

# Strengthening tourism ethnocentrism in emerging tourism destinations

Emerging  
tourism  
destinations

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## Abstract

**Purpose** – Despite the importance of tourism ethnocentrism in emerging tourism destinations, there is limited, but growing, research interest in this area. This study aims to respond to current calls for investigating mechanisms that can promote tourism ethnocentrism in both emerging and developed tourism destinations.

**Keywords** Destination social responsibility, Destination psychological ownership, Tourism ethnocentrism

**Paper type** Research paper

## Introduction

The research domain in sustainable tourism indicates that destination management organizations (DMOs) should adopt a tourism development model that aims to shift control, ownership, and management of tourism destinations to key stakeholders, including local residents (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). Most studies in emerging tourism destinations indicate that local residents are often considered merely hosts, and as a result, they are often misrepresented in shaping tourism in their respective tourism destinations (Stone and Nyaupane, 2020). Based on this, there is a great outcry among practitioners and tourism agencies globally to ensure the most effective tourism development model, which should not only focus on inserting local residents into mainstream tourism but should also aim to ensure a more just and equitable distribution of ownership, power, control, and tourism knowledge (Amani, 2023a; Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). This tourism development model should ensure that local residents demonstrate an agentic role by supporting domestic tourism through participating in decisions that aim to promote domestic tourism, planning holidays and vacations as domestic tourists, and spending on domestic tourism (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022; Stone and Nyaupane, 2020). The growing competition in the global tourism market emphasizes the importance for DMOs to take deliberate measures to promote tourism ethnocentrism, facilitating equitable distribution of ownership, power, control, and tourism knowledge among local residents (Amani, 2023a). As a result, local



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residents become potential buyers of various tourism products and services for the development of tourism in their specific tourism destination (Amani, 2023a; Todorović *et al.*, 2023). Existing literature suggests that this model of tourism development is less known, resulting in a low level of tourism ethnocentrism in emerging tourism destinations (Amani and Chao, 2023).

Literature has documented that tourism ethnocentrism represents the feelings that motivate individuals to believe they have an obligation and responsibility to support their domestic tourism economy (Gyimothy *et al.*, 2022; Lever *et al.*, 2022). According to Kock *et al.* (2019) tourism ethnocentrism proposes that residents can bolster their domestic tourism economy by:

- Fostering a sense of community and local pride to enhance the domestic tourism sector.
- Opting to visit destinations during holidays or vacations, contributing to the expansion of the domestic tourism economy.
- Demonstrating proactive support for fellow citizens involved in domestic tourism or dependent on it.

In the context of emerging tourism destinations, the importance of studying tourism ethnocentrism has emerged to overcome the prevailing colonialist notion and perception that non-westerners are non-travelers, passive beneficiaries through pro-poor tourism programs, etc. (Stone and Nyaupane, 2020). However, despite the unwavering importance of tourism ethnocentrism, recent literature, such as Lever *et al.* (2022); Todorović *et al.* (2023), accentuates that tourism ethnocentrism emerges as a relatively new concept, and its relationship with related constructs is in its infancy, with most of them remaining unexamined in the limited existing literature. This implies that the drivers of tourism ethnocentrism have not been well understood (Amani, 2023a), and hence DMOs in the majority of tourism destinations, mainly in emerging tourism destinations, have continued to treat local residents as merely hosts and passive beneficiaries (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). Hence, local residents are often misrepresented when determining the development of the domestic tourism economy in their respective tourism destinations (Stone and Nyaupane, 2020).

It is widely accepted that the misrepresentation of local residents is an indication that the tourism sector will continue to suffer for a long time because local residents cannot appreciate its social and economic benefits (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), in its agenda for promoting tourism and the Sustainable Development Goals – Journey to 2030, indicates that local residents' support for tourism can be achieved when the tourism sector incorporates SDGs to ensure that it becomes more responsible and accountable for improving the lives and well-being of local residents (UNWTO, 2017a). This implies that to promote significant support for the domestic tourism economy, all key stakeholders, including local residents, should work together toward socially responsible activities (Gursoy *et al.*, 2019), which are considered as part of destination social responsibility (Su *et al.*, 2018). Destination social responsibility refers to the collective ideology and integrated efforts of various stakeholders in the tourism destination to engage in socially responsible activities or fulfill societal obligations according to local community standards (Su *et al.*, 2020). Existing studies in inclusive tourism development indicate that tourism ethnocentrism can be motivated by the responsible behavior of DMOs, although empirical investigation of the relationship between them is scarce. Previous research has predominantly focused on developed economies and has solely investigated the antecedents and consequences of tourism ethnocentrism (Kock *et al.*, 2019). For instance,

Lever *et al.* (2022) observed that identification is a crucial driver of tourism ethnocentrism, while their study suggests that tourism ethnocentrism significantly influences destination advocacy. Additionally, Kock *et al.* (2019) revealed the role of tourism ethnocentrism in encouraging residents' behaviors, such as supporting tourism and displaying welcoming behavior toward tourists.

