Journal of Destination Marketing & Management xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Destination Marketing & Management

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jdmm

Research paper

Support of marijuana tourism in Colorado: A residents' perspective using social exchange theory

Soo K. Kang[a], Jaeseok Lee[b,*]

[a] Hospitality Management Program, Dept. of Food Science and Human Nutrition, Colorado State University, 214E Gifford, Fort Collins, CO 80523-1571, USA
[b] Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Macau University of Science and Technology, Avenida Wai Long, Taipa, Macau S.A.R., PR China

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Marijuana tourism
Place attachment
Social exchange theory
Factor mixture modeling
Colorado

ABSTRACT

This paper examines how residents' support of marijuana tourism is shaped in the state of Colorado. Known as the new green rush,' the legalization of recreational marijuana presents a significant research opportunity for the hospitality and tourism industry. This study employs social exchange theory to explain how perceived impacts affect an individual's level of support for marijuana tourism development. Findings reveal that social exchange theory fits the data well by confirming that the more residents perceive impacts positively, the more they are likely to support tourism. Furthermore, the moderating effect of place attachment exerts itself differently among the structural relationships across levels of place attachment. For high-level attachment residents, personal benefit contributes significantly to building up support toward marijuana tourism, whereas perceived negative impact and personal benefit are the only significant antecedents to support for low-level attachment residents. As a seminal work investigating residents' perceptions in the context of marijuana tourism, this study contributes to the body of knowledge of tourism literature in this burgeoning area and serves as a guiding reference for future studies concerning marijuana tourism.

1. Introduction

On November 6, 2012, Colorado residents passed Amendment 64 for the legalization of recreational (retail) marijuana with a vote of 55.3% in favor, making Colorado the first state in the nation to legalize recreational cannabis. The sale of recreational marijuana went into effect on January 1, 2014 (Hudak, 2014). As of July 2017, eight states and the District of Columbia have legalized recreational marijuana and 29 states allow the medical use of marijuana. Once these laws become fully implemented in the next several years, more than one in five American adults will live in places where they can legally obtain recreational marijuana. Dubbed the new 'green rush,' the legal marijuana market in the US recorded $6.7 billion in sales in 2016 and is expected to reach $22 billion in sales by 2020 (Huddleston, 2016).

This unprecedented phenomenon has brought a lot of attention from industry practitioners and academic researchers. Due to a dearth of empirical research on marijuana consumption as a recreational commodity, it is particularly challenging to specify a solid research agenda and guidelines. The current tourism literature presented skewed views on marijuana consumption as drug tourism, focusing on hedonic/isolated behaviors. This perspective needs to be challenged as most of the studies, if not all, were conducted when marijuana were still illegal in the US (Kang, O'Leary, & Miller, 2016).

While there are many tourism stakeholders (actors) involved with the development and evolvement of marijuana tourism, marijuana legalization was mainly driven by its economic contribution to the state. One of the key purposes of any tourism development is to revitalize the local economy and to improve residents' quality of life through sustainable development (Smith & Ong, 2015). Therefore, understanding residents' perceptions of any new venture is imperative for state policy makers and regulators, especially in order to understand what influence (s) residents' support for sustainable development within the context of marijuana tourism.

Since there is little empirical guideline about investigating residents' perceptions of marijuana tourism, this study followed in the footsteps of gambling research in the 1980s and 1990s, which represents a benchmark approach for understanding residents' support for gambling and has been used by a significant number of researchers. The purpose of the study is, therefore, to examine residents' support of marijuana tourism in conjunction with the perceived impacts and personal benefits received from marijuana tourism in state of Colorado. Specifically, the relationships among the perceived impacts (positive and negative), personal benefit, and residents' support are examined according to residents' levels of place attachment.

* Corresponding author.
E-mail addresses: soo.kang@colostate.edu (S.K. Kang), jaeseoklee@must.edu.mo (J. Lee).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.03.003
Received 10 November 2017; Received in revised form 15 February 2018; Accepted 3 March 2018
2212-571X/ © 2018 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

2. Literature review

2.1. Background: Colorado's recreational marijuana industry and marijuana tourism

As the forerunner in the recreational marijuana market, Colorado's budding marijuana industry officially reported the billion-dollar mark for the first time in 2016, with $875 million in recreational sales and $438 million in medicinal sales (CDOR Marijuana Enforcement, 2016). In 2016, there were 440 retail marijuana stores, 623 cultivation facilities, 240 product manufacturers, and 12 testing facilities in Colorado's recreational marijuana industry (CDOR MED Licensed Facilities, 2016). The marijuana industry offered 18,000 jobs across the state, with 10,000 of those in Denver alone and more than 20,000 people working directly in the licensed industry (MIG, 2017). When considering associated industries including commercial real estate, construction, ancillary products and services, legal services, and tech services, the total economic impact of Colorado's marijuana industry was estimated to be $2.4 billion in 2015 (Wallace, 2016).

Capturing economic impact was the major driving force behind the legalization of marijuana use, this taking, the form of marijuana taxes, licenses, and fees (Healy, 2014). As one of the most heavily taxed consumer products in Colorado, the purchase of marijuana is subject to a 15% excise tax on the 'average market rate' of wholesale marijuana, a 10% special marijuana sales tax, a 2.9% state sales tax, plus local marijuana sales taxes, such as a 3.5% tax in Denver. In 2015, marijuana-specific tax revenue collected by the state was almost double that which the state earned from alcohol tax revenue, reporting almost $70 million excluding fee revenues (Baca, 2016).

Since its legalization in Colorado, a variety of marijuana-focused products and services have been created (Kang et al., 2016). The hospitality and tourism industry, in particular, has welcomed legalization as a special niche-market opportunity that can appeal to certain tourist segments by offering them cannabis-themed tours, cannabis-friendly accommodations, special events, such as Cannabis Cup, Colorado Cannabis Wedding Expo, and so on. The landscape of how to conduct businesses in hospitality and tourism sector has significantly changed, as legalization affect theirs marketing tactics, operation procedures, positioning, and revenue opportunities (Kang et al., 2016).

2.2. Marijuana research in hospitality and tourism: residents

Marijuana reform has attracted a great deal of attention from academic disciplines. However, even with the recent interest, marijuana research in general and in hospitality and tourism specifically is still in its infancy due to its illegal status at the federal level (Belhassen, Santos, & Uriely, 2007; Kang et al., 2016). Frequently labeled 'drug tourism', involving 'drug tourists,' the current literature on tourism involving marijuana is overly skewed to a negatively perceived or marginalized subculture and fails to provide a comprehensive picture of a tourism segment: something that has been witnessed in Colorado over the last four years. Kang et al. (2016) identified five areas that tourism and leisure research can contribute to providing knowledge of the theoretical and practical implications of marijuana tourism. One of the five areas suggested was related to residents in the communities where the legalization has taken place.

