education	Less than High School	3.71	1.42	3	3.855**
	High School	3.73	1.11		
	Some College	3.90	1.08		
	More than College	4.05	0.95		
	Total	3.91	1.05		
Household Income	<\$20,000	3.69	1.20	8	2.336**
	\$20,000<\$30,000	3.79	1.23		
	\$30,000<\$40,000	3.92	0.98		
	\$40,000<\$50,000	3.83	1.01		
	\$50,000<\$60,000	3.98	0.98		
	\$60,000<\$70,000	3.90	1.21		
	\$70,000<\$90,000	3.93	1.04		
	\$70,000<\$100,000	4.03	0.96		
	>\$100,000	4.24	0.77		
	Total	3.93	1.04		

Legend: 1. Strongly Disagree to 5. Strongly Agree

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

As for citizens' perceived local impact of the campaign, age group [F (4, 762) = 7.850, p=0.000] and educational level of the respondents [F (3, 775) = 2.763, p=0.05] were significantly different (Table 8). On the other hand, there were no statistically

significant differences between perceived local impact, region and household income.

Survey participants who were in their 40s (M= 3.90) were most positive about their perceived local impact of the campaign while those less than 30 years old (M=2.68) were least positive. Respondents who had less than a high school education (M=3.95) were most positive about local impact of the campaign.

Table 8. Mean Differences in Perceived Local Impact of Pure Michigan.

Variable	Value	Mean	S.D.	df	F-Value
Age	Less than 30 years	2.68	1.39	4	7.850***
	30s	3.52	1.28		
	40s	3.90	1.11		
	50s	3.88	1.08		
	More than 60 years	3.77	1.14		
	Total	3.75	1.16		
Region	Upper Peninsula	3.66	1.18	6	1.620
	Northern Lower Peninsula	3.96	1.09		
	West Central	3.76	1.05		
	East Central	3.67	1.20		
	Southwest	3.65	1.19		
	Southeast	3.87	1.16		
	Detroit	3.51	1.36		
	Total	3.74	1.17		
Education	Less than High School	3.95	1.24	3	2.763*
	High School	3.54	1.18		
	Some College	3.82	1.15		
	More than College	3.79	1.17		
	Total	3.74	1.17		
Household Income	<\$20,000	3.67	1.21	8	1.277
	\$20,000<\$30,000	3.55	1.12		
	\$30,000<\$40,000	3.66	1.12		
	\$40,000<\$50,000	3.60	1.27		
	\$50,000<\$60,000	3.76	1.16		
	\$60,000<\$70,000	3.92	1.13		
	\$70,000<\$90,000	3.73	1.17		
	\$70,000<\$100,000	4.13	0.97		
	>\$100,000	3.86	1.17		
	Total	3.74	1.17		

Legend: 1. Strongly Disagree to 5. Strongly Agree

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Citizens' Tourism Participatory Behavior

The descriptive statistics for citizens' tourism participatory behaviors are presented in Table 9. A multiple responses analysis created two groups. Group 1 contains individuals who did not participate in any kind of tourism participatory activity in the last five years while Group 2 is comprised of individuals who participated in at least one tourism participatory activity in the last five years. Depending on the activity 3.6 to 11.7 percent of the survey participants expressed that they once participated in activities in tourism policy and planning in the last five years. Approximately 21% of the survey respondents expressed that they once participated in policy-making activities related to the tourism context while approximately 79% of the respondents did not.

Table 9. Respondents' Participatory Activities in Tourism Policy and Planning.

Variable Name	Statement	Frequency	Percentage
TPB1	Have attended a public hearing or meeting that addressed statewide or local tourism issues in the past five years.	64	11.7
TPB2	Have communicated with Travel Michigan or state government about some matter related to the Pure Michigan campaign in the past five years.	60	9.8
TPB3	Have served on a committee or advisory board that addresses tourism issues such as the Visitor and Convention Bureau, or a similar body in the past five years.	28	4.4
TPB4	Have written a letter to an editor of a newspaper about the Pure Michigan campaign in the past five years.	15	3.6
TPB5	Have posted a comment on Facebook, Twitter or a blog about the Pure Michigan campaign in the past five years.	51	6.7

Note: Legend: 0: No 1: Yes

Reliability and Normality of Major Constructs

Perceived level of psychological empowerment was measured by the 11-item SPC scale (SPCS). The SPCS consists of two subscales, one assessing TPC and the second measuring LC. The SOC was assessed by 4-items derived from the 8-item SOC scale developed by Peterson, Speer and McMillan (2008). Generally, an alpha of more than 0.70 is recognized as acceptable in tourism and recreation studies (Vaske, 2008). Even though this study reduced the number of items from the original version of the scales, the reliability or internal consistency exceeded the recommended standard (Table 10).

Table 10. The Results of Reliability of TPC, LC, and SOC.

Construct	Variable Name	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
TPC	TPC1	0.819
	TPC2	0.804
	TPC3	0.808
	TPC4	0.816
	TPC5	0.815
	TPC6	0.813
LC	LC1	0.813
	LC2	0.814
	LC3	0.819
	LC4	0.814
	LC5	0.821
SOC	SOC1	0.803
	SOC2	0.804
	SOC3	0.803
	SOC4	0.811

Note: Overall Cronbach's Alpha for 15 items was 0.822.

This study also conducted normality tests for skewness and kurtosis. Skewness is the symmetry of a frequency distribution while kurtosis is the degree to which scores cluster in the tails (Field, 2005). The multivariate normality and maximum likelihood assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis require that all observed variables are univariate normally distributed (Harrington, 2009). Table 11 shows that the value for univariate skewness and kurtosis ranged from -1.899 to 0.205 and from -1.529 to 2.759

respectively. Values of all variables for univariate skewness and kurtosis thus fell within conventional criteria which is that absolute values must be less than 3.0 for skewness while absolute value must be less than 10.0 for kurtosis (Harrington, 2009; Kline, 2005).

Table 11. Normality Test Results of Observed Variables.

Construct	Variable Name	Skewness ^a	Kurtosis ^a
TPC	TPC1	-0.519	-1.109
	TPC2	-0.718	-0.871
	TPC3	-0.664	-1.030
	TPC4	0.205	-1.529
	TPC5	-1.147	0.072
	TPC6	-1.899	2.399
LC	LC1	-0.885	-0.492
	LC2	-0.858	-0.647
	LC3	-0.830	-0.723
	LC4	-1.748	2.759
	LC5	-1.295	1.194
SOC	SOC1	-0.813	-0.622
	SOC2	-1.223	0.229
	SOC3	-0.404	-1.413
	SOC4	-1.707	2.336

Note: Skewness >|3|=extremely skewed while kurtosis >|10|=extremely peaked.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Major Constructs

Before conducting CFA, this study assessed the survey participants' general perspectives of the major constructs (Table 12). The mean for the overall TPC scale was 3.75 on a 5-point Likert scale, reflecting agreement with the statements and relatively high level of tourism policy control. The mean for the overall LC scale was 3.70 on a 5-point Likert scale, indicating agreement with the statements and high degree of leadership competence. Respondents perceived themselves to have relatively high level of both TPC (i.e. positive attitudes regarding their potential to influence decisions regarding Pure Michigan) and leadership competence (i.e. ability to take charge when the situation warrants). The only item scoring below the midpoint

(3.0) was “TPC4” (M=2.67), which reflects respondents’ sense of their ability to influence how Pure Michigan funds are spent. The mean for the overall SOC was 3.92 on a 5-point Likert scale, revealing agreement with the statements and strong sense of community. The survey participants were slightly more positive about their connectedness (SC2) with their neighborhood and communities (SC4) than they were about having their needs met (SC1) or influencing decisions (SC3), respectively.

Table 12. Respondents' General Perspectives of TPC, LC and SOC.

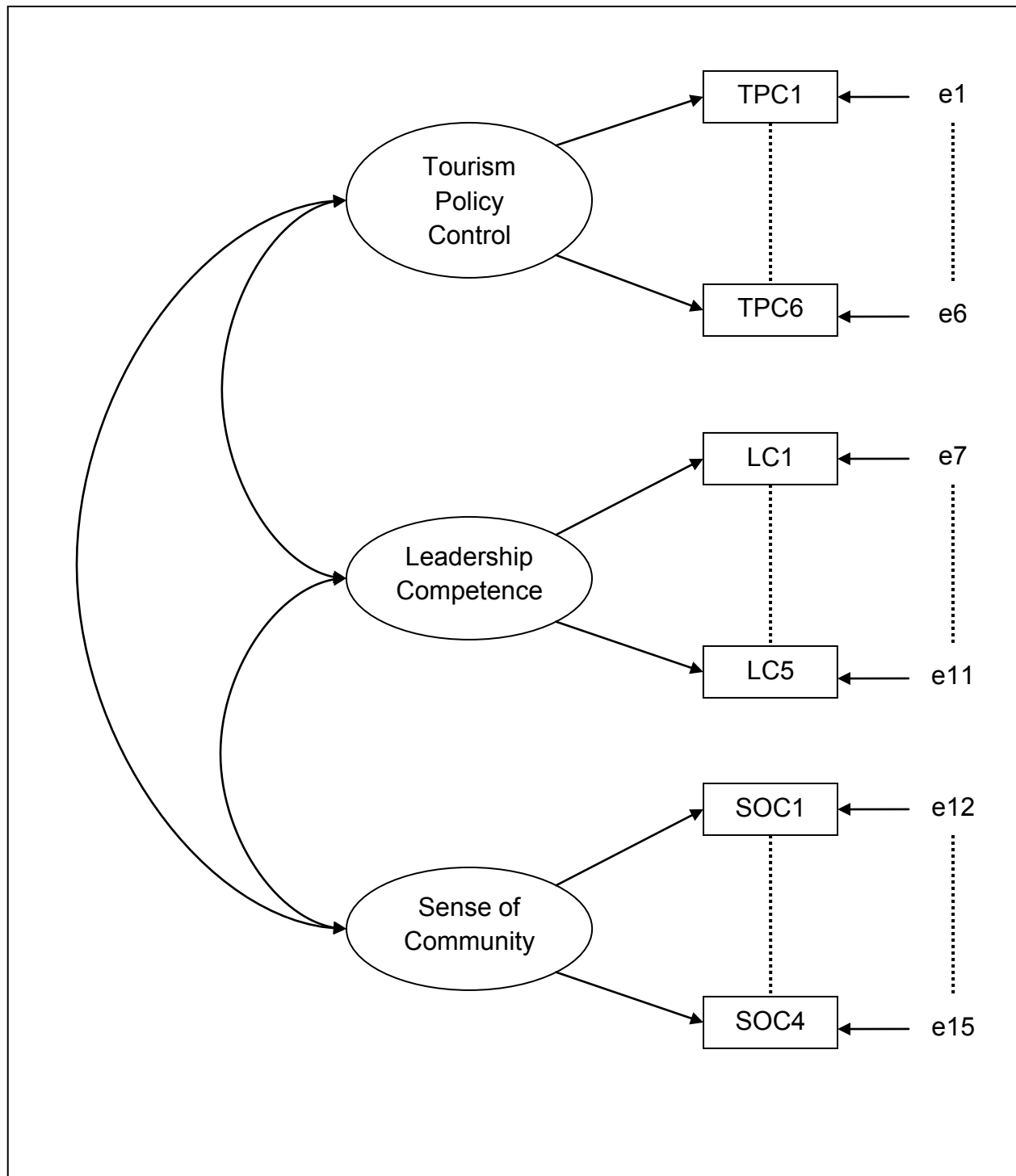
Variable Name		Statement	N	Mean (S.D.)
TPC	TPC1	I feel like I have a pretty good understanding of the Important issues surrounding the Pure Michigan campaign.	782	3.74 (1.17)
	TPC2	I enjoy political participation because I want to have as much as possible in influencing a state government agency like Travel Michigan.	777	3.76 (1.28)
	TPC3	People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting state programs like the Pure Michigan campaign.	770	3.62 (1.40)
	TPC4	There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how Pure Michigan funds are spent.	757	2.67 (1.47)
	TPC5	It is important to me that I actively participate in influencing state government.	792	4.09 (1.22)
	TPC6	It is important to vote in state elections that might affect the outcome of the Pure Michigan campaign.	792	4.60 (0.90)
	Total		716	3.75 (0.78)
LC	LC1	I am often a leader in groups.	795	3.55 (1.34)
	LC2	I would prefer to be a leader rather than follower.	789	3.56 (1.43)
	LC3	I would rather have a leadership role when I am involved in a group project.	795	3.41 (1.45)
	LC4	I would rather organize people to get things done.	798	4.03 (1.21)
	LC5	Other people usually follow my ideas.	789	3.87 (1.11)
	Total		771	3.70 (1.04)
SOC	SOC1	My neighborhood or community helps me fulfill my needs.	791	3.65 (1.32)
	SOC2	I feel like a member of my neighborhood or community.	799	4.15 (1.17)
	SOC3	I have a say about what goes on in my neighborhood or community.	798	3.56 (1.39)
	SOC4	I have a good bond with others in my neighborhood or community.	799	4.33 (0.99)
	Total		790	3.92 (0.98)

Note: Legend: 1. Strongly Disagree to 5. Strongly Agree.