Numerous studies in emerging tourism destinations have revealed the reasons for a lower level of tourism ethnocentrism among local residents (Amani and Chao, 2023). This includes low tourism knowledge (Joo *et al.*, 2020), lack of ownership (Zhang and Xu, 2019), low empowerment, inequitable distribution of power and control (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022), and low benefits (Amani and Chao, 2023; Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). However, local residents can be encouraged to support domestic tourism through environmental cues that signify the promised symbolic benefits to social and economic development such as social responsibility (Amani and Chao, 2023; Mbaiwa, 2017). This sentiment aligns with the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm, which suggests that positive behavior is developed when individuals are exposed to external environmental cues that hold meaning in their social settings. The increasing need to understand the factors driving support for domestic tourism among local residents in emerging tourism destinations has drawn the attention of scholars in the tourism domain. For instance, a study by Amani and Chao (2023) revealed that when local residents are involved in the management of tourism destinations, they can contribute to destination branding and garner support. Furthermore, Sirakaya *et al.* (2002) suggest that attitudes toward the tourism sector can motivate residents to support tourism development. Additionally, Neuts *et al.* (2021) found that the perceived positive impacts of tourism have a positive relationship with support for tourism. Huong and Lee (2017) argue that social and environmental impacts from tourism play a crucial role in influencing local residents' support and participation in the tourism industry. Ganji *et al.* (2021) suggest that place attachment influences support for further tourism development.

Despite various studies that examine the concept of resident support for tourism development, little has been done on the antecedents of tourism ethnocentrism in developing contexts. Given the unique nature of the concept of tourism ethnocentrism in the field of support for the tourism sector, Josiassen *et al.* (2022), Lever *et al.* (2022) suggests that more studies need to be conducted to investigate its antecedents and consequences in the tourism sector. Additionally, considering the importance of socially responsible practices in realizing sustainable tourism development, it is essential to examine the contribution of social responsibility in promoting various positive behaviors of local residents toward supporting inclusive tourism development (Amani and Chao, 2023). However, there is limited evidence in the literature regarding the role of destination social responsibility in the context of tourism ethnocentrism in developing tourism destinations. Thus, this study advances insights into the role of destination social responsibility in promoting support for tourism while focusing on local residents' intentions to visit local tourist attractions, spend holidays within the tourism destination, and promote local tourism destinations (Kock *et al.*, 2019; Lever *et al.*, 2022). This kind of interplay between destination social responsibility, destination psychological ownership, and tourism ethnocentrism has not been conceptualized and tested by past studies in tourism support with a focus on local residents' dominant logic. This study employs the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm to establish a theoretical basis that when local residents are exposed to social destination responsibility practices, they perceive these practices as stimuli that hold special meaning in their lives. Consequently, this leads to a demonstration of tourism ethnocentrism as a response.

## Literature review and development of hypotheses

### *Stimulus-Organism-Response paradigm*

The stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm, originally developed by [Mehrabian and Russell \(1974\)](#), offers a theoretical framework for understanding human behavior in relation to external stimuli. According to this paradigm, environmental stimuli trigger specific psychological feelings, which in turn result in responses in the form of observable behaviors ([Elsharnouby et al., 2021](#)). This implies that observable behavior is a response influenced by an individual's cognitive and emotional ability to attribute meaning to a given environmental stimulus ([Amani, 2023b](#)). The S-O-R paradigm has found extensive application within the hospitality and tourism domain, particularly in conceptualizing the behavior of employees and local residents toward the practices of hospitality organizations and tourism destinations ([Cheng et al., 2020](#)). In the context of the S-O-R paradigm, stimuli refer to external cues capable of eliciting responses ([Perez-Vega et al., 2021](#)). This study examines destination psychological ownership as one such external cue that can evoke observable behavior as a response from local residents. The theory suggests that the organism represents the psychological processes involved, including an individual's capacity to assign meaningful significance to external cues ([Chang, 2016](#)). In this study, the proposition is that destination psychological ownership refers to a sense of possessing a tourism destination, which is driven or fueled by the ethical practices and actions undertaken by that tourism destination. [Deng et al. \(2021\)](#) suggest that psychological ownership is characterized by the emotions linked to possessiveness, specifically the sentiments associated with "mine" and "ours," notably the sensation of "I feel what is mine". Psychological ownership comprises emotional components, such as the satisfaction derived from the sense of possessing or owning an object ([Zhang and Xu, 2019](#)). Various studies, such as those by [Natarajan and Veera Raghavan \(2023\)](#), [Shi et al. \(2022\)](#), [Usman et al. \(2023\)](#), that employed the SOR model have considered psychological ownership as an organism that accelerates responses. Finally, the S-O-R paradigm suggests that response refers to the actions or observable behavior demonstrated by an individual in reaction to the corresponding external cues ([Amani, 2023b](#)). The study posits that tourism ethnocentrism is an observable behavior that focuses on supporting the domestic tourism economy as a response to the ethical practices of the tourism destination.