While it is natural to show interest in the demand side (e.g. profiling visitors in this new market), it is also important to understand the supply side of marijuana tourism (e.g. the perceptions of residents). In the tourism literature, the only study that addressed the perspective of residents is Valdez and Sifanek's (1997) study on differences among American citizens traveling to Mexican border cities to obtain prescription drugs. By using sociodemographic characteristics, they examined the issue of tourist-host contact and described the interaction between tourists and locals during the drug-acquisition process. The study was, however, more focused on understanding the social dynamics of a 'gray market' in prescription drugs, rather than understanding local residents' perceptions or views toward the issue. Thus, any research examining residents' perception, image, perceived impacts, benefit, and support using theoretical frameworks would be a fruitful addition to the current body of knowledge.

Given the scarcity of the existing literature, a benchmarking approach is useful in developing a consolidated research agenda. The direction of marijuana research could be compared with that which gambling research experienced in the 1980s and 1990s, when gambling research placed a significant weight on understanding residents' support for gambling in their jurisdictions (Kang et al., 2016). The areas share common ground, in that gambling and marijuana consumption have both been regarded as social vices or moral sins. Furthermore, both industries have been legalized by referenda in order to elicit an economic contribution to the state (Healy, 2014). Therefore, in the absence of precedent research evidence in tourism discipline, marijuana tourism research can follow a similar path to gambling research in documenting how residents perceive and react to its legalization and the consequences of such.

2.3. Social exchange theory

Many studies have focused on residents' attitudes toward and perceptions of tourism predominantly using the social exchange theory (e.g. Ap, 1992; Getz, 1994; Perdue, Long, & Kang, 1995). Social exchange theory is defined as "a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation" (Ap, 1992, p.668). Harrill (2004) noted that community attachment, social exchange, and growth-machine theories have served as groundwork for explaining how residents' attitudes toward the impacts of tourism development are formed. In a tourism context, Ap (1992) attempted to explain residents' attitudes toward the impact of tourism using social exchange theory as a framework. Social exchange theory proposes that residents who perceive personal benefit from tourism development are inclined to express positive attitudes toward it, therefore supporting tourism development. Alternatively, residents who find the exchange problematic, correspondingly would oppose tourism development.

Because gambling is often introduced as a tourism development strategy, social exchange theory has been popularly adopted to explain residents' perceived impacts of gambling tourism in various stages of community development (e.g. Lee & Back, 2003, 2006; Perdue et al., 1995). Specifically, Perdue et al.'s (1995) study found that residents who perceived personal benefits from gaming were more likely to be positive in assessing their quality of life in Colorado. Lee and Back (2003, 2006) meanwhile examined the changes of residents' perceptions between pre- and post-casino development in Korea. Findings of the study also supported the use of social exchange theory in examining rural gambling communities in South Korea.

2.4. Perceived impacts of tourism development and support

On the basis of social exchange theory, the direct relationships between perceived impacts and support of tourism development are also well documented in the tourism literature. These mainly focus on residents' perspectives (e.g. Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy, Milito, & Nunkoo, 2017; Lee, Kang, Long, & Reisinger, 2010; Luo & Xiao, 2017; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2017). A general consensus is that if local residents' attitudes are more positive toward the impact of tourism, they are more likely to perceive support for future tourism development. Notably, perceived positive impacts were shown to be more likely to exhibit a solid influence on the community support than negative impacts (Gursoy et al., 2017; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Lee et al., 2010; Luo & Xiao, 2017). Other studies examining the sub-types of perceived impacts provide a closer look at the association between perceived impacts and support (Kang, Lee, Yoon, & Long, 2008; Lee et al., 2010). In

Colorado gaming research, for example, increased noise, pollution, indirect social costs including alcohol and drug problems, and other forms of crime were shown to be significant antecedents of support for casino development, whereas increased tax burdens and direct gambling costs such as bankruptcies and gambling addictions were not (Lee et al., 2010). Based on the preceding discussion, the following hypotheses are drawn:

H1. Residents' perception of positive impact of marijuana tourism affects their support for marijuana tourism.

H2. Residents' perception of negative impact of marijuana tourism affects their support for marijuana tourism.

2.5. Mediating role of personal benefit in social exchange theory

Perdue et al. (1995) showed that the level of personal benefit was significantly correlated with perceived impacts of gambling and support for gambling. Subsequent research has implemented a concept of personal benefit as a mediator between the perceived impacts and the support for casino development (Kang et al., 2008; Lee & Back, 2003, 2006; Lee et al., 2010). Lee and Back (2003, 2006) found that the positive and negative impacts are the strongest drivers of personal benefit six months before and after a casino opening in South Korea. Interestingly, the results showed that the positive and negative social impacts and positive environmental impacts became the significant predictors, while the negative economic impact had a diminishing influence on personal benefit as time passed (Lee & Back, 2006). Furthermore, personal benefit was found as the strong predictor of support for casino development in Colorado (Kang et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010). Lee et al. (2010) showed that personal benefit explained 62% of the variance in support for a casino in Colorado, whereas a total of six perceived impacts accounted for 72% of the variance. Based on the preceding discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3. Residents' perception of positive impact of marijuana tourism affects their perception of personal benefit in the context of marijuana tourism.

H4. Residents' perception of negative impact of marijuana tourism affects their perception of personal benefit in the context of marijuana tourism.

H5. Residents' perception of personal benefit affects their support of marijuana tourism.

2.6. Place attachment and social exchange theory

As social scientists became more interested in the connection between people and their places of residence, the concept of attachment was developed and investigated (Cross, 2004). Place attachment posits that people connect with places emotionally and symbolically; this effect is often referred to as sense of belonging (Tuan, 1977). Examples of attachment to place include parks, natural areas, homes, neighborhoods, towns, cities, communities, rural areas, state, and country.

In tourism research, the effect of community attachment has been widely employed in explaining residents' perception on tourism impacts including gambling (e.g. Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; McCool & Martin, 1994; Sheldon & Var, 1984). Specifically, numerous studies have provided empirical evidence that residents' attachment is an important antecedent to their perception of, benefits from, and support on tourism development (e.g. Gursoy & Spangenberg, 2006; McCool & Martin, 1994; Nepal, 2008). Jurowski, Uysal, and Williams (1997) investigated perceptions of nature-based tourism development in Virginia. Their findings showed that community attachment was positively associated with economic impact, social impact, and support, but negatively associated with environmental impact. The authors also claimed that the negative relationship between the attachment and environmental impact might be a reason for mixed results regarding the relationship between the attachment and support for tourism. In a similar context, McCool and Martin (1994) investigated whether Montana residents with strong community attachment held more negative attitudes toward tourism development than those who were less attached. Their findings revealed that those with stronger attachment did have stronger views, relating to both positive and negative impacts, and those who were more attached were more informed and, therefore, more concerned.

Nepal (2008) emphasized that community attachment was an important variable that could be related to attitudes toward tourism and tourism-induced socio-economic opportunities. In his study of residents' attitudes in a newly proposed resort community, community attachment and residents' attitudes were inversely related: the stronger the attachment, the weaker the support for tourism or tourism-induced opportunities. Conversely, two subsequent studies, one by Lee (2001), who examined residents of the Kangwon Land Casino communities in Korea, and by Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), who investigated residents of Washington and Idaho in the US, concluded that residents' community attachment was an important precursor of their perceptions of, benefits of, and support for tourism development. Particularly, in many rural communities, residents' community attachment becomes the primary force sustaining their communities (Tigges, 2006). This ambivalent view on the impact of attachment may suggest that the relationship between place attachment and tourism development support can be subjective to its location and development phase, warranting future studies examining residents' support in terms of their unique geographical and developmental circumstances. In this context, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6. Residents' place attachment moderates the relationship between perceived impact, personal benefit, and support in the context of marijuana tourism.