The value of "frequency" varies, due to questions no answered.

Figure 7 depicts the proposed measurement model for conducting CFA which consists of three factors and 15 observed variables. The observed variables were tested based on the measurement by employing the factor loadings of the observed variables and their error term (S. H. Kim, 2007). All constructs and observed variables were specified based on previous research. TPC was specified by six observed variables. LC was specified by five observed variables. SOC was specified by four observed variables. A CFA with robust maximum likelihood estimation was conducted on the 15 items of the TPC, LC, and SOC, utilizing the AMOS 19.0.

Figure 7. Proposed Measurement Model for Confirmatory Factor Analysis.



Note: All observed variables were transformed to z-score.

The recommended CFA goodness-of-fit indices and their ranges are displayed in Table 13. The value of Chi-square reveals the amount of difference between observed and expected covariance matrices (Suhr, 2006). Comparative fit index (CFI) examines

the proportionate improvement in fit by comparing the target model with the independence model (Schilling, 2002). The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) is known as the non-normed fit Index which measures parsimony by evaluating the degrees of freedom from the proposed model to the null model (Hoe, 2008). Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) measures the degree to which the analyzed data approximates the population covariance matrix (Raykov, 2008).

Table 13. The Recommended Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Goodness-of-Fit Indices Used for this Study	Recommended Range of Good Model Fit
Chi-square Statistics (χ^2)	Significant p-value (p,0.01)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.90
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	>0.90
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08

Date Source: Kline (2005).

In step one, CFA for the proposed measurement model with the major constructs was tested. According to the Table 13 criteria, the proposal model did not produce a clearly good fit with the data, $\chi^2(87) = 402.941$, $p < 0.001$ (CFI = 0.908, TLI = 0.873, RMSEA = 0.072). As evidenced by the significant chi square and fit indices close to the standards, the data fit the model marginally well. Therefore, the model was modified and retested.

The proposed model was modified not only because it did not fit the data extremely well, but also because some observed variables had low standardized factor loadings and large residuals. Kline (2005) suggests that standardized factor loadings from CFA should be greater than 0.50. Based on Kline's criterion, three observed variables (TPC1, TPC4, and TPC6) with low factor loadings for the expected constructs were eliminated from the initial model. After removing these three observed variables

which standardized factor loadings were less than 0.50, the recommended goodness of fit indices were met in the modified model: $\chi^2(51) = 274.041$, $p < 0.001$ (CFI = 0.927, TLI = 0.902, RMSEA = 0.079) in the modified model.

Table 14. Comparison of the Proposed and Modified Full Measurement Models (n=694).

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
Initial Model	402.941	87	0.908	0.873	0.072	
Modified Model	274.041	51	0.927	0.902	0.079	128.9

Note: $\Delta\chi^2 = \chi^2$ difference between two models.

Studies propose that the χ^2 statistic is not a strong test of model fit and should be de-emphasized. This is because it is affected by sample size and distribution of variables (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993; M. R. Kim, 2010); as a result, it typically rejects the model if large samples are utilized. Therefore, this study excluded χ^2 as an index to assess goodness of fit. As such, the modified model was acceptable for testing the hypotheses of this study.

Assessment of Reliability and Validity

Both validity and reliability of the modified measurement model were assessed. The reliability test was performed by calculating Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, which assess the internal consistency of the observed variables measuring each factor. In the modified model, the values of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability of three constructs exceeded the recommended standard 0.70 (Kline, 2005). Both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability are generally used to test the reliability of scales. Cronbach's alpha test was conducted in this study in order to estimate internal consistency by measuring the extent to which answers to survey questions correlate with each other (Cronbach, 2004). The composite reliability test provides an

estimate of the variance shared by the respected indicators, through utilizing the item loadings obtained within a nomological network (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006; Karim, 2009). A nomological network refers to the basic features of a construct by providing evidence of their observable manifestations and the interrelationship among constructs (Peterson and Zimmerman, 2004).

Average variance extracted (AVE) was used to test discriminant validity, which exceeded the recommended standard 0.50 (Fazlollahi, 2002). Discriminant validity means that measurement do not only have method variance, but they are also pure measures of discrete traits (Thronrdike & Thronrdike-Christ, 2010). The AVE for each of the constructs is greater than the squares of the correlations between all constructs (Fornell & Larker, 1981).

Table 15. The Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Modified Measurement Model.

Construct	Variable Name	Standardized Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
TPC	TPC2	0.758***	0.727	0.71	0.51
	TPC3	0.506***			
	TPC5	0.691***			
LC	LC1	0.635***	0.850	0.82	0.54
	LC2	0.825***			
	LC3	0.838***			
	LC4	0.702***			
	LC5	0.631***			
SOC	SOC1	0.728***	0.855	0.85	0.59
	SOC2	0.865***			
	SOC3	0.701***			
	SOC4	0.681***			

Note: Standardized loadings refer to relationship between observed variables and their associated factors for examining convergent validity.

Composite Reliability= $(\sum \text{Standardized Loading})^2 / [(\sum \text{Standardized Loading})^2 + \sum \text{Indicator Measurement Error}]$.

Average Variance Extracted= $(\sum \text{Standardized Loading}^2) / [\sum \text{Standardized Loading}^2 + \sum \text{Indicator Measurement Error}]$.

***Factor loadings are all significant at the level of 0.001.

Level of Psychological Empowerment and Sense of Community

This study analyzed the survey participants' perceived level of psychological empowerment by socio-demographic variables using the eight item SPCS in the modified model.

Group Differences in Tourism Policy Control

The study conducted one-way ANOVA to test for statistically significant differences between TPC and the socio-demographic variables, age, region, education, and household income. First, there was a statistically significant difference between age and overall TPC [$F(4, 646) = 8.821, p < 0.001$]. The 40s age group ($M = 4.02$) had the greatest sense of control over their ability to influence tourism policy-making decisions via the political processes while the 30s group ($M = 3.35$) had the least sense of TPC. Second, there was a statistically significant difference between region and overall TPC [$F(6, 647) = 5.055, p = 0.000$]. Residents of the Southwest region of Michigan ($M = 4.03$) had the greatest sense of TPC whereas residents of the East Central region ($M = 3.29$) had the least sense of TPC. Third, there was a statistically significant difference between education and TPC [$F(3, 648) = 15.033, p < 0.001$]. Those with at least some college education had a greater sense of TPC than those with high school and less education. Finally, there was a statistically significant difference with household income [$F(8, 638) = 8.735, p < 0.001$]. Respondents who annually earned between \$70,000 and \$100,000 ($M = 4.32$) had the greatest sense of TPC whereas the survey participants whose annual household income was between \$40,000 and \$50,000 had the least sense of TPC.

Table 16. Mean Differences in Tourism Policy Control.

Variable	Value	Mean	S.D.	df	F-Value
Age	Less than 30 years	3.35	1.03	4	8.821***
	30s	3.73	1.15		
	40s	4.02	0.92		
	50s	3.70	0.99		
	More than 60 years	3.90	0.97		
	Total	3.73	1.05		
Region	Upper Peninsula	4.01	1.18	6	5.055***
	Northern Lower Peninsula	3.63	1.02		
	West Central	3.47	0.98		
	East Central	3.29	1.34		
	Southwest	4.03	0.89		
	Southeast	3.75	1.03		
	Detroit	3.98	0.87		
	Total	3.74	1.04		
Education	Less than High School	3.55	1.67	3	15.033***
	High School	3.35	1.15		
	Some College	4.01	0.86		
	More than College	3.80	1.02		
	Total	3.74	1.05		
Household Income	<\$20,000	3.41	1.22	8	8.785***
	\$20,000<\$30,000	3.62	0.94		
	\$30,000<\$40,000	3.63	1.08		
	\$40,000<\$50,000	3.09	1.01		
	\$50,000<\$60,000	3.95	0.90		
	\$60,000<\$70,000	3.46	0.92		
	\$70,000<\$90,000	3.89	0.80		
	\$70,000<\$100,000	4.32	0.75		
	>\$100,000	4.04	1.05		
	Total	3.74	1.04		

Legend: 1. Strongly Disagree to 5. Strongly Agree. TPC included TPC2, 3, and 5.

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Group Differences in Leadership Competence

The statistical differences between LC and socio-demographic characteristics were assessed by one-way ANOVA. First, there was a statistically significant difference between age and overall LC [$F(4, 646) = 11.317, p < 0.001$]. The 30s age group ($M = 4.21$) had the greatest perceived level of LC whereas the 60s-plus age group had the lowest perceived level. Second, there was a statistically significant difference between

region and LC [$F(6, 647) = 2.675, p < 0.05$]. Residents of the Southeast region of Michigan ($M = 4.13$) had the greatest sense of LC while the respondents of the Southwest ($M = 3.78$) had the least sense LC. Third, there was a statistically significant difference between household income and LC [$F(8, 638) = 5.959, p < 0.001$]. The survey participants who annually earned between \$70,000 and \$100,000 ($M = 4.39$) had the greatest sense of LC whereas the respondents who annually obtained between \$20,000 and \$30,000 ($M = 3.33$) had the least sense of LC. There was no statistically significant difference between education and LC.

Table 17. Mean Differences in Leadership Competence.

Variable	Value	Mean	S.D.	df	F-Value
Age	Less than 30 years	4.11	0.81	4	11.371***
	30s	4.21	0.78		
	40s	4.13	0.83		
	50s	3.79	0.96		
	More than 60 years	3.57	1.09		
	Total	3.99	0.91		
Region	Upper Peninsula	3.96	0.87	6	2.675*
	Northern Lower Peninsula	4.04	0.75		
	West Central	3.87	0.91		
	East Central	3.88	0.92		
	Southwest	3.78	0.75		
	Southeast	4.13	0.93		
	Detroit	4.01	1.11		
	Total	4.00	0.91		
Education	Less than High School	3.39	1.40	3	1.586
	High School	4.07	1.03		
	Some College	3.97	0.84		
	More than College	3.97	0.86		
	Total	3.99	0.91		
Household Income	<\$20,000	4.20	0.81	8	5.959***
	\$20,000<\$30,000	3.33	0.91		
	\$30,000<\$40,000	3.77	1.23		
	\$40,000<\$50,000	3.84	1.01		
	\$50,000<\$60,000	4.02	1.03		
	\$60,000<\$70,000	3.84	0.90		
	\$70,000<\$90,000	4.05	0.73		
	\$70,000<\$100,000	4.39	0.73		
	>\$100,000	4.14	0.72		
	Total	3.99	0.91		

Legend: 1. Strongly Disagree to 5. Strongly Agree

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Different Level toward Sense of Community

The study assessed the respondents' different perspective toward SOC by socio-demographic characteristics using one-way ANOVA. First, there was a statistically significant difference between age and SOC [$F(4, 646) = 31.897, p < 0.001$]. The 40s age group ($M = 4.04$) had the greatest SOC while the 30s age group ($M = 2.88$) had the lowest SOC. Second, there was a statistically significant difference between region and SOC [$F(6, 647) = 5.336, p < 0.001$]. Residents of the Northern Lower Peninsula

(M=4.17) had the highest SOC whereas the respondents of the East Central (M=3.52) had the lowest SOC. Third, there was a statistically significant difference between education and SOC [$F(3, 648) = 18.288, p < 0.001$]. The group with more than a college education (M=4.08) had the greatest SOC while the respondents who obtained a high school diploma (M=3.30) had the lowest SOC. Finally, there was a statistically significant difference between household income and SOC. Respondents who annually earned between \$70,000 and \$100,000 (M=4.53) had the greatest SOC whereas those who annually earned less than \$20,000 (M=2.96) had the lowest SOC.

Table 18. Mean Differences in Sense of Community.

Variable	Value	Mean	S.D.	df	F-Value
Age	Less than 30 years	2.88	1.25	4	31.897***
	30s	3.91	0.97		
	40s	3.95	0.97		
	50s	4.04	0.76		
	More than 60 years	3.99	1.01		
	Total	3.72	1.11		
Region	Upper Peninsula	3.96	0.96	6	5.336***
	Northern Lower Peninsula	4.17	0.70		
	West Central	3.73	0.97		
	East Central	3.52	1.11		
	Southwest	4.05	0.91		
	Southeast	3.67	1.19		
	Detroit	3.19	1.27		
	Total	3.73	1.11		
Education	Less than High School	3.84	1.20	3	18.288***
	High School	3.30	1.38		
	Some College	3.72	1.01		
	More than College	4.08	0.80		
	Total	3.72	1.11		
Household Income	<\$20,000	2.96	1.50	8	16.314***
	\$20,000<\$30,000	3.27	0.92		
	\$30,000<\$40,000	3.37	1.04		
	\$40,000<\$50,000	3.69	0.78		
	\$50,000<\$60,000	3.50	1.17		
	\$60,000<\$70,000	4.08	0.87		
	\$70,000<\$90,000	4.09	0.77		
	\$70,000<\$100,000	4.53	0.57		
	>\$100,000	4.06	0.90		
	Total	3.72	1.11		

Legend: 1. Strongly Disagree to 5. Strongly Agree

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

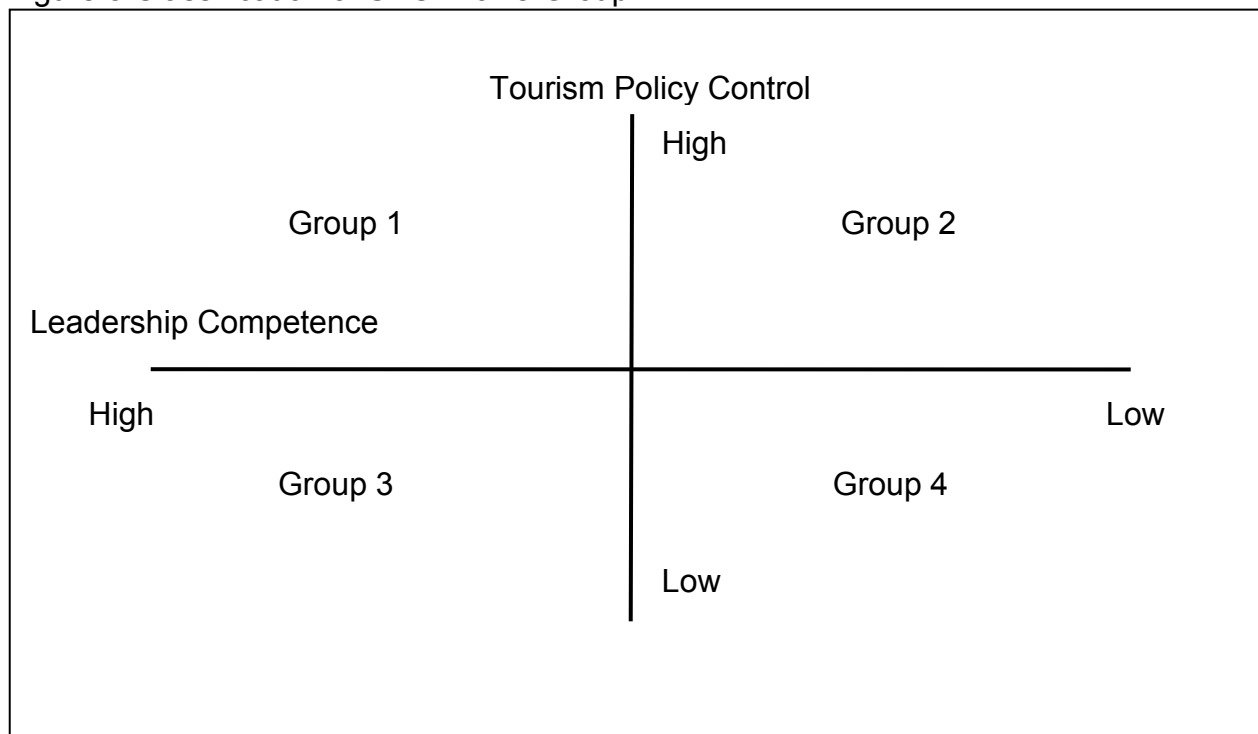
Construct Validity of the Measurement

Construct validity is a basic issue in creating and/or testing a valid measure of an underlying construct (Clark & Watson, 1995). Generally, empirical studies establish the construct validity of a measure by demonstrating its correlation it with a number of other measures (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). This study evaluated the construct validity of the tourism-specific SPC scale by conducting multivariate analysis of covariance

(MANCOVA), the multivariate version of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Both ANCOVA and MANCOVA are generally used to evaluate the reliability and validity of scales (Jones, Fernyhough, de-Wit, & Meins, 2008; Smith & Propst, 2001).

Following the procedure of Peterson et al. (2011), four SPC profile groups (Figure 8.) were created on the basis of their SPC scale scores. Next, the differences among the groups and levels of familiarity, tourism participatory behavior, perceived impact of tourism policy, and sense of community were examined while allowing income and education to covary.

Figure 8 Classification of SPC Profile Group.



The MANCOVA results demonstrated that, after controlling for education and income, statistical differences were found between SPC profile groups for all four of the conceptually relevant measurements. The results are not only consistent with other employment studies that had education and income as independent variables (Leung,

2008; Speer, Jackson, & Peterson, 2001), but also support the construct validity of the scales used to measure LC and PC. In addition, Post hoc pairwise comparisons revealed that individuals in Group 1 had significantly higher scores on familiarity than Group 4. Additionally, post hoc analysis revealed that Group 2 had significantly higher scores on tourism participatory behavior than Group 1. The third post hoc analysis indicated that Group 2 had significant higher scores on sense of community than Group 3 and 4. Finally, individuals in Group1 were found to have significantly higher scores on perceived impact of tourism policy than individuals in Group 4. The results demonstrated significant differences between SPC profile groups on measures of familiarity with tourism campaign, tourism participatory behavior, sense of community, and perceived impact of tourism policy. Specifically, higher levels of tourism policy control seemed as important for stronger familiarity with tourism campaign and perceived impact of tourism policy. In sum, the MANCOVA testing provides empirical support for validity of SPC, and has necessary implications for psychological empowerment studies in the tourism context.

Table 19. Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Comparing SPC Profile Groups with Familiarity, Tourism Participatory Behavior, Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy, and Sense of Community.

Variable	SPC Profile Group				Univariate F(3, 588)	Mean Different P<0.05
	Group1	Group2	Group3	Group4		
Familiarity with Tourism Campaign	3.17	3.15	3.11	2.97	2.710*	1>4
Tourism Participatory Behavior	1.30	1.34	1.09	1.15	10.367***	1<2
Sense of Community	3.91	4.10	3.41	3.35	18.813***	2>3.4
Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy	3.67	3.54	3.53	3.19	7.859***	1>4

Note: Overall SPC multivariate: Wilks Lambda = 0.842; F (12, 1548.056) = 8.686, p<0.001

Covariate: Income and Education ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Testing Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: SOC, FTP, PITP, TPB, and SES will have a direct positive influence on SPC.

The Independent variables (i.e. predictor variables), SOC, FTP, PITP, TPB, and SES were entered into a simultaneous regression model predicting SPC. The result, shown in Table 17, indicated that the model was significant, $F(5, 644) = 31.003$, $p < 0.001$, and accounted for 19.4% of the variance in SPC scores. The value of R^2 indicated that 19.4% of the variance in SPC can be predicted from the independent variables. F-test reveals whether the proposed relationship between SPC and the set of independent variables (SOC, Familiarity, PITP, TPB, and SES) is statistically significant. SOC ($\beta = 0.274$, $t = 7.033$, $p < 0.001$), PITP ($\beta = 0.212$, $t = 5.730$, $p < 0.001$), and TPB ($\beta = 0.150$, $t = 4.182$, $p < 0.001$) were each found to be positive and significant unique predictors of SPC while FTP and SES were not significant. As a result, Hypothesis 1 was only marginally supported so these two variables were dropped and a second regression analysis was conducted.

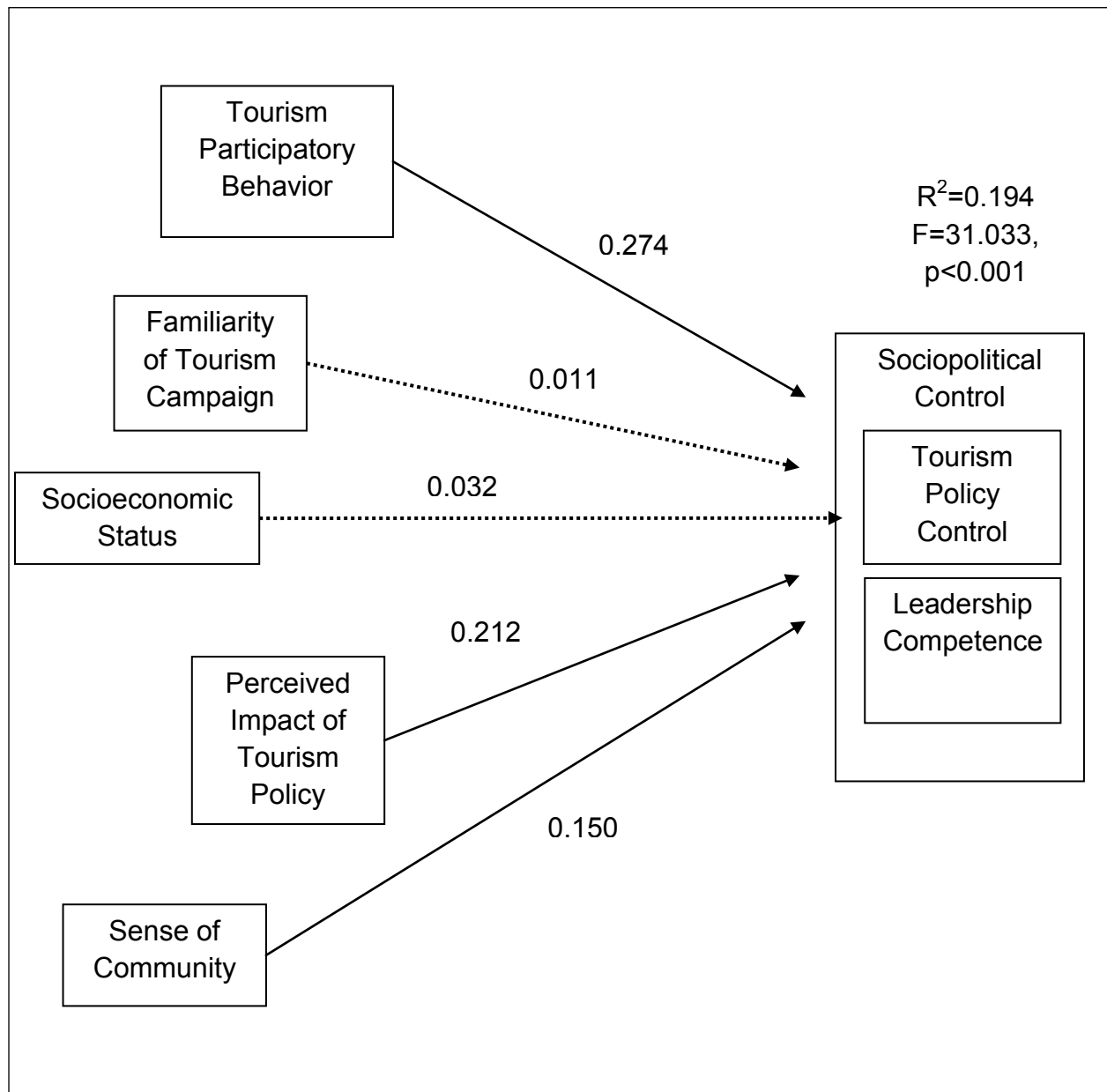
Table 20. Regression Analysis for H1.

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
Sense of Community	0.274	0.039	0.274	7.033***
Familiarity of Tourism Campaign	0.011	0.039	0.011	0.291
Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy	0.223	0.039	0.212	5.730***
Tourism Participatory Behavior	0.155	0.037	0.150	4.182***
Socioeconomic Status ¹	0.019	0.024	0.032	0.792
$F = 31.003^{***}$ $R^2 = 0.194$				

Note: Dependent variable: Sociopolitical Control. *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$, * $P < 0.05$.

¹Socioeconomic status (SES) was calculated by combining a measure of household income and level of formal educational attainment into a single score. Both scales were standardized to means of zero and standard deviation of one, and then they were summated to generate the measure for SES.

Figure 9. The relationship between Sociopolitical Control and the Predictors (Initial Model).



Note: 1. Solid line indicated the supported hypothesis.
2. Dotted line indicated that hypothesis was not supported.

SOC, PITP, and TPB were entered into a simultaneous regression model predicting SPC. The modified model was significant $F(3, 651) = 51.858$, $p<0.001$, and 19.8% of the variance in SPC was predicted from SOC, PITP, and TPB (Table 18).

SOC ($\beta=0.288$, $t=7.928$, $p<0.001$), PITP ($\beta=0.217$, $t=6.018$, $p<0.001$), and TPB

($\beta=0.151$, $t=4.260$, $p<0.001$) were found to be positive and significantly unique predictors of SPC. The relationship between SPC and the independent variables is depicted in Figure 12.