2.7. Study purpose

Marijuana tourism research has not yet been actively conducted, as the nationwide legalization is still in progress. This study applies social exchange theory to investigate residents' perceptions of marijuana tourism in Colorado. Specifically, the main purpose of the study is to examine residents' perceptions of marijuana tourism by incorporating perceived impact of, benefits of, and support for marijuana tourism. Applying the aforementioned discussions, this study presents the proposed research model as shown in Fig. 1.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research instrument

All questions were adapted from tourism and gambling studies and modified to fit the context of marijuana tourism. Specifically, perceived impacts of marijuana tourism were assessed with six items, respectively (e.g. Carmichael, Peppard, & Boudreau, 1996; Hsu, 2000; Lee & Back, 2003; Long, 1996). Personal benefit was evaluated with a single item (e.g. Lee et al., 2010; Long, 1996). Support of marijuana tourism employed three questions (e.g. Lee & Back, 2003; Lee et al., 2010; Long, 1996). Lastly, place attachment was operationalized with four items (e.g. Gross & Brown, 2006). All questions were asked using a five-point Likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

To ensure face validity, two industry professionals working in the marijuana industry (e.g. one being a retail shop owner and the other being a municipal policy maker) were invited to clarify each item and comment on whether the items were appropriate for evaluating residents' perceptions about marijuana tourism. A pretest with 32 residents was then conducted to finalize the instrument.

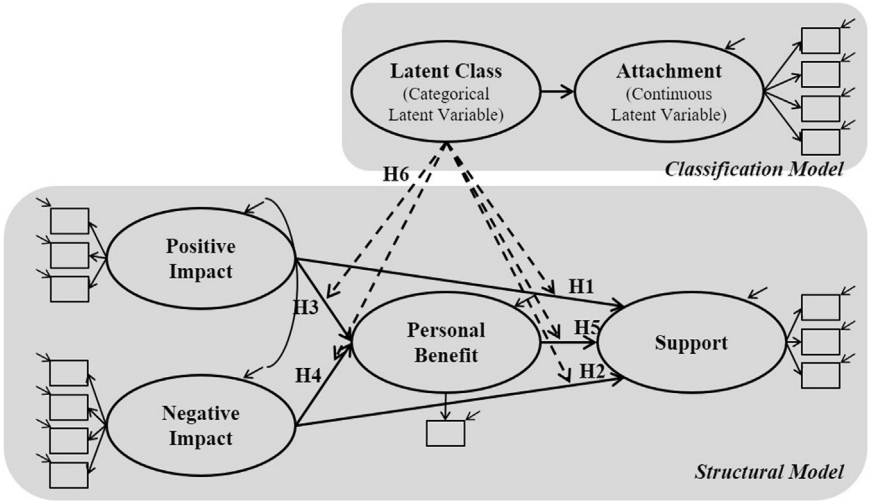

Fig. 1. Proposed research model.
All latent variables in the structural model are continuous latent variables.

3.2. Data collection and profile

The data were collected from university students enrolled in a land-grant university in Colorado. Specifically, the students were recruited mainly from hospitality management and tourism management majors. Of 250 collected responses, four observations were excluded because those respondents had reported zero month of residency in Colorado. The data collection took place between October 2015 and December 2015, marking the second year of recreational marijuana legalization in Colorado. A majority of respondents were female (73.2%) and Colorado residents (80.9%). The average length of residency was 163.46 months (13 years and 7 months with the standard deviation of 103.04 months) with the median of 220 months (18 years and 4 months).

3.3. Data analysis

This study employed factor mixture modeling (FMM) by using Mplus 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998). FMM is a type of cross-sectional mixture analysis, in which continuous and categorical latent variables are used together (Muthén, 2002). Continuous latent variable functions informed the ordinary factor structure, while categorical latent variable analysis was used to group subjects into heterogeneous sub-classes (often called clusters). Therefore, FMM allows the classification of subjects into different latent classes, if any exist, and permits the determination of continuous latent scores within each class simultaneously (Muthén, 2008). Several studies in the hospitality and tourism literature have employed the concept of categorical latent variable to cluster their respondents into distinctive groups (e.g. Alegre, Mateo, & Pou, 2011; Bae & Song, 2017; Choe, Kim, & Fesenmaier, 2017; Crouch, Huybers, & Oppewal, 2016; Okazaki, Campo, Andreu, & Romero, 2014). No study using FMM has, however, been reported so far.

During the factor mixture moderated structural modeling, the study followed the three-step approach recommended by Asparouhov and Muthén (2014) in order to avoid any potential noise on the classification model from the structural model. In the first step, FMM was used to estimate the optimal number of latent classes that shared an homogenous level of place attachment. Several simulation studies report that the bootstrapped likelihood ratio test (BLRT) performs best in identifying the correct model, followed by the Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted likelihood ratio test (LMR LRT) (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007; Tofighi & Enders, 2008; Yang, 2006). This study used LMR LRT to detect the optimal number of latent classes as BLRT may only detec more than five classes, with no meaningful differences compared to the smaller models. Second, the place attachment membership variable was created using the latent class *posterior* distribution that was obtained during the first step. Lastly, the membership variable was modeled to serve as a moderator on the structural model linking perceived impacts – personal benefit – support of marijuana tourism, considering the misclassification (i.e. measurement error) obtained in the second step.

Since personal benefit was evaluated with a single indicator, a specifically latent approach was implemented to take its plausible measurement error into account. In this approach, the error variance of the single indicator is set to be $(1 - \alpha) \times variance$ (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Kline, 2010). Given that the single indicator does not yield the Cronbach's alpha, .80 of alpha is imputed into the current analysis as a reasonable compromise, because the previous studies on perceived benefit in the tourism research using social exchange theory reported the range of .75 – .89 of alpha (e.g. Lee & Back, 2003, 2006; Lee et al., 2010).

4. Resutls

4.1. Measurement modeling

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to examine the construct validity and reliability of the measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). MLR[1] estimation was employed to yield maximum likelihood parameter estimates with standard errors and a χ^2 test statistic, which is robust to non-normally distributed data, where the MLR χ^2 test statistic is asymptotically equivalent to the Yuan-Bentler T2* test statistic (Muthén & Muthén, 1998). As shown in Table 1, the results show a good fit between the observed covariance and the model-implied covariance (Hu & Bentler, 1999). All standardized factor loadings were significant, ranging from .721 to .948 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In addition, the lowest average variance extracted (AVE) value was .623 for positive impact, thereby confirming convergent validity. All construct reliabilities (CR) were higher than .70, showing a satisfactory level of internal consistency for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (see Table 1).