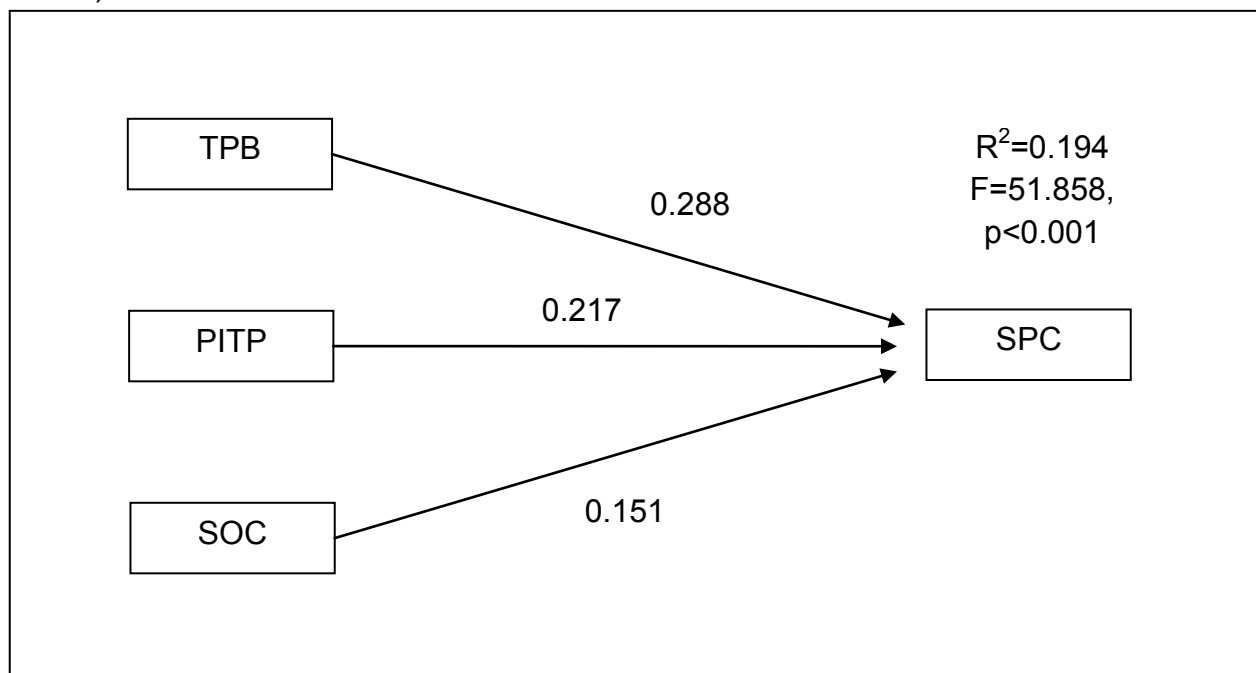
Table 21. Regression Analysis for Modified H1.

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
Sense of Community	0.287	0.035	0.288	7.928***
Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy	0.228	0.038	0.217	6.018***
Tourism Participatory Behavior	0.155	0.036	0.151	4.260***
$F=51.858^{***}$ $R^2=0.198$				

Note: Dependent variable: Sociopolitical Control

*** $P<0.001$, ** $P<0.01$, * $P<0.05$

Figure 10. The relationship between Sociopolitical Control and the Predictors (Modified Model).



Hypothesis 2: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by TPB.

For testing Hypothesis 2, several steps utilizing the OLS regression were conducted (Table 25 and Figure 18). The first step satisfied the condition to build mediation effect which indicated that the independent variable (SOC) influenced the

dependent variable (SPC), $\beta=0.354$, $p<0.001$. The second step performed for establishing mediation implies that the SOC requires affecting the mediator (TPB). The result of the second step was that between these two measure was $\beta=0.113$, $p<0.01$. The third step regressed that the SPC on both the predictor (SOC: $\beta=0.337$, $p<0.001$) and the mediator (TPC: $\beta=0.152$, $p<0.001$).

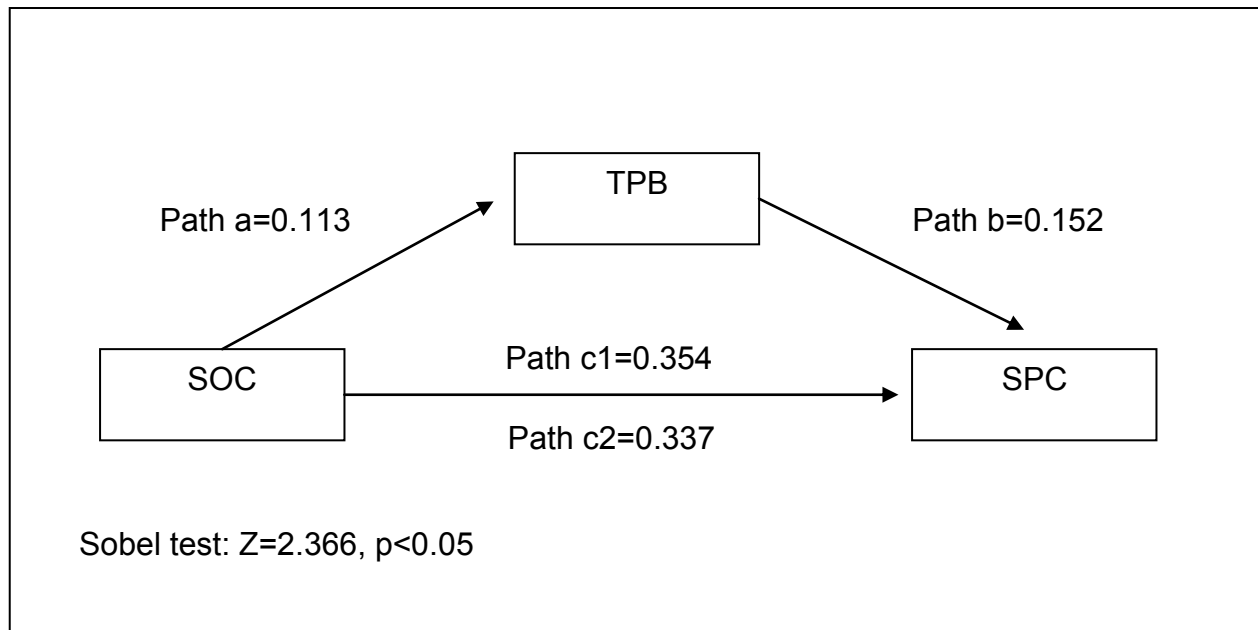
The fourth step indicated that the path c1 ($\beta=0.354$) was greater than path c2 ($\beta=0.337$), which demonstrated that partial mediation effect satisfied. The result informed that there was a mediation effect between SOC and SPC through TPB. In addition, the Sobel test revealed that TPB ($z=2.366$, $p<0.05$) was a significant mediator of the influence of the SPC on SOC. Taken together, Hypotheses 8 was supported.

Table 22. Measuring Mediation Effect between Sense of Community and Sociopolitical Control through Tourism Participatory Behavior.

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	SOC→SPC (Path c1)	SOC Dependent : SPC	0.354	0.036	0.354	9.670***
2	SOC→TPB (Path a)	SOC Dependent: TPB	0.110	0.038	0.113	2.912**
3	SOC→TPB→SPC (Path b and c2)	TPB SOC Dependent: SPC	0.156 0.335	0.037 0.036	0.152 0.337	4.170*** 9.255***
4	Path c1 (0.354)>Path c2 (0.337): Partial Mediation					

Note: *** $P<0.001$, ** $P<0.01$, * $P<0.05$

Figure 11. Testing Hypothesis 2 for Measuring Indirect Effect.



Hypothesis 3: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by SES.

In order to test mediation Hypothesis 3, the path analytical steps described in Table 2 for demonstrating mediation effects (Vaske, 2008) were followed (Table 23 and Figure 14). The first step satisfied the condition that the independent variable (SOC) should influence the dependent variable (SPC), $\beta=0.354$, $p<0.001$. The second step is to show that SOC affects the mediator (SES). Step two was satisfied: $\beta=0.377$, $p<0.001$. The third step regressed the SPC on both independent variable (SOC: $\beta=0.330$, $p<0.001$) and the mediator (SES: $\beta=0.156$, $p<0.05$) simultaneously.

The fourth step indicated that the path c1 ($\beta=0.354$) in the first step was greater than the path c2 ($\beta=0.330$), which demonstrated that partial mediation occurred. The result is that there was a mediation effect between SOC and SPC through SES. Furthermore, the Sobel test indicated that the SES ($z=3.684$, $p<0.01$) was a significant

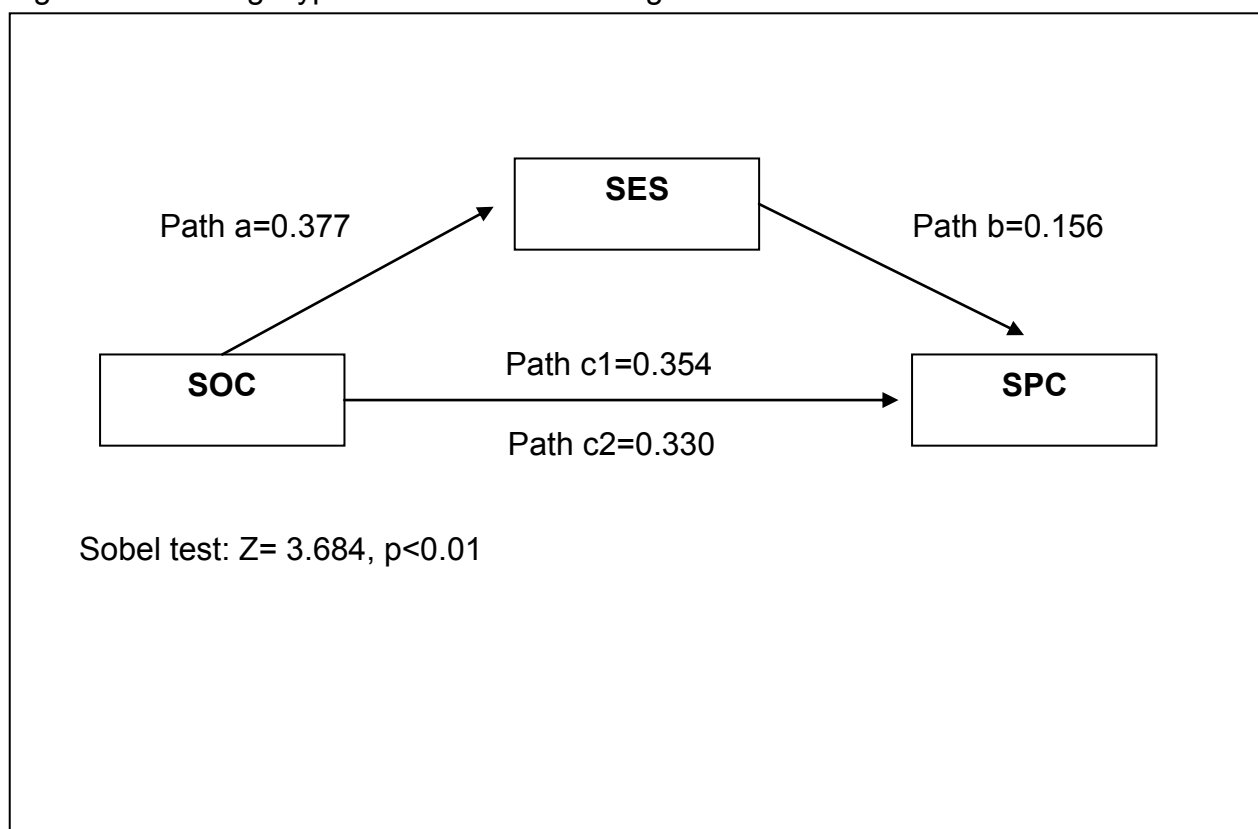
mediator of the influence of SPC on SOC. Taken together, the relationship between SOC and SPC was partially mediated by SES so Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 23. Measuring Mediation Effect between Sense of Community and Sociopolitical Control through Socioeconomic Status.

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	SOC→SPC (Path c1)	SOC Dependent : SPC	0.352	0.036	0.354	9.670***
2	SOC→SES (Path a)	SOC Dependent: SES	0.627	0.061	0.377	10.350***
3	SOC→SES→SPC (Path b and c2)	SES SOC Dependent: SPC	0.152 0.330	0.034 0.040	0.156 0.330	2.534* 8.331***
4	Path c1 (0.354)>Path c2 (0.330): Partial Mediation					

Note: ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Figure 12. Testing Hypothesis 3 for Measuring Indirect Effect.



Hypothesis 4: The relationship between TPB and SPC is partially mediated by SES.

For testing mediation Hypothesis 3, the OLS regression steps were performed based on the suggested method (Table 24 and Figure 13). The first step satisfied the condition for establishing mediation which indicated that the independent variable (TPB) influenced the dependent variable (SPC), $\beta=0.190$, $p<0.001$. The second step conducted for building mediation indicated that the TPB required affecting the mediator (SES). The result of the second step reported that between TPB and SES measure was $\beta=0.120$, $p<0.01$. The third step positively regressed the SPC both independent variable (TPB: $\beta=0.174$, $p<0.001$) and the mediator (SES: $\beta=0.164$, $p<0.001$).

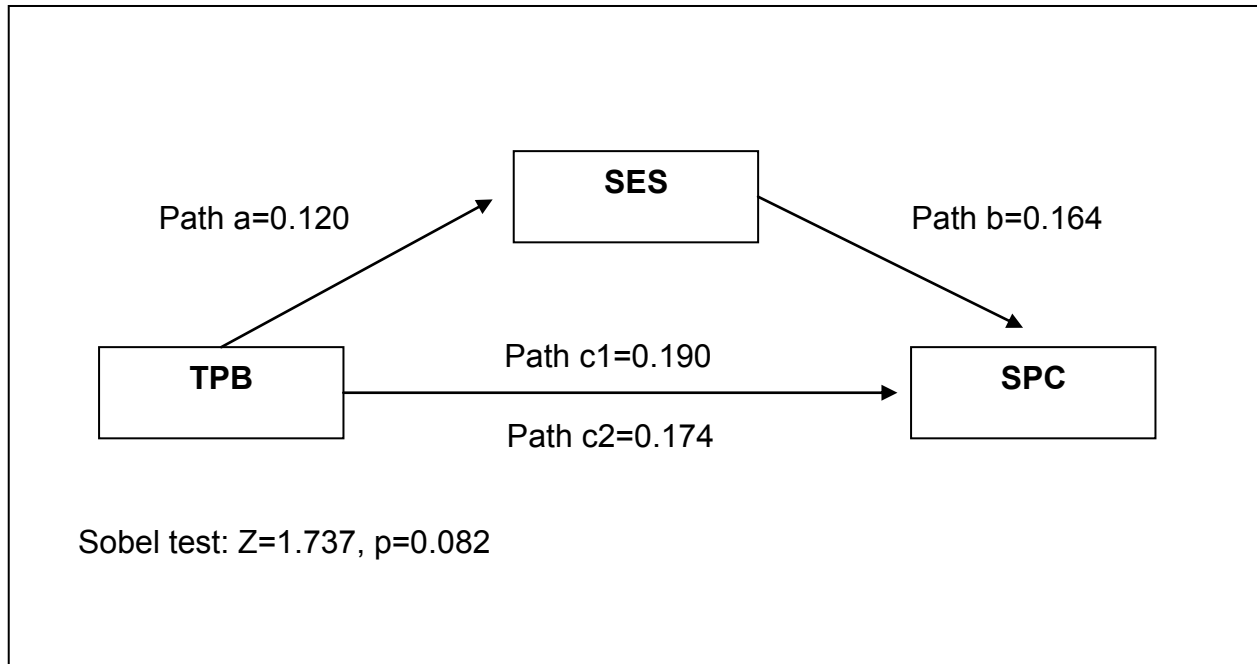
In the fourth step, the result revealed that path c1 ($\beta=0.190$) was greater than path c2 ($\beta=0.174$), which demonstrated that partial mediation occurred. The result indicated that there was a mediation effect between TPB and SPC by SES. However, a significant Sobel test ($z=1.737$, $p>0.05$) did not provide evidence that TPB underlies SPC by SES. Therefore, the relationship between TPB and SPC was not partially mediated by SES so Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Table 24. Measuring Mediation Effect between Tourism Participatory Behavior and Sociopolitical Control through Socioeconomic Status

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	TPB→SPC (Path c1)	TPB Dependent : SPC	0.195	0.040	0.190	4.941***
2	TPB→SES (Path a)	TPB Dependent: SES	0.208	0.067	0.120	3.088**
3	TPB→SES→SPC (Path b and c2)	SES TPB Dependent: SPC	0.098 0.180	0.023 0.040	0.164 0.174	4.286*** 4.538***
4	Path c1 (0.185)>Path c2 (0.061): Partial Mediation					

Note: *** $P<0.001$, ** $P<0.01$, * $P<0.05$

Figure 13. Testing Hypothesis 4 for Measuring Indirect Effect.



Hypothesis 5: The relationship between TPB and SPC is partially mediated by FTC.

The steps using the OLS regressions provided to test mediation Hypothesis 5 (Table 25 and Figure 16). The first step satisfied the condition to build mediation which indicated that the independent variable (TPB) influenced the dependent variable (SPC), $\beta=0.190$, $p<0.001$. The second step performed for establishing mediation implies that SES needs to affect the mediator (FTC). The result revealed that between these two variables was $\beta=0.138$, $p<0.01$. The third step regressed the SPC on both independent variable (TPB: $\beta=0.172$, $p<0.001$) and the mediator (FTC: $\beta=0.138$, $p<0.001$) simultaneously.

Finally, the path c1 ($\beta=0.190$) was greater than c2 ($\beta=0.172$), which demonstrated that partial mediation occurred. The result revealed that there was a mediation relationship between TPB and SPC by FTC. Additionally, the Sobel test indicated that Familiarity ($z=2.432$, $p<0.05$) was a significant mediator of influence of the

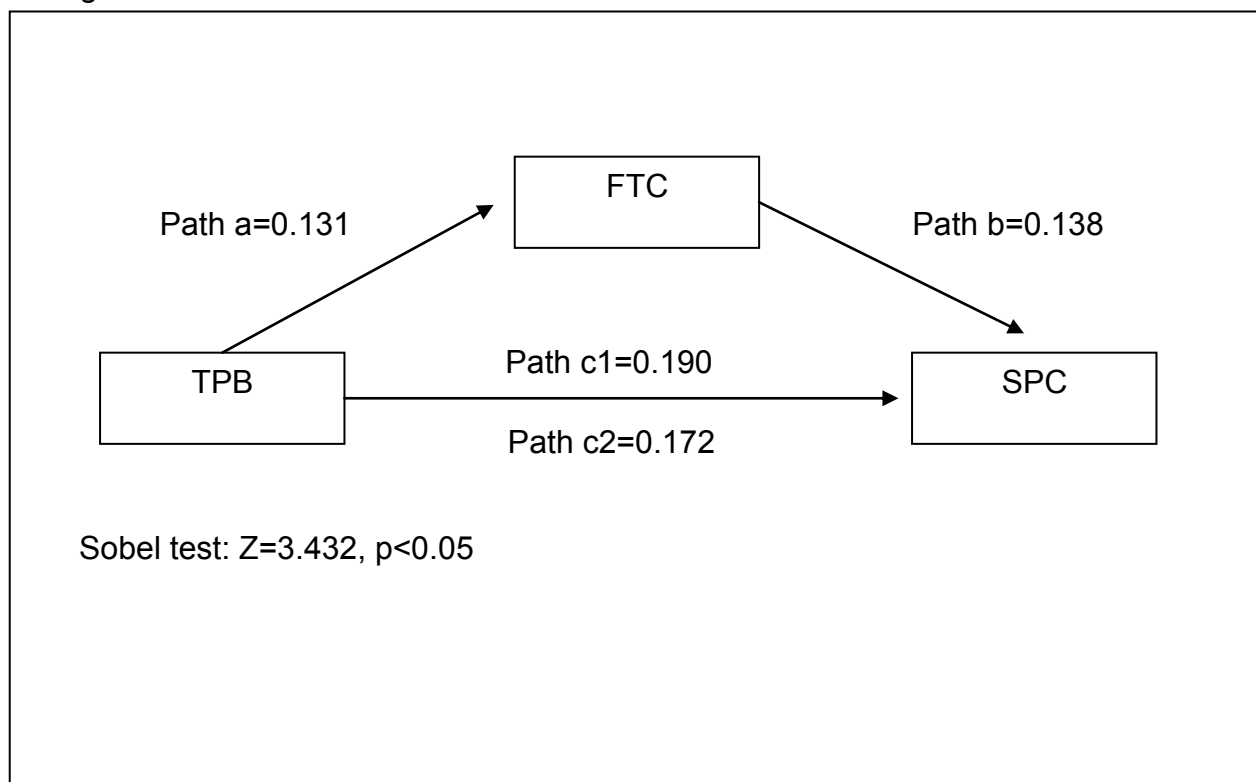
SPC on Familiarity. In sum, the association between TPB and SPC was partially mediated by FTC; hence, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Table 25. Measuring Mediation Effect between Tourism Participatory Behavior and Sociopolitical Control through Familiarity with Tourism Policy.

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	TPB→SPC (Path c1)	TPB Dependent : SPC	0.195	0.040	0.190	4.941***
2	TPB→FTC (Path a)	TPB Dependent: FTP	0.135	0.040	0.131	3.373**
3	TPB→FTC→SPC (Path b and c2)	FTC	0.139	0.038	0.138	3.603***
		TPB Dependent: SPC	0.177	0.040	0.172	4.472***
4	Path c1 (0.190)>Path c2 (0.172): Partial Mediation					

Note: ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Figure 14. Testing Hypothesis 5 for Measuring Indirect Effect between TPB and SPC through FTC.



Hypothesis 6: The relationship between TPB and SPC is partially mediated by PITP.

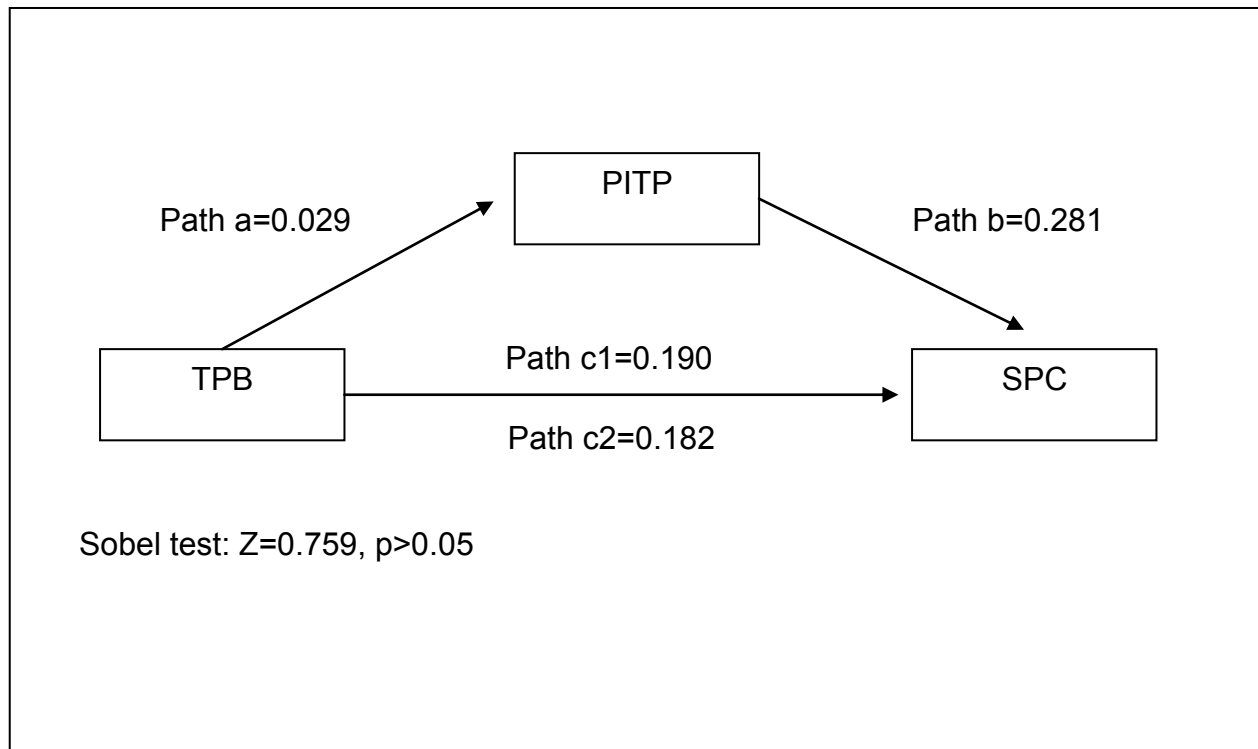
For testing mediation Hypothesis 6, several steps using the OLS regression were conducted (Table 26 and Figure 17). The first step met the condition to establish mediation which indicated that the predictor (TPB) influenced the criterion (SPC), $\beta=0.190$, $p<0.001$. The second criterion for establishing mediation is that TPB required should affect the mediator (PITP). There was no statistical significance between TPB and PITP ($\beta=0.029$). The result revealed that this condition for mediation effect was not satisfied. The third step positively regressed the SPC both the predictor (TPB: $\beta=0.182$, $p<0.001$) and the criterion (SPC: $\beta=0.281$, $p<0.001$). In the fourth step, the result indicated that path c1 ($\beta=0.190$) was greater than path c2 ($\beta=0.182$), which revealed that partial mediation was demonstrated. However, the Sobel test was not significant ($z=0.759$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Table 26. Measuring Mediation Effect between Tourism Participatory Behavior and Sociopolitical Control through Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy.