Discriminant validity among the latent variables was supported by examining whether the 95% of confidence intervals (CIs) of the correlation coefficients contain one or not (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The top two high correlation coefficients were .824 between personal benefit and support and .819 between positive impact and support. The Table 2 also shows that the CIs of the top two correlation coefficients do not contain one, thereby satisfying the discriminant validity.

[1] MLR is one of estimators in latent variable analysis provided by Mplus and does not stand for anything (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2017).

Table 1
Results of the confirmatory factor analysis.

Latent variables / observed iems	Standardized factor loadings*
Positive Impact (AVE = .623, CR = .832)	
Legalized marijuana will increase employment opportunities in Colorado.	.833
Legalized marijuana will create more investment and small business opportunities in Colorado.	.810
Legalized marijuana will improve infrastructure in Colorado.	.721
Negative Impact (AVE = .745, CR = .921)	
Legalized marijuana will cause more alcohol and drug problems in Colorado.	.789
Legalized marijuana will lead to more vandalism in Colorado.	.925
Legalized marijuana will result in more noise and pollution in Colorado.	.876
Legalized marijuana will increase the property crime rate in Colorado.	.858
Personal Benefit** (AVE = .799, CR = .799)	
Legalized marijuana tourism benefits myself.	.894
Support (AVE = .793, CR = .920)	
Legalized marijuana tourism makes Colorado a better place to live.	.838
The future of Colorado looks bright due to the legalized marijuana tourism.	.907
I support the legalized marijuana tourism in Colorado.	.924
Place Attachment (AVE = .761, CR = .927)	
I identify myself with Colorado.	.874
I feel the state of Colorado to be part of me.	.948
Living in Colorado says a lot about who I am.	.906
Colorado is an ideal place to live.	.750

MLR $\chi^2_{(df)} = 114.419_{(81)}$ ($p < .05$), CFI = .986, TLI = .982, RMSEA = .041 (90% CI = .021–.057), SRMR = .034.
AVE: Average Variance Extracted; CR: Construct Reliability.
* All standardized factor loadings are significant at .001.
** A partially latent factor using a single indicator. Reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha of .80) is employed to take into account measurement error (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Kline, 2010).

Table 2
Discriminant validity among continuous latent variables.

	Positive Impact	Negative Impact	Personal Benefit	Support	Place Attachment
Positive Impact		*(−.470, −.702)*	*(.583, .799)*	*(.737, .901)*	*(.142, .434)*
Negative Impact	−.586		*(−.454, −.674)*	*(−.684, −.836)*	*(−.117, −.409)*
Personal Benefit	.691	−.564		*(.756, .892)*	*(.065, .321)*
Support	.819	−.760	.824		*(.125, .389)*
Place Attachment	.288	−.263	.193	.257	

Correlation coefficients are written in the lower triangle and the 95% confidence interval of correlation coefficients are written in the upper triangle.

4.2. Structural modeling

Next, structural relationships were examined. Fig. 2 confirms that the structural model fits the data well: MLR $\chi^2_{(df)} = 59.411_{(39)}$ ($p < .05$), CFI = .988, TLI = .983, RMSEA = .046 (90% CI = .019–.069), SRMR = .029 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The research model was compared with its alternative model, which does not include direct paths from perceived impacts to support. The chi-square difference test shows that the research model fits the data significantly better than the alternative model ($\Delta MLR\chi^2_{(\Delta df)} = 63.34_{(2)}$, $p < .05$).

The results of overall structural model reveal that support of marijuana tourism was significantly related to two impact precedents, positive impact (β = .354, $p < .001$) and negative impact (β = −.331, $p < .001$). Also, personal benefit was significantly associated with positive impact (β = .549, $p < .001$) and negative impact (β = −.243, $p < .01$). As reported in the extant literature, positive impact was positively associated with personal benefit and support, whereas negative impact was shown to be negatively associated with personal benefit and support, thereby supporting H1–H4. In addition, the more personal benefit the resident perceives, the more support of marijuana tourism the resident exhibits (β = .393, $p < .001$), confirming H5. The graphical illustration of structural relationships is depicted in Fig. 2.

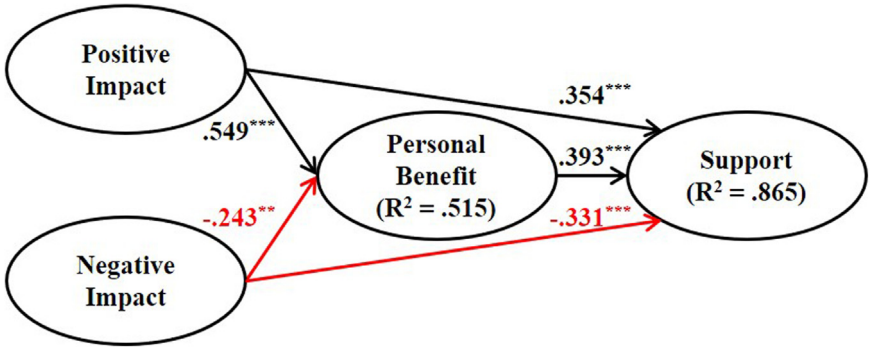

Fig. 2. Results of structural model: overall model.
The values indicate standardized coefficients. * p ** p *** p n/s $p > .05$.

Table 3
Factor mixture modeling fit-indices.

Model	$L_{(p)}$	SABIC	LMR LRT (*p*-value)	BLRT (*p*-value)	Entropy	Sample size per class				
						1	2	3	4	5
1-class model	$-909.015_{(12)}$	1846.054	–	–	–	246				
2-class model	$-866.630_{(14)}$	1765.955	77.712 (.223)$^{n/s}$	84.769 (<.001)***	.919	22	224			
3-class model	$-818.156_{(16)}$	1673.678	88.879 (.045)*	96.952 (<.001)***	.981	83	148	15		
4-class model	$-664.080_{(18)}$	1370.196	282.497 (.483)$^{n/s}$	308.154 (<.001)***	1.000	21	62	15	148	
5-class model	$-664.080_{(20)}$	1374.867	140.174 (.515)$^{n/s}$	152.905 (.003)**	.994	0	62	21	15	148

L: Loglikelihood; *p*: # of free parameters; SABIC: Sample-size adjusted Bayesian information criteria; LMR LRT: Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted likelihood ratio test; BLRT: Bootstrap likelihood ratio test.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.
*** $p < .001$.
$^{n/s}$ $p > .05$.

4.3. Factor Mixture Modeling (FMM)

In selecting ideal number of classes using place attachment construct, the results of LMR LRT indicated that a three-class model was significantly better than a two-class model ($p < .05$), whereas a four-class model was not significantly better than a three-class model ($p = .483$). Furthermore, a three-class model shows a high entropy (entropy > .80), which is a summary measure of classification quality[2] (Clark, 2010; Wang & Wang, 2012). Therefore, as presented in Table 3, a three-class FMM was selected as the optimal model.