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	TPB→SPC (Path c1)	TPB Dependent : SPC	0.195	0.040	0.190	4.941***
2	TPB→PITP (Path a)	TPB Dependent: PITP	0.028	0.038	0.029	0.734
3	TPB→PITP→SPC (Path b and c2)	PITP	0.295	0.039	0.281	7.625***
		TPB Dependent: SPC	0.187	0.038	0.182	4.932***
4	Path c1 (0.190)>Path c2 (0.182): Partial Mediation					

Note: ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05

Figure 15. Testing Hypothesis 6 for Measuring Indirect Effect.



Hypothesis 7: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by FTC.

To test mediation Hypothesis 7, the study conducted several steps using the OLS regression (Table 27 and Figure 18). The first step satisfied the condition to build mediation which indicated that the independent variable (SOC) influenced the dependent variable (SPC), $\beta=0.354$, $p<0.001$. The second step performed for building mediation implies that the SOC requires affecting the mediator (FTC). The result of the second step was that between these two measure was $\beta=0.252$, $p<0.001$. The third step regressed that the SPC on both the predictor (SOC; $\beta=0.335$, $p<0.001$) and the mediator (Familiarity: $\beta=0.077$, $p<0.05$) simultaneously.

The fourth step indicated that the path c1 ($\beta=0.354$) was greater than path c2 ($\beta=0.335$), which demonstrated that partial mediation effect satisfied. The result informed that there was a mediation effect between SOC and SPC through FTC.

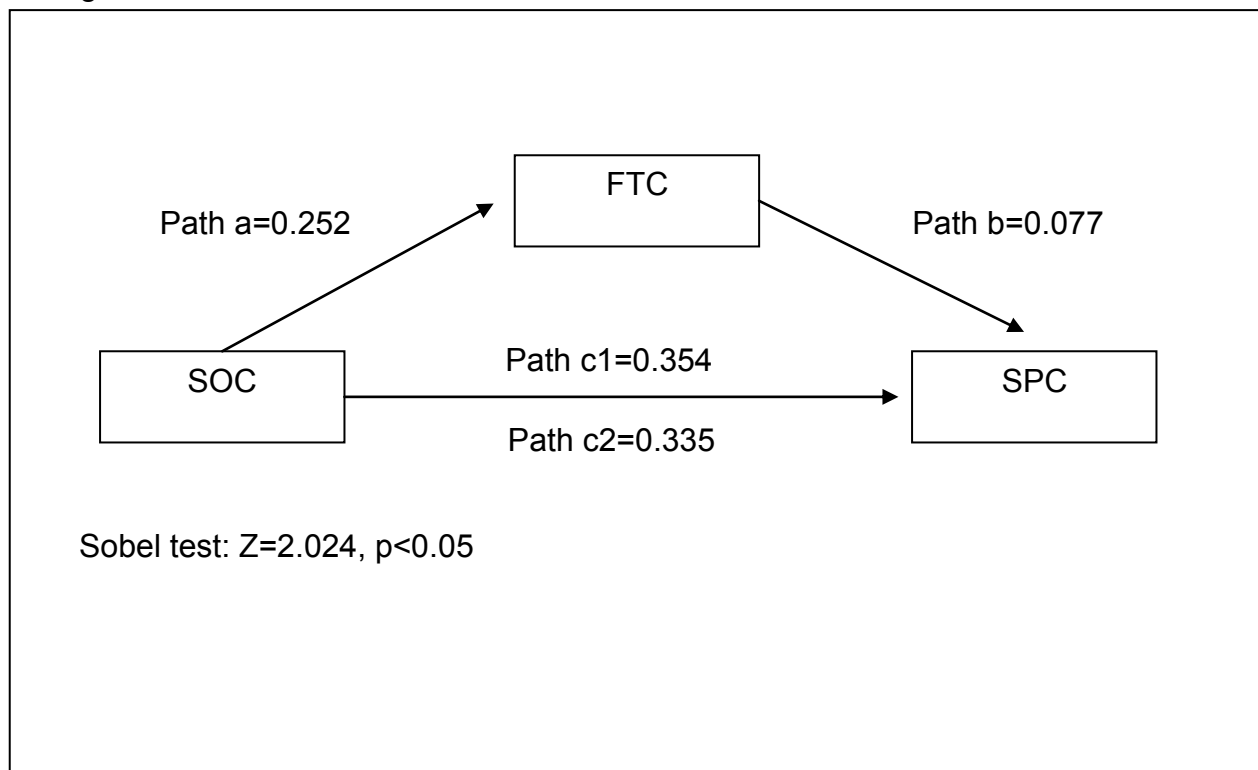
Furthermore, the Sobel test indicated that $F (z=2.024, p<0.05)$ was a significant mediator of the influence of the SPC on SOC. Taken together, the relationship between SPC and SOC was partially mediated by FTC so Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Table 27. Measuring Mediation Effect between Sense of Community and Sociopolitical Control through Familiarity of Tourism Campaign.

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	SOC→SPC (Path c1)	SOC Dependent : SPC	0.354	0.036	0.354	9.670***
2	SOC→FTC (Path a)	SOC Dependent: FTP	0.250	0.038	0.252	6.640***
3	SOC→FTC→SPC (Path b and c2)	FTC SOC Dependent: SPC	0.077 0.333	0.038 0.038	0.077 0.335	2.032* 8.870***
4	Path c1 (0.354)>Path c2 (0.335): Partial Mediation					

Note: *** $P<0.001$, ** $P<0.01$, * $P<0.05$

Figure 16. Testing Hypothesis 7 for Measuring Indirect Effect between SOC and SPC through FTC.



Hypothesis 8: The relationship between SOC and SPC is partially mediated by PITP.

For assessing mediation Hypothesis 8, the OLS regression steps were performed based on the suggested method (Table 24 and Figure16). The first step met the criterion in order to establish mediation which indicated that the independent variable (SOC) influenced the dependent variable (SPC), $\beta=0.354$, $p<0.001$. The second step conducted for establishing mediation indicated that the SOC required affecting the mediator (PITP). The result of this step reported that between SOC and PITP measure was $\beta=0.224$, $p<0.001$. The third step positively regressed the SPC both independent variable ($\beta=0.305$, $p<0.001$) and the mediator ($\beta=0.218$, $p<0.001$).

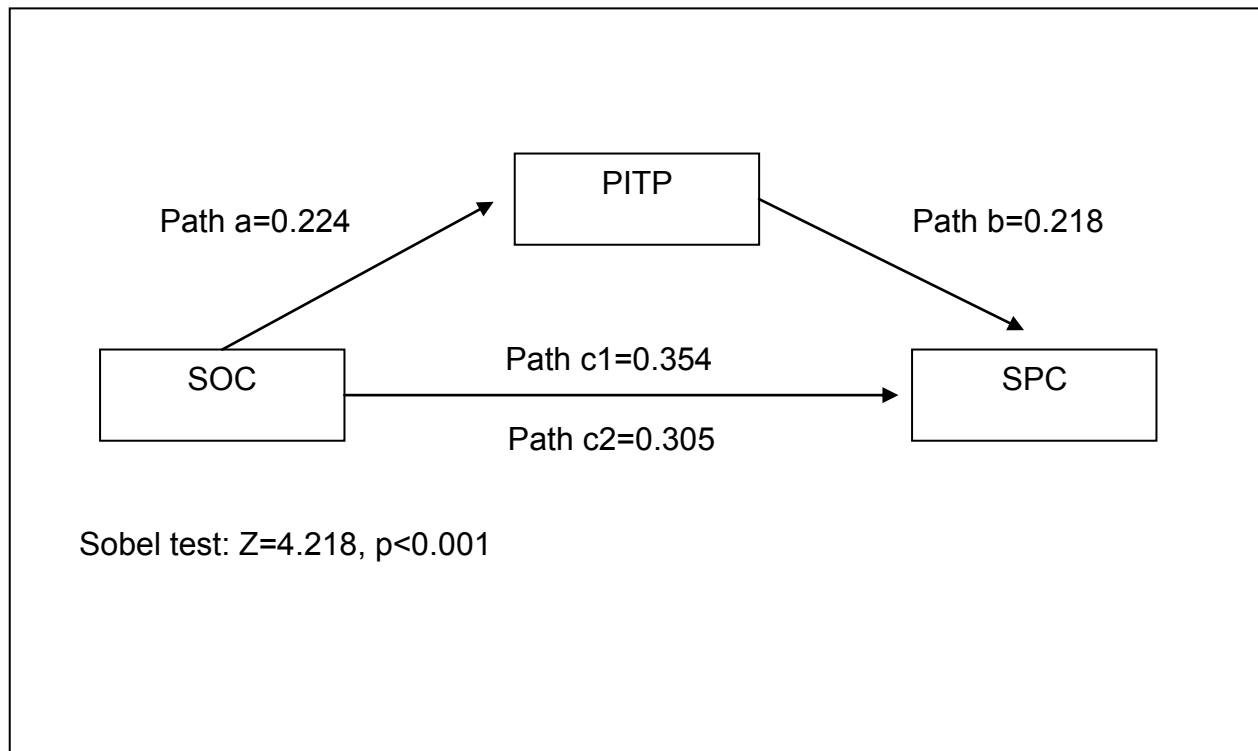
In the final step, the result revealed that path c1 ($\beta=0.354$) was greater than path c2 ($\beta=0.305$), which demonstrated that partial mediation occurred. The result indicated that there was a mediation effect between SOC and SPC through PITP. In addition, a significant Sobel test ($z=4.218$, $p<0.001$) provided evidence that SOC underlies the SPC by the PITP. Therefore, the association between SOC and SPC was partially mediated so Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Table 28. Measuring Mediation Effect between Sense of Community and Sociopolitical Control through Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy.

Step	Description (Path)	Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t-value
1	SOC→SPC (Path c1)	SOC Dependent : SPC	0.354	0.036	0.354	9.670***
2	SOC→PITP (Path a)	SOC Dependent: PITP	0.212	0.036	0.224	5.869***
3	SOC→PITP→SPC (Path b and c2)	PITP SOC Dependent: SPC	0.229 0.305	0.038 0.036	0.218 0.305	5.955*** 8.337***
4	Path c1 (0.354)>Path c2 (0.305): Partial Mediation					

Note: *** $P<0.001$, ** $P<0.01$, * $P<0.05$

Figure 17. Testing Hypothesis 8 for Measuring Indirect Effect between SOC and SPC through PITP.



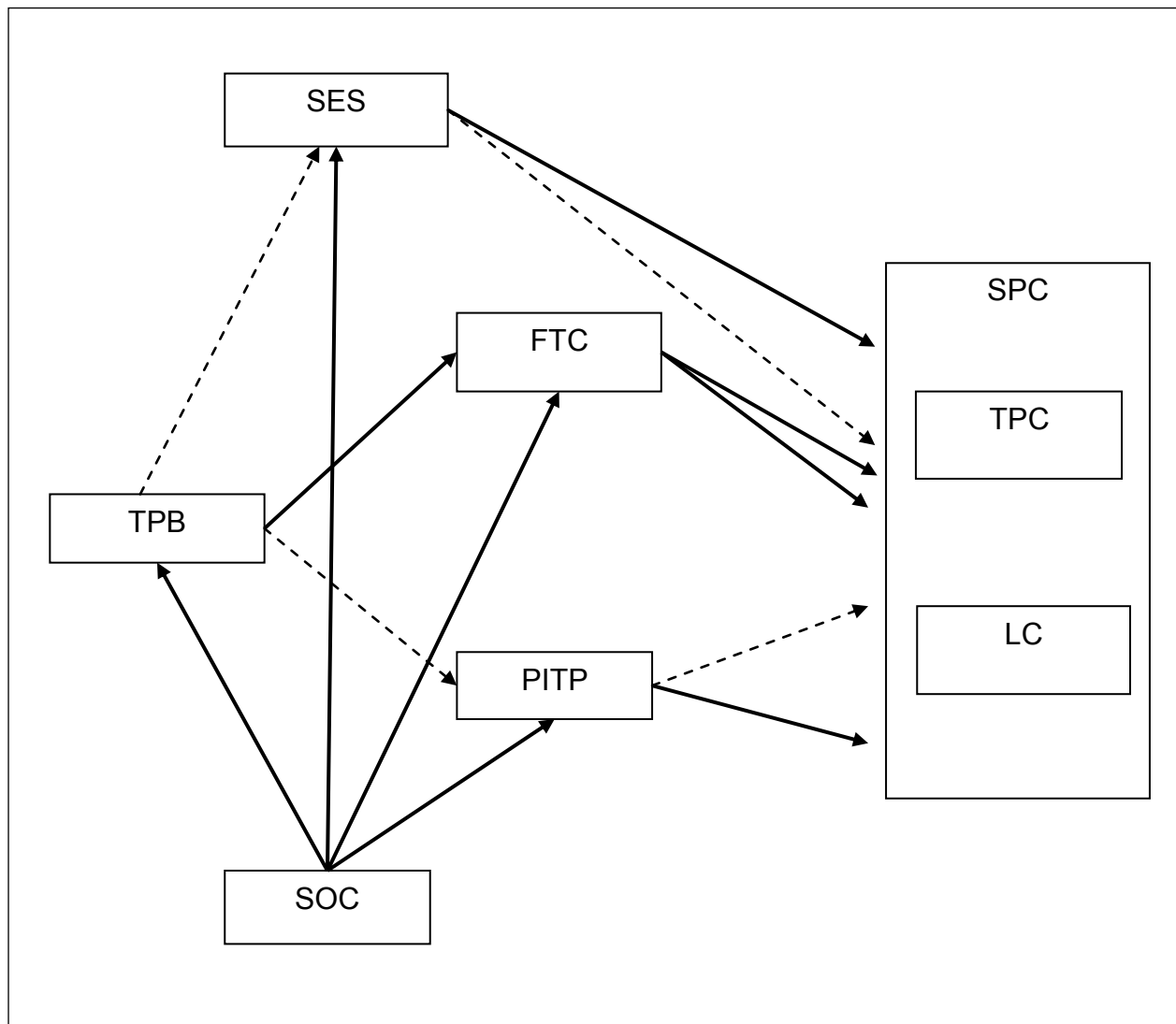
Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The eight hypotheses of this study were tested by path analyses utilizing simultaneous multiple regression. Additionally, several steps using the OLS regression was used to demonstrate the partial mediation effects of a set of variables.