The profiles of each class were investigated by examining the latent means of place attachment across three classes. The latent means of attachment were estimated in a relative manner due to the identification condition, whereby the latent mean of the last class was set to zero as a reference class. The first class shows the latent mean of 1.90 and the second class reports that of 3.20. Accordingly, the first class was labeled as mid-level attachment residents ($n = 83$, 33.7%); the second class was named as high-level attachment residents ($n = 148$, 60.2%); and the last class, the reference group, was called low-level attachment residents ($n = 15$, 6.1%).

4.4. Factor mixture moderated structural modeling

In order to create a measurement error-free latent class membership variable, the imperfect measurement of true latent class (i.e. the most likely latent class membership), which was estimated from the FMM, was modeled with its classification probabilities, following a three-step approach (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014). In this way, the classification model and the structural model were combined to consider their own measurement error without the interference between the models.

The results of invariant and non-invariant factor mixture moderated structural models were compared with respect to the five structural paths moderated by place attachment class. The results of loglikelihood difference test indicate that the non-invariant model was significantly better than the invariant model ($TRd_{(\Delta p)} = 20.074_{(10)}$, $p < .05$), thereby proving H6 (see Table 4). The significant moderating role of attachment in structural relationships among perceived impacts, personal benefit, and support was supported.

As presented in Table 5 and Fig. 3, interesting patterns of structural relationships over the three classes were detected. Specifically, in mid-level attachment resident class, positive and negative impacts showed significant but contrary associations with personal benefit and support of marijuana tourism ($\beta^{Mid}_{PI\rightarrow PB} = .469$, $p < .001$; $\beta^{Mid}_{NI\rightarrow PB} = -.330$, $p < .01$; $\beta^{Mid}_{PI\rightarrow S} = .423$, $p < .001$; $\beta^{Mid}_{PI\rightarrow S} = -.472$, $p < .001$). Also, the results indicated that personal benefit was not significantly associated with support ($\beta^{Mid}_{PB\rightarrow S} = .193$, $p > .05$). For high-level attachment resident class, all five structural path coefficients were significant. Positive and negative impacts had significant but contrary associations with the personal benefit and support ($\beta^{High}_{PI\rightarrow PB} = .612$, $p < .001$; $\beta^{High}_{NI\rightarrow PB} = -.217$, $p < .05$; $\beta^{High}_{PI\rightarrow S} = .355$, $p < .01$; $\beta^{High}_{PI\rightarrow S} = -.252$, $p < .001$), and personal benefit was significantly associated with support ($\beta^{High}_{PB\rightarrow S} = .460$, $p < .001$). Lastly, among the low-level attachment residents, both positive and negative impacts showed insignificant associations with personal benefit ($\beta^{Low}_{PI\rightarrow PB} = .102$, $p > .05$; $\beta^{Low}_{NI\rightarrow PB} = .042$, $p > .05$). While positive impact was not significantly associated with support ($\beta^{Low}_{PI\rightarrow S} = .246$, $p > .05$), negative impact and personal benefit were shown to be significantly associated with support ($\beta^{Low}_{NI\rightarrow S} = -.557$, $p < .001$; $\beta^{Low}_{PB\rightarrow S} = .533$, $p < .01$).

Lastly, results of the analyses show the strong and similar level of explanatory powers for the variance in support of marijuana tourism for all three groups ($R^2_{Mid} = .878$; $R^2_{High} = .872$; $R^2_{Low} = .839$). In addition, the explanatory powers of both positive and negative impact for the variance in personal benefit were relatively strong for all classes except low-level attachment residents ($R^2_{Mid} = .503$; $R^2_{High} = .570$; $R^2_{Low} = .007$).

Table 4
Factor mixture-moderated SEM loglikelihood ratio difference test.

	$L_{(p)}$	*c*	SABIC	cd	$TRd_{(\Delta p)}$
FM-moderated SEM with invariant paths	$-3319.053_{(48)}$	1.126	6750.205	–	–
FM-moderated SEM with non-invariant paths	$-3309.952_{(58)}$	1.088	6755.357	.907	$20.074_{(10)}^{*}$

c: MLR scaling correction factor; cd: Difference test scaling correction; TRd: Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test statistic (i.e., $\Delta ML\chi^2$).
$TRd = -2\times(L_0 - L_1)/cd$
$cd = (p_0 \times c_0 - p_1 \times c_1)/(p_0 - p_1)$
For more information on the difference test, refer to Satorra and Bentler (2010) study and Mplus website at http://www.statmodel.com/chidiff.shtml.
** p < .01;
*** p < .001;
n/s p > .05.
* $p < .05$.

5. Discussion

In recent years, the US has witnessed an unprecedented trend of legalizing recreational marijuana. Even though it is still illegal at the federal level, many states have jumped on the bandwagon by passing ballot measures to amend the Constitution of their state, outlining a statewide drug policy for cannabis. The early adopters of the legalization since 2012 – Colorado, Washington, Oregon, and Alaska – have

[2] The results show that the entropy of the four-class model was higher than that of the three-class model. However, entropy tended to increase as the number of classes increased (Celeux & Soromenho, 1996).

Table 5
Results of structural models: Overall and factor mixture moderated structural models.

	Overall DV		Mid –level Attachment Residents		High –level Attachment Residents		Low-level Attachment Residents	
IV	Personal Benefit	Support	Personal Benefit	Support	Personal Benefit	Support	Personal Benefit	Support
Positive Impact	.549*** (.082)	.354*** (.074)	.469*** (.099)	.423*** (.099)	.612*** (.107)	.355** (.114)	.102n/s (.418)	.246n/s (.171)
Negative Impact	−.243** (.083)	−.331*** (.055)	−.330** (.099)	−.472*** (.081)	−.217* (.109)	−.252*** (.065)	.042n/s (.444)	−.557** (.213)
Personal Benefit	–	.393*** (.065)	–	.193n/s (.105)	–	.460*** (.099)	–	.533** (.169)
R^2	.515***	.865***	.503***	.878***	.570***	.872***	.007n/s	.839***

Overall Model: MLR $\chi^2_{(df)} = 59.411_{(39)}$ ($p < .05$), CFI = .988, TLI = .983, RMSEA = .046 (90% CI = .019 − .069), SRMR = .029, Loglikelihood$_{(\#\ of\ free\ parameters)}$ = −3121.862$_{(38)}$, SABIC = 6332.468.
FMM Structural Model: Loglikelihood$_{(\#\ of\ free\ parameters)}$ = −3309.952$_{(58)}$, SABIC = 6755.357.
The values indicate standardized coefficients and their standard errors in parenthesis.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.
*** $p < .001$.
n/s $p > .05$.

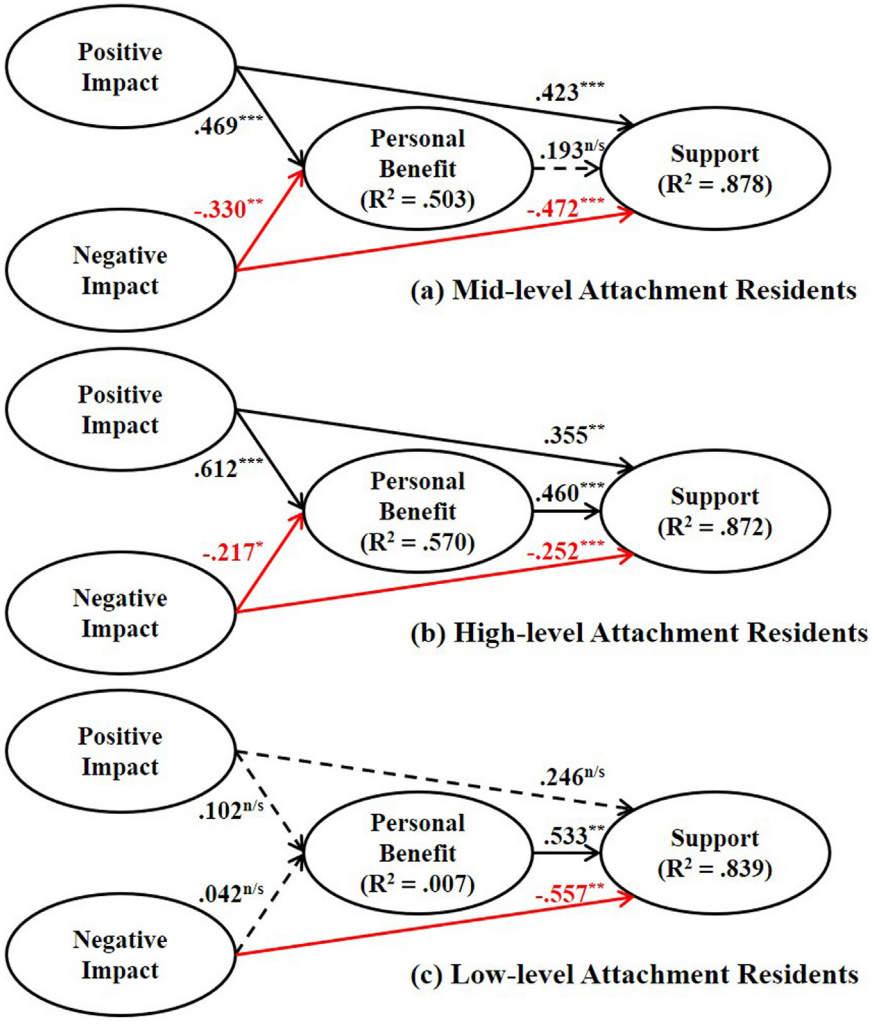

Fig. 3. Results of factor mixture-moderated structural model. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; n/s $p > .05$.

begun to observe both ample business opportunities as well as negative consequences as results of the legalization. Therefore, recreational marijuana industry has received a great deal of attention as it has been considered to be a phenomenon that has turned once-forbidden fruit into the goose that lays the golden egg (Kang et al., 2016).

Legalization of recreational marijuana has prompted numerous commerce segments to explore this new 'green rush' for their own advantage. The hospitality and tourism industry is no exception. The industry in Colorado has experienced drastic changes in their business landscape since the legalization of recreational marijuana use. The current study examined residents' support of cannabis tourism in Colorado by applying social exchange theory. Overall, the social exchange theory model fitted the data well in explaining residents' perceptions toward marijuana tourism, as reported in previous studies (e.g.

Ap, 1992; Hsu, 2000; Lee & Back, 2003, 2006; Lee et al., 2010; Perdue et al., 1995). Findings of the study contribute to the body of knowledge in that this is the first to investigate how residents' perceptions of cannabis tourism are shaped by incorporating perceived impacts, personal benefit, and place attachment.

The results of the study showed that positive impacts influenced residents' personal benefit, which had a positive effect on residents' support. Furthermore, personal benefit was the most important determinant in residents' support of marijuana tourism. This is in line with the current literature (e.g, Kang et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010; McCool & Martin, 1994; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Um & Crompton, 1987). Therefore, it can be concluded that social exchange theory is empirically applicable in explaining residents' perception in the context of supporting marijuana tourism.

When social exchange theory was tested to sub-classes based on place attachment, the perceptions of high-level attachment residents' perceptions were fully supported by social exchange theory: if they perceived positive impact and benefit from marijuana tourism, they were likely to support marijuana tourism. In that sense, they can be regarded as proactive stakeholders in marijuana tourism, rather than being passive. Unlike their high-level counterpart, the residents' personal benefit in the middle-level class did not influence their support of marijuana tourism, making them 'bystander' stakeholders. Lastly, the results reported that the low-level attachment residents did not show any association between perceived impacts and personal benefit. They, however, showed a significant but inverse association between negative impact and support. This means that if respondents perceived negative impact more significantly, they were less likely to support marijuana tourism. Nevertheless, personal benefit was identified as a significant predictor of support of marijuana tourism for this group, which was also observed in the high-level attachment class. However, neither perceived impact dimension influenced personal benefit in this class.

Moreover, the magnitude of place attachment as a moderator differed for each class. The high-level attachment class was the only group demonstrating positive associations among perceived impacts, personal benefit, and support, as reported in previous studies (e.g. Harrill, 2004; Lee et al., 2010). For the mid-level attachment class, it appears that the moderating effect was more manifested between personal benefit and support as evidenced by its insignificant association. Conversely, for the low-level attachment class, place attachment was more likely to exert an influence on the relationship between perceived impacts and personal benefit fully and between perceived impacts and support partially (i.e. only positive impact was not significantly associated with support). For the mid- and low-attachment class residents, social exchange theory was only partially supported as there were some paths proven to be insignificant. Therefore, this finding warrants future studies especially focusing on less attached residents.

6. Conclusion

6.1. Conclusion and implications

This study can serve as an empirical seminal work that sheds light on the understanding of residents' perceptions of marijuana tourism, which has not been explored in the tourism literature. The ultimate success of any community in working toward an improved quality of life for residents through the tourism development process depends upon careful community planning, effective implementation, and constant evaluation and reassessment (Long, 1996). In the long term, it is important to monitor a community's ability to handle issues and changes attributable to the legalization and to address them properly in order to minimize negative consequences (Carmichael et al., 1996; Eadington, 1996). Most of all, state policy makers and regulators have to endeavor to address and educate the impacts of marijuana legalization objectively to their constituents. Unfortunately, due to its illegal status at the federal government, the state government has been reluctant to be involved in promoting marijuana tourism (Feuer, 2016). As a result, most of statistics available on legalization impacts were published either by marijuana support groups or opposition groups, thus making its interpretation questionable for academic research (Kang et al., 2016). Continued research efforts are therefore crucial to ensure that the various key stakeholders' needs are being met. This need has become more pressing as the involvement of more states, including California, could be a tipping point for legalization efforts across the nation.

From an industry perspective, well-balanced research information and knowledge on marijuana tourism will not only provide theoretical value to academic researchers who can develop conceptual frameworks surrounding the issue, but can also offer practical contributions to policy makers and marketers whose goal is to develop the sustainable and competitive business environment. Specifically, the importance of community attachment on the level of support identifies an important cue to the industry professionals. The industry professionals should endeavor to find a way to execute various projects that may induce residents' community attachment by taking a proactive role. For example, educating residents about the overall impacts of legalization is an easy way to connect with the people and to share facts about the industry. Furthermore, they should consider addressing issues that supersede impact regulations to make their community more cohesive by organizing open forums and events that can be shared with various community stakeholders. Continued efforts between community residents and leaders are crucial to ensure all needs are being met. A more active engagement with academia will be also welcomed as an means of fostering a better understanding of the industry and the business practices.