Hypothesis 1 was supported after removing two predictors (Familiarity of Tourism Campaign). The result indicated that SOC, PITP, and TPB had a direct positive influence on SPC (See Figure 10.). Figure 20 depicted the result of testing mediation hypotheses. Hypothesis 2 was supported, indicating that the relationship between SOC and SPC was partially mediated by TPB. Hypothesis 3 was supported in that the relationship between SES and SPC was partially mediated by SOC. Hypothesis 4 was not supported because the Sobel test showed no statistical significance at the level of 0.05 even though the steps of the OLS regression satisfied the condition of the

mediation effect. Hypothesis 5 was supported in that the relationship between TPB and SPC was partially mediated by FTC. Hypothesis 6 was not supported because the Sobel test showed no statistical significance at the confidence at the Alpha level of 0.05. Hypothesis 7 was supported that the association between SOC and SPC was partially mediated by FTC. Finally, Hypothesis 8 was supported that the association between SOC and SPC was partially mediated by PITP.

Figure 18. The Result of Testing Mediation Hypotheses.



Note: 1. Solid line indicated the supported hypothesis.
2. Dotted line indicated that hypothesis was not supported.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter is comprised of four sections. The first section presents key findings of this study. The second section discusses theoretical and practical implications and contributions. The limitations of the present study and directions of future study are addressed in the final two sections.

Summary of Key Findings

Objective 1: Psychometric Rigor for Sociopolitical Control and Sense of Community

This study empirically examined sociopolitical control (SPC) and sense of community as valid constructs in the tourism context. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test construct validity. The full proposed model did not adequately fit the data set. Three items in the tourism policy control subscale (TPC: TPC1, TPC4, and TPC6) were deleted from the full measurement model. The value of standardized factor loadings and model fit indices were used in selecting the variables that were deleted. The modified model fits the data well.

The results of CFA established evidence of reliability which refers to precision and accuracy of a measurement instrument in the modified model. Additionally, the result demonstrated discriminant validity which shows how much variance is in the indicators that are able to explain variance in the construct (Said, Badru, & Shahid, 2011, p. 1099). Even though this study employed reduced sets of items for SPC and SOC like previous research in other domain (Christens, Speer, & Peterson, 2011;

Hughey, Peterson, Lowe, & Oprescu, 2008; Peterson & Reid, 2003), the slightly modified tourism-specific model is consistent with the model of psychological empowerment found in other domains. Furthermore, the result of the multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) revealed evidence of construct validity of scales used to measure LC and TPC. This was through demonstration of correlation between a number of other measures such as tourism participatory behavior, familiarity of tourism campaign, socioeconomic status, and perceived impact of tourism policy.

Hence, psychological empowerment of citizens is an indicator of the success of community participation in the policy-making process, including tourism planning. Sense of community is significant as studies have shown it to be a precursor of citizen participation in activities and organizations. Therefore, these two indicators can contribute to assess residents' sense of community and empowerment in influencing decisions that impact local tourism outcomes. They also can make recommendations to tourism promotion and policy makers for ways to enhance the success of the tourism promotion and policy for increasing support from local communities.

Objective 2: Group Differences in Psychological Empowerment and Sense of Community

After examining the validity of the SPC and SOC scales, the study conducted one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests to find citizens' different perspectives toward SPC and SOC by socio-demographic characteristics. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences between TPC and a set of independent variables (age, region, education, and household income) at the significance level of 0.001. Additionally, statistically significant differences were found between leadership

competence and a set of independent variables (age, region, and household income) at the significance level of 0.05. Finally, sense of community varied by age, region, education, and household income at the level of 0.001.

These results indicated that empowerment and sense of community were relatively high overall, but certain groups (those less than 30 years old, those more than 60 years old, and residents of Detroit) felt less empowered and less attached to their communities. The results indicated that the survey participants felt knowledgeable and qualified to make decisions regarding Pure Michigan. They are also motivated to exercise their voice in state politics, through voting and other means. However, Michigan residents felt that the mechanism available to them for influencing decisions regarding Pure Michigan is limited. In other words, their actual political behaviors are limited, not by desire but by lack of knowledge of the means available to them for exercising their voice.

In addition, the results suggested that an important barrier to a younger person's sense of empowerment is their lack of understanding of the important issues related to Pure Michigan. On the other hands, older persons expressed less confidence in their ability to lead and organize others than younger persons. Even so, the means are relatively high (close to 4 and above 4 on a 5-point scale) for all age groups for sociopolitical control as an indicator of psychological empowerment. This is a good sign as competent leaders and policy controllers for all ages are needed in state tourism planning and policy development. The results also revealed that older persons felt more attachment to their communities than younger persons. Furthermore, residents of all regions, except Detroit, were more likely to feel that their communities met their needs.

In sum, Michigan residents felt empowered to participate in political actions regarding the campaign with one important exception: knowing how to participate. Lack of knowledge of the various means by which citizens can exercise their voice with regard to Pure Michigan is a major factor that needs to be addressed by the state.

Objective 3: Relationship among Socioeconomic Status, Sense of Community, Sociopolitical Control, Tourism Participatory Behavior, Familiarity of Tourism Campaign and Perceived Impact of Tourism Policy

This study conducted a path analysis with a simultaneous regression test to find the relationship between SPC and SOC, familiarity, perceived impact of tourism policy (PITP), tourism participatory behaviors (TPB), and socioeconomic status (SES). Even though the proposed model explained 19.4% with significance at the level of 0.001, it was not wholly supported because familiarity and SES were not found to be significant unique predictors of SPC. Hence, the modified model was re-tested after removing these two predictors. The modified model was significant, and accounted for 19.8% of the variance in SPC scores. SOC, PITP, and tourism participatory behavior (TPB) were each found to be significant unique predictors of SPC.

The modified model explained 20% of the variance in SPC, which may be considered as weak evidence that the three predictors affect SPC. The results can be derived from several reasons like measurement error which may come from systematic error by sampling bias. The predictor variables generally have small effects on dependent variables in social science (Cohen, 1990; Stevens, 2007), but it does not mean that the results are not significant. The present study firstly tested that the predictor variables can affect sociopolitical control in the tourism domain. In the early

stages, there is not enough research that has been provided to identify all the variables that would explain for the variance (Pearce, Kramer, & Robbins, 1999).

The relationship among the variables revealed that sense of community, citizen participation and perception of citizens' perception of their efficacy in tourism policy-making can affect a topic-specific measure of sociopolitical control. These results indicate that engaged citizens can contribute to create their high perspectives of psychological empowerment.

Objective 4: Partial Mediation Effect toward Sociopolitical Control

Path analysis utilizing a set of OLS regression equations was conducted to find partial mediation effects between the variables and SPC. The results confirmed most hypothesized relationships, except for Hypothesis 4 (TPB→SES→SPC) and Hypothesis 6 (TPB→PITP→SPC). To summarize: 1) SOC was found to partially act on SPC via SES; 2) TPB was found to partially act on SPC via FTC; 3) SOC was found to partially act on SPC via FTC and PITP.

The mediating analyses demonstrated the indirect effect between a set of predictors and sociopolitical control via mediators. The mediating relationship can explain relationships between sociopolitical control and a set of independent variables through the mediators. The results indicated that FTC and PITP are environmental variables that have been found to mediate the effects of SOC and participatory behaviors in other studies.

Theoretical Implications

The present study has several theoretical implications for citizens' participation and community involvement in the tourism domain. First, this study is the only empirical study examining whether the SPC can be modified for use in the tourism domain. The SPC scale has been widely used to assess citizens' level of psychological empowerment in policy-making in community programs and policies (Peterson, Lowe, et al., 2006; Zimmerman, 1995, 2000; Zimmerman, Ramírez-Valles, & Maton, 1999). Sense of community has been recognized as an important situation-related variable that is empirically related to citizens' empowerment (Colombo, Mosso, & DePiccoli, 2001; Herman, Onaga, Pernice-Duca, Oh, & Ferguson, 2005; McMillan, 1996; Peterson & Reid, 2003).

This study provides empirical evidence that SPC and SOC can be applied to future tourism studies to use as a valid measurement tool. In addition, several studies have demonstrated reliability and validity of reduced item versions of these two scales (B. D. Christens, N. A. Peterson, & P. W. Speer, 2011; Peterson, et al., 2008). The present study also provided evidence of valid measurement properties, while utilizing the reduced items of the constructs with modified wording appropriate to the tourism context.

Second, this study provides a foundation for researchers in the understanding of the association among SPC, SOC, and participatory behavior in the realm of tourism policy-making. Previous studies conclude that SOC and participatory behaviors predict SPC (Peterson & Reid, 2003; Peterson, Speer, & Peterson, 2011). The present study confirms the same set of relationships among these dimensions in tourism policy-making. In particular, SOC and participatory behaviors related to tourism directly predicted SPC. Furthermore, SOC influences SPC indirectly through participatory

behaviors. The results provide evidence that citizens with a greater sense of community participated more and are more psychologically empowered. The study also demonstrates that citizens who participate in policy-making processes often feel more psychologically empowered.

The third implication expands upon the previous two implications. Several studies have examined the association among SPC, SOC, and a set of predictors such as socio-demographic characteristics, awareness, alienation, and other situational variables (B. D. Christens, P. W. Speer, et al., 2011; Hughey, et al., 2008; Itzhaky & York, 2000; Peterson & Hughey, 2002; Peterson, et al., 2011). Most research relevant to the association among SPC, SOC, and other variables has studied the direct effect between observed variables by utilizing hierarchical regression tests with moderators. The mediator effect is the indirect effect between independent and dependent variables via mediator variables. The moderator effect tests for an interaction effect that the effect of independent variable on the dependent variable on the level of a third variable (Kramer, Kiernan, & Essex, 2008). Tourism studies have tested the indirect (i.e. mediator) effect of certain predictors and outcomes. These were several mediation effects discovered via analysis recommended by Vaske (2008). The mediation hypotheses of the present study explained the relationships between predictors and sociopolitical control in the tourism domain through a causal step approach. For instance, SOC has a causal influence on SPC directly and through the indirect effect of PITP. Hence, this study explains several mediation effects toward SPC between observed variables in the tourism context by using ordinary least squares regression. An advantage of ordinary least square regression is to easily check measurement error and the model assumption of outliers.

In sum, the present study indicates that the scales used to measure SPC and SOC exhibit acceptable psychometric properties. The present study demonstrated that SPC and SOC can be validly measured utilizing reduced item versions. Furthermore, the relationships found in other contexts hold when examined in the tourism domain.

Practical Implications

The results of this study can provide several practical implications to policymakers and tourism planners. First, the present study stresses the importance of sociopolitical indicators of success such as citizens' psychological empowerment and participation in tourism policy and planning efforts. Tourism is a system, of which destination and host communities are integral parts, but most impacts of tourism policies and promotions are mainly evaluated with economically-oriented indices like the return on investment (ROI). Social impacts including the level of citizen participation, community involvement, and empowerment need to be addressed as important measures of success of tourism policies and promotions. There is a need to address sociopolitical indicators of success, such as the local level sentiments about the usefulness of various tourism promotions or level of local participation in tourism planning efforts. Tourism is a system, of which destinations and host communities are integral parts so tourism promotion and policy require citizens' active participation for achieving their purposes.