6.2. Future research and limitations

As the first empirical study that examined marijuana tourism in the tourism literature, this study has shed some light on what research needs to be done in the future, from the residents' perspective specifically. First, some gambling researchers have averred that residents' perceptions of gambling might be different depending on the size of their residing communities, the magnitude of gaming establishments (e.g. Nichols, Giacopassi, & Stitt, 2002), and residents' socio-demographic characteristics (e.g. Spears & Boger, 2002). Thus, future studies need to investigate differeneces in residents' perception based on such factors as length of legalization, magnitude of legalization, their socio-demographic characteristics, etc.

Furthermore, this study considered only two overall impact dimensions: positive and negative. Future studies may elaborate on impact types by including more multifaceted aspects of marijuana tourism. In particular, the expanded impact construct may enhance the low explanatory power of impacts on personal benefit among low attached residents in this study. As it is exploratory in nature, this study has used college students as a sample. This approach is well-supported by some social science researchers, who claim that research topics where basic psychological processes or the theory tested links to human behaviors independent of sample characteristics are suitable to be investigated with college students as a sample (Kardes, 1996; Lucas, 2003).

As reported in many gambling studies (e.g. Kang & Hsu, 2000), young adults, including college students, have nevertheless disproportionally driven the shift toward public support of the drug (Geiger, 2016). The findings of the study should therefore be used with caution as their highly skewed perceptions toward recreational marijuana and tourism impacts may not represent the general community members' opinions about the topic. The sample frame can be expanded to other residents with different socio-demographic profiles who reside in different parts of the state.

As the gambling industry has evolved into the maturity stage of its life cycle, the necessity of changes in residents' attitudes and

perceptions over the various development phases of a destination has been inevitable (Carmichael et al., 1996; Getz, 1994). Hsu (2000) enunciated that residents' perception could change as the gambling development evolves, which is known as 'lag effect.' This holds especially true when the expected outcome of a tourism development do not meet the time frame as anticipated by residents. This logic can be applied and tested in the context of marijuana tourism. It is therefore important to conduct a longitudinal study to detect any attitude/support changes among residents throughout the different life cycle. Once enough empirical data are accumulated, it would be interesting to examine the different types of impact between/among legalized states based on their unique background factors such as legalization year, magnitude and size of industry, the state's policy and regulations, etc.

References

Alegre, J., Mateo, S., & Pou, L. (2011). A latent class approach to tourists' length of stay. *Tourism Management, 32*(3), 555–563.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411–423.

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research, 19*(4), 665–690.

Asparouhov, T., & Muthén, B. O. (2014). Auxiliary variables in mixture modeling: Three-step approaches using Mplus. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 21*(3), 329–341.

Baca, R. (2016). Colorado marijuana sales skyrocket to more than $996 million in 2015. *The Cannabist*. (Retrieved 09.02.16. from) 〈http://www.thecannabist.co/2016/02/09/colorado-marijuana-sales-2015-reach-996-million/47886/〉.

Bae, S. Y., & Song, H. (2017). Intercultural sensitivity and tourism patterns among international students in Korea: Using a latent profile analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 22*(4), 436–448.

Belhassen, Y., Santos, C. A., & Uriely, N. (2007). Cannabis usage in tourism: A sociological perspective. *Leisure Studies, 26*(3), 303–319.

Carmichael, B., Peppard, D., & Boudreau, F. (1996). Mega-resort on my doorstep: Local resident attitudes towards Foxwood casino and casino gambling on nearby Indian reservation land. *Journal of Travel Research, 34*(3), 9–16.

CDOR Marijuana Enforcement (2016). Marijuana enforcement. *Colorado Department of Revenue*. (Retrieved 15.05.16. from) 〈https://www.colorado.gov/pacific/enforcement/marijuanaenforcement〉.

CDOR MED Licensed Facilities (2016). Number of licensed retail marijuana business as of May 3, 2016. *Colorado Department of Revenue*. (Retrieved 03.05.16. from) 〈https://www.colorado.gov/pacific/enforcement/med-licensed-facilities〉.

Celeux, G., & Soromenho, G. (1996). An entropy criterion for assessing the number of clusters in a mixture model. *Journal of Classification, 13*(2), 195–212.

Choe, Y., Kim, J. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2017). Use of social media across the trip experience: An application of latent transition analysis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 34(4)*, 431–443.

Clark, S. L. (2010). Mixture modeling with behavioral data (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Los Angeles, CA: University of California, Los Angeles. Retrieved 19.12.17. from: ProQuest LLC at 〈http://search.proquest.com/docview/230964800〉.

Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., Piccolo, R. F., Zapata, C. P., & Rich, B. L. (2012). Explaining the justice–performance relationship: Trust as exchange deepener or trust as uncertainty reducer? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(1), 1–15.

Cross, J. E. (2004). Improving measures of community attachment. In: *Proceedings of the annual meeting of the rural sociology society* (pp. 1–15), Sacramento, CA.

Crouch, G. I., Huybers, T., & Oppewal, H. (2016). Inferring future vacation experience preference from past vacation choice: A latent class analysis. *Journal of Travel Research, 55*(5), 574–587.

Eadington, W. (1996). The legalization of casinos: Policy objectives, regulatory alternatives, and cost/benefit considerations. *Journal of Travel Research, 34*(3), 3–8.

Feuer, A. (2016). Taking a trip, literally, on Colorado's pot trail. *The New York Times*. (Retrieved 14.04.16. from) 〈http://www.nytimes.com/2016/04/17/travel/colorado-weed-marijuana-tour.html〉.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(1), 39–50.

Geiger, A. (2016). Support for marijuana legalization continues to rise. *Factank: News in the numbers*. (Retrieved 16.10.16. from) 〈http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2016/10/12/support-for-marijuana-legalization-continues-to-rise/〉.

Getz, D. (1994). Impacts of tourism on residents' leisure: Concepts, and a longitudinal case study of Spey Valley, Scotland. *Journal of Tourism Studies, 4*(2), 33–44.

Gross, M. J., & Brown, G. (2006). Tourism experience in a lifestyle destination setting: The roles of involvement and place attachment. *Journal of Business Research, 59*(6), 696–700.

Gursoy, D., & Kendall, K. W. (2006). Hosting mega events: Modeling locals' support. *Annals of Tourism Research, 33*(3), 603–623.

Gursoy, D., Milito, M. C., & Nunkoo, R. (2017). Residents' support for a mega-event: The case of the 2014 FIFA World Cup, Natal, Brazil. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 6*(4), 344–352.

Gursoy, D., & Rutherford, D. G. (2004). Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(3), 495–516.

Gursoy, D., Spangenberg, E., & Rutherford, D. (2006). The hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of attendees' attitudes toward festivals. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 30*(3), 279–294.

Harrill, R. (2004). Residents' attitudes toward tourism development: A literature review with implications for tourism planning. *Journal of Planning Literature, 18*(3), 251–266.

Healy, J. (2014). Colorado expects to reap tax bonanza from legal marijuana sales. *The New York Times*. (Retrieved 20.02.14. from) 〈http://www.nytimes.com/2014/02/21/us/colorado-expects-to-reap-tax-bonanza-from-legal-marijuana-sales.html?_r=0〉.

Hsu, C. H. (2000). Riverboat casinos' impact on host communities: Comments from business owners and residents. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 5*(1), 8–15.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 6*(1), 1–55.

Hudak, J. (2014). Colorado's rollout of legal marijuana is succeeding. *Center for Effective Public Management*. (Retrieved 01.05.16. from) 〈http://www.brookings.edu/~/media/research/files/papers/2014/07/colorado-marijuana-legalization-succeeding/cepmmjcov2.pdf〉.

Huddleston, T. (2016). Legal marijuana sales could hit $6.7 billion in 2016. *Fortune*. (Retrieved 01.02.16. from) 〈http://fortune.com/2016/02/01/marijuana-sales-legal/〉.

Jurowski, C., Uysal, M., & Williams, D. R. (1997). A theoretical analysis of host community resident reactions to tourism. *Journal of Travel Research, 36(2)*, 3–11.

Kang, S. K., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2000). University students' perceptions on legalized gambling and their casino gaming behaviors. *The Consortium Journal, 5*(1), 1–5.

Kang, S. K., Lee, C. K., Yoon, Y. S., & Long, P. T. (2008). Resident perception of the impact of limited stakes community-based casino gaming in mature gaming communities. *Tourism Management, 29*(4), 681–694.

Kang, S. K., O'Leary, J., & Miller, J. (2016). From forbidden fruit to the goose that lays golden eggs: Marijuana tourism in Colorado. *SAGE Open, 6*(4), 1–12.

Kardes, F. R. (1996). In defense of experimental consumer psychology. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 5*, 279–296.

Kline, R. B. (2010). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Lee, C. K. (2001). Pre- and post- casino impacts perceived by residents at closed mining areas and minimizing adverse impact. *Journal of Tourism Research, 25*(2), 135–154.

Lee, C. K., & Back, K. J. (2003). Pre- and post-casino impact of residents' perception. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(4), 868–885.

Lee, C. K., & Back, K. J. (2006). Examining structural relationships among perceived impact, benefit, and support for casino development based on 4 year longitudinal data. *Tourism Management, 27*(3), 466–480.

Lee, C. K., Kang, S. K., Long, P. T., & Reisinger, Y. (2010). Residents' perceptions of casino impacts: A comparative study. *Tourism Management, 31*(2), 189–201.

Long, P. T. (1996). Early impacts of limited stakes casino gambling on rural community life. *Tourism Management, 17*(5), 341–353.

Lucas, J. W. (2003). Theory-testing, generalization, and the problem of external validity. *Sociological Theory, 21*, 236–253.

Luo, J., & Xiao, H. (2017). Residents' perceptions of non-casino gaming in an urban destination: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 6*(4), 335–343.

McCool, S. F., & Martin, S. R. (1994). Community attachment and attitudes toward tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research, 32*(3), 29–34.

MIG (2017). For immediate release. *Marijuana Interest Group*. (Retrieved 14.02.18. from) 〈http://marijuanaindustrygroup.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/MIG-Spicer-Rec-Announcement-Statements-022317-2.pdf〉.

Muthén, B. O. (2002). Beyond SEM: General latent variable modeling. *Behaviormetrika, 29*(1), 81–117.

Muthén, B. O. (2008). Latent variable hybrids: Overview of old and new models. In G. R. Hancock, & K. M. Samuelsen (Eds.). *Advances in latent variable mixture models* (pp. 1–24). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (1998). *Mplus user's guide* (8th ed.). Los Angeles: CA: Muthén & Muthén.

Nepal, S. (2008). Residents' attitudes to tourism in central British Columbia, Canada. *Tourism Geographies, 10*(1), 42–65.

Nichols, M., Giacopassi, D., & Stitt, G. (2002). Casino gambling as a catalyst of economic development: Perceptions of residents in new casino jurisdictions. *Tourism Economics, 8*(1), 59–75.

Nunkoo, R., & Gursoy, D. (2017). Political trust and residents' support for alternative and mass tourism: An improved structural model. *Tourism Geographies, 19*(3), 318–339.

Nylund, K. L., Asparouhov, T., & Muthén, B. O. (2007). Deciding on the number of classes in latent class analysis and growth mixture modeling: A Monte Carlo simulation study. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 14(4)*, 535–569.

Okazaki, S., Campo, S., Andreu, L., & Romero, J. (2014). A latent class analysis of Spanish travelers' mobile internet usage in travel planning and execution. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 56*(2), 191–201.

Perdue, R., Long, P. T., & Kang, Y. (1995). Resident support for gambling as a development strategy. *Journal of Travel Research, 34*(2), 3–11.

Satorra, A., & Bentler, P. M. (2010). Ensuring positiveness of the scaled difference Chi-square test statistic. *Psychometrika, 75*(2), 243–248.

Sheldon, P. J., & Var, T. (1984). Resident attitudes to tourism in North Wales. *Tourism Management, 5*(1), 224–233.

Smith, R. A., & Ong, J. L. T. (2015). Corporate social responsibility and the operationalization challenge for global tourism organization. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 20*(5), 487–499.

Spears, D. L., & Boger, C. A., Jr. (2002). Residents' perceptions and attitudes towards Native American gaming (NAG) in Kansas: Proximity and number of trips to NAG

activity. *UNLV Gaming Research & Review Journal, 6*(2), 13–27.

Tigges, L. M. (2006). Community cohesion and place attachment. *American Behavioral Scientist, 50*(2), 139–140.

Tofighi, D., & Enders, C. K. (2008). Identifying the correct number of classes in a growth mixture model. In G. R. Hancock, & K. M. Samuelsen (Eds.). *Advances in latent variable mixture models* (pp. 317–341). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

Tuan, Y. F. (1977). *Space and place: The perspective of experience.* Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1987). Measuring resident's attachment levels in a host community. *Journal of Travel Research, 26*(1), 27–29.

Valdez, A., & Sifaneck, S. J. (1997). Drug tourists and drug policy on the U.S.-Mexican border: An ethnographic investigation. *Journal of Drug Issues, 27*(4), 879–898.

Wallace, A. (2016). Report: Colorado weed is now a behemoth with a $2.4 billion economic impact. *Denver Post.* (Retrieved 26.10.16. from) ⟨http://www.denverpost.com/2016/10/26/colorado-weed-economic-impact-report/⟩.

Wang, J., & Wang, X. (2012). *Structural equation modeling: Applications using Mplus* (1st ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Yang, C.-C. (2006). Evaluating latent class analysis models in qualitative phenotype identification. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis, 50*(4), 1090–1104.