Second, it is recommended that more information is provided about ways citizens can engage with tourism policy-making and planning. With one important exception, the empirical results of the present study revealed that Michigan citizens have a good sense of tourism policy control when it comes to Pure Michigan (i.e. they understand the

issues and feel it is important to participate in state politics). That one exception is the relative lack of knowledge of ways to influence how Pure Michigan funds are spent. Combined, these two results indicated that Travel Michigan should provide clear and easily understandable information about the process by which Pure Michigan funds are allocated and how citizens may have a voice in that process. Combined with more efforts at the level to leverage interest in Pure Michigan, more channels for communicating with citizens will increase empowerment and participation in the policy making process regarding the state's tourism industry.

Third, there were mean differences on both statewide and local impacts of the Pure Michigan campaign between regions. In particular, residents of Detroit and the East Central region were least positive about local impacts than other regions. It is not clear why these residents feel this way. However, the study recommends that state tourism representatives identify reasons for these results and then set up the campaign resources and efforts, including partnerships, in these regions. Studies have recognized local tourism partnerships as key ingredients for improving tourism attractions and destinations for local communities and visitors simultaneously (Wang & Krakover, 2008; Watkins & Bell, 2002). Moreover, the partnerships can play a role to reduce different perceived impacts of Pure Michigan both local and statewide by having more opportunities to participate in the campaign.

Fourth, voluntary citizen participation and active community involvement have been accepted as a critical components sustainable tourism development and planning (Buckley, Pickering, & Weaver, 2003; Dredge, 2006). The tourism specific SPC scale provides practitioners a valid and reliable quantitative tool for assessing policy

outcomes. The empirical tool can contribute to bridging the gap between agencies and local communities.

Fifth, studies have demonstrated that the intrapersonal component of psychological empowerment is an indicator of the effectiveness of programs and other initiatives in public health and other fields. Likewise, increases in psychological empowerment can result from tourism policies and planning that produce enhancement in citizen participation. In the context of tourism, it is significant for citizens to feel empowered because tourists can experience what tourism attractions promise when citizens of local communities are empowered for the tourism policies and programs. Therefore, this association is governed by a socialization mechanism, which indicates that tourism representatives need to be more intentional about improving socialization processes such as a sense of community and tourism participatory behaviors. This can be achieved through developing efficient media including email, websites, blogs, and social media for enhancing citizen participation (B. Christens, et al., 2011).

In summary, this study provides empirical evidence to tourism policymakers and agencies for evaluating the social outcomes of their programs with focus on community-based programs and initiatives. This approach can be used in concert to pursue sustainable tourism policies and promotion by obtaining strong support and consensus from local communities and building capacity

Limitations

Several limitations were found through the research process of this study. The present study employed a CATI telephone survey with random sampling of Michigan residents.

The first limitation includes demographic bias. In comparing the US Census 2010 data to the demographic data of the participants, there was the disparity of age distribution of more than 60 years old between the Census data (18.9%) and the survey data (51.7%) (U.S. Census, 2011). The disparity of the age distribution may be due to the timing of the survey because the telephone survey selected the survey participants who had landline phones. Under the Telephone Consumer Protection Act of 1996, the interviewees of the telephone survey are only allowed to interview the survey participants of the telephone survey between 8:00 and 21:00 (Marketing Research Association, 2012). This limitation of interview timing produces demographic bias such as overrepresentation of the respondents who were more than 60 years old because the elderly age group has a higher possibility of being at home during the timing of the telephone survey rather than the younger age group (Frarquhar, 1995; Hilderbrand, 2003). In addition, research revealed that as of 2005, approximately 63% of American adults whose ages are between 18 and 34 years old do not have landline phone in their household (Blumberg, Luke, Cynamon, & Frankel, 2006). Therefore, the disparity of age distribution is one of the sampling limitations in this study.

The second limitation of this study is also related to the telephone survey. In the last decade, there has been an increase of the proportion of the American adult population with a cell phone as their primary contact, instead of having a landline phone (Link, Battaglia, Frankel, Osborn, & Mokdad, 2007). As of 2010, over 20% of American households have cut landline telephones and only use cell phones (Foreman, 2010). In Michigan, as of 2010, approximately 29% of Michigan households only have cell phones for their voice communication (Tavernise, 2011). These aspects produce the limitation of sample coverage for the household survey of this study by utilizing landline telephone

surveys. The issue of sample coverage is closely correlated to the overrepresentation of the proportion of the elderly aging group in this study.

The third limitation concerns the survey instrument scales. The items of the major construct of this study were reworded to be appropriate to the tourism domain. The reduced items of this study are valid and reliable measurement in the tourism domain, but as the number of items in a scale increase, the reliability of the scale can improve.(Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2010). The rephrased items of tourism policy control scale were found to be problematic in terms of testing citizens' involvement in tourism policies and promotion. Three items of tourism policy control were removed based on low factor loadings. Moreover, the items of SOC in this study were reliable and related to the proposed model, but the study did not clearly define what community is in the context of this study. The unclear definition and the combination of "neighborhood and community" may have confused some survey participants.

The fourth limitation is relevant to the context of survey and the fact that questions of this study were embedded in a larger survey that asked a variety questions, including global climate change, transportation related issues, the purchase of medications via the Internet, and so forth. Combining various topics in a large survey instrument have been shown to impact the results (Fowler, 2009).

Directions of Future Study

The limitations suggest several directions for future study. First, it is recommended that future research tests the full number of items of SPC and SOC for more valid and reliable measurement properties in the tourism domain. Even though several studies yielded appropriate validity and reliability from the reduced items of this

construct, a future study requires testing the items with rephrasing questions for the tourism domain. This recommendation should result in stronger association among citizens' sense of PE, SOC, and participatory behavior in tourism policy and promotion.

Second, there are three components of PE such as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and behavioral components. Future research is recommended to test citizens' different perspectives of the three different components of PE. This recommendation will contribute to find the theoretical connections among the three components of PE, which helps improve the assessment and design of community intervention and the overall predictive ability of the model (Zimmerman, Israel, Schulz, & Checkoway, 1992).

Third, citizens' socioeconomic statuses have utilized a variable to find association among citizen participation, sense of community, and psychological empowerment. Demographic variables, however, are generally weak and complicated predictors so valid and reliable sampling design and methods of data collection are necessary. Studies related to the topic of this study have criticized the fact that landline telephone surveys are biased with respect to complicated or sensitive issues like community (Hughey, et al., 2008; Peterson & Reid, 2003). As mentioned in the limitation section, landline telephone surveys have a high risk of fair distribution of demographic variables. In particular, there has been an increase of households and adult populations with only a cell phone in the United States during the last decade. This aspect suggests a future study to consider how to cover households without landline phones in the telephone survey. The present study recommends a future study to appropriately select a telephone survey between landline phones and cell phones depending on characteristics of survey population. Hence, telephone surveys of

landline only samples are biased and need to be replaced by other methods, including telephone surveys that include mobile phones, mail and Internet surveys.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Subset of SOSS that Generated the Data Used in this Study

Before we begin, let me tell you that this interview is completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate and you may end your participation at any time without penalty. Should we come to any question that makes you feel too uncomfortable or you do not want to answer, just let me know and we can go on to the next question. Information collected for this study will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by local, state and federal law, and no reference will be made in any oral or written report that would link you individually to this study. While there is no direct benefit to you personally for participating in this research, results from this research may produce benefits to the people of the State of Michigan. There are also no known risks to you personally for participating in this research. For quality control purposes, this interview may be monitored by my supervisor. The supervisor has the ability to listen to the interview at anytime.

I would like to ask you some questions about the Pure Michigan Advertising campaign. Pure Michigan is a nation-wide campaign that was launching in 2006 as a way of promoting tourism in Michigan, a branch of the Michigan Economic Development Corporation, manages the Pure Michigan campaign.

<pure1> How familiar are you with the Pure Michigan campaign?

(4) very familiar (3) somewhat familiar (2) not very familiar (1) not familiar at all

(8) do not know (9) refused

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about the Pure Michigan campaign?

<pure2a> The Pure Michigan campaign has positively affected tourism in Michigan

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2b> The Pure Michigan campaign has positively affected tourism in my local community.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2c> I feel like I have a pretty good understanding of the important issues surrounding the Pure Michigan campaign.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2d> I enjoy political participation because I want to have as much say as possible in influencing a state government agency like Travel Michigan.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2e> People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting state programs like the Pure Michigan campaign.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2f> There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how Pure Michigan funds are spent.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2g> It is important to me that I actively participate in influencing state government.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure2h> It is important to vote in state elections that might affect the outcome of the Pure Michigan campaign.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

In the past five years, please tell me if you personally participated in any of the following activities related to the Pure Michigan campaign or tourism planning in general.

<pure3a> I attended a public hearing or meeting that addressed statewide or local tourism issues?

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure3b> I communicated with Travel Michigan or state government about some matter related to the Pure Michigan campaign.

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure3c> I served on a committee or advisory board that addresses tourism issues such as the Visitor and Convention Bureau, or a similar body.

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure3d> I wrote a letter to an editor of a newspaper about the Pure Michigan campaign.

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure3e> I posted a comment on Facebook, Twitter or a blog about the Pure Michigan campaign.

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

I would like to read you some statements related to working with others to achieve a goal. For each, please tell me to what extent you agree or disagree with each.

<pure4a> I am often a leader in groups.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure4b> I would prefer to be a leader rather than follower.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure4c> I would rather have a leadership role when I am involved in a group project.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure4d> I can usually organize people to get things done.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure4e> Other people usually follow my ideas.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

Now, thinking about your neighborhood or your community, please tell me to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

<pure5a> My neighborhood or community helps me fulfill my needs.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure5b> I feel like a member of my neighborhood or community.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure5c> I have a say about what goes on in my neighborhood or community.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

<pure5d> I have a good bond with others in my neighborhood or community.

(1) strongly agree (2) somewhat agree (3) neither (4) somewhat disagree

(5) strongly agree (8) do not know (9) refused

Finally, I have some background questions for you.

<CD1> I need to verify that I am speaking with a male/female adult?

(1) male (2) female (8) do not know (9) refused

<CD2> In what year were you born?

<CD3> What is the highest level of education you have completed?

(0) did not go to school (1) 1st grade (2) 2nd grade (3) 3rd grade (4) 4th grade

(5) 5th grade (6) 6th grade (7) 7th grade (8) 8th grade (9) 9th grade (10) 10th grade

(11) 11th grade (12) 12th grade (13) 1st year college (14) 2nd year college

(20) technical/junior college graduate (15) 3rd year college

(16) college graduate (four year) (17) some post graduate (18) graduate degree

(98) do not know (99) refused this question

To get a picture of people's financial situations, we'd like to know the general range of incomes of all households we interview. This is for statistical analysis purposes and your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

<inca> Did your household receive \$40,000 or more 2010?

(1) yes (go to incd) (2) no (go to incb) (8) do not know (9) refused

<incb> Was it less than \$20,000?

(1) yes (go to incc) (2) no (go to incca) (8) do not know (9) refused

<incca> What is less than \$30,000?

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<incc> Was it less than \$10,000

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<incd> Was it \$60,000 or more?

(1) yes (go to incg) (2) no (go to incf) (8) do not know (9) refused

<incf> Was it \$50,000 or more?

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<incg> Was it more than \$100,000?

(1) yes (go to inci) (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<inch> Was it more than \$70,000?

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<incha> Was it more than \$90,000?

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<inci> Was it more than \$150,000?

(1) yes (2) no (8) do not know (9) refused

<zipcode> What is your zip code?

APPENDIX B. Operational Definition of Major Variables

Category	Latent Variable	Definition (Source)	Item	Scale
SPCS	Policy Control	A sense of control over one's own life toward tourism policy making processes (Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991; Smith & Propst, 2001; Holden et al., 2005).	I feel like I have a pretty good understanding of the important issues surrounding the Pure Michigan campaign.	1. Strongly Disagree 2. Somewhat Disagree 3. Neither 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Strongly Agree
			I enjoy political participation because I want to have as much say as possible in influencing a state government agency like Travel Michigan.	
			People like me are generally qualified to participate in decisions affecting state programs like the Pure Michigan campaign.	
			There are plenty of ways for people like me to have a say in how Pure Michigan funds are spent.	
			It is important to me that I actively participate in influencing state government.	
			It is important to vote in state elections that might affect the outcome of the Pure Michigan campaign.	
	Leadership Competence	Individuals' skills that may include organizing others in order to achieve common goals and speaking in front of large group (Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991; Smith & Propst, 2001; Peterson et al., 2006).	I am often a leader in groups.	
			I would prefer to be a leader rather than follower.	
			I would rather have a leadership role when I am involved in a group project.	
			I can usually organize people to get things done.	
			Other people usually follow my ideas.	

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