### *Destination psychological ownership*

Destination psychological ownership is a concept rooted in psychological ownership, which concerns the psychological feelings of possessing an object ([Amani, 2022a](#); [Kumar and Nayak, 2019](#)). The literature on organizational behavior extensively discusses the idea that individuals can develop a sense of possession toward a focal or target object ([Zhang and Xu, 2019](#)). This psychological ownership drives various attitudinal behaviors, such as commitment toward the object ([Kumar and Nayak, 2019](#)). Psychological ownership can fulfill several human psychological needs, including self-identity, a sense of belonging, efficacy, and effectance ([Kuo et al., 2021](#)). According to [Amani \(2022a\)](#), psychological ownership can prompt individuals to express behaviors such as self-identification when the target object is seen as a reflection of their self-identity or self-image. Research suggests that psychological ownership differs from other ownership categories in several ways ([Zhang and Xu, 2019](#)). Firstly, psychological ownership involves subjective feelings toward the target object, stimulating a positive experience for the individual, even without legal ownership. Secondly, the essence of psychological ownership lies in the sense of possession of the target object. Finally, psychological ownership comprises both affective and cognitive states, with the affective state encompassing pleasure toward the target object and the

cognitive state encompassing beliefs held by the individual toward the target object. [Amani \(2022a\)](#); [Zhang and Xu \(2019\)](#) propose several routes through which individuals develop psychological ownership:

- an individual is likely to presume that the target object under their control is an extension of themselves, thus fostering a sense of possession;
- a strong and intimate relationship with the target object can contribute to the development of ownership feelings; and
- dedicating resources such as time, physical and mental efforts, psychic energy, and financial investment toward the target object can enhance the sense of ownership.

After extensive research in the organizational domain, psychological ownership has gained acceptance in various fields, including marketing, hospitality management, and tourism management, offering significant explanatory power ([Mishra et al., 2022](#)). Studies in the tourism sector indicate that both tourists and local residents can develop psychological ownership toward a tourism destination ([Amani, 2022a](#); [Mishra et al., 2022](#)). When considering local residents as subjects and the tourism destination as a focal or target object, destination psychological ownership refers to the psychological state in which local residents cultivate a sense of possession toward the tourism destination ([Kumar and Nayak, 2019](#); [Zhang and Xu, 2019](#)). Promoting inclusive tourism development, it is argued that local residents are essential stakeholders who should develop a sense of ownership toward the destination. According to [Zhang and Xu \(2019\)](#), local residents develop destination psychological ownership through several avenues:

- They become familiar with the tourism destination due to their residency or extended stays, fostering a close relationship between the residents and the tourism site, ultimately leading to a sense of possession.
- Local residents feel a sense of obligation to contribute to the development of the tourism destination by participating in decision-making processes, engaging in advocacy, and providing positive recommendations, thereby increasing their control over the tourism site.
- Through their active involvement in destination-related decisions, local residents invest various resources, such as time, finances, physical and mental efforts, and psychic energy, thus further reinforcing their sense of destination ownership.

Ultimately, destination psychological ownership can motivate local residents to exhibit citizenship behaviors aimed at protecting and promoting the tourism destination ([Xu et al., 2023](#); [Yao et al., 2023](#)).

#### *Destination social responsibility*

Destination social responsibility (DSR) has evolved from corporate social responsibility (CSR), signifying a business's commitment to enhancing the welfare of local communities through ethical practices and contributions ([Su et al., 2018](#); [Zhang et al., 2022](#)). CSR encourages corporations to prioritize societal well-being alongside profitability ([Amani, 2022b](#)). In the context of tourism, there is growing recognition of the importance of CSR due to the dependence of emerging tourism destinations on their environmental and cultural resources ([Agapito et al., 2023](#); [Lee et al., 2021a](#); [Su et al., 2020](#)). However, existing literature primarily focuses on CSR at the business level, with limited exploration of CSR practices within entire tourism destinations ([Su et al., 2018](#)). It remains unclear how CSR practices at the tourism destination level impact local communities ([Lee et al., 2021a](#); [Su](#)

*et al.*, 2018, 2020). Therefore, DSR refers to the shared ideology and collaborative efforts of various stakeholders in a tourism destination to engage in socially responsible activities that align with the acceptable standards of the local community (Hassan and Soliman, 2021; Su *et al.*, 2020). DSR encompasses the collective actions of stakeholders aiming to safeguard and enhance the social and environmental interests of the entire tourism destination (Hassan and Soliman, 2021). With both private and public stakeholders involved, inclusive tourism development necessitates aligning overlapping interests. Local residents, in particular, play a critical role as stakeholders who experience direct benefits or losses resulting from tourism development initiatives (Amani and Chao, 2023; Azinuddin *et al.*, 2022). Compared to other stakeholder groups, local residents are most significantly affected by these initiatives. Recognizing this, Su *et al.* (2020) identifies four major areas of DSR activities: stakeholder responsibility, social responsibility, voluntariness responsibility, environmental responsibility, and economic responsibility.

#### *Destination social responsibility-stakeholder dimension*

The tourism sector comprises multiple stakeholders with diverse interests (Anderson and Sanga, 2019). To ensure responsible and sustainable tourism, tourism destinations must consider the impact of their actions and practices on others by establishing and nurturing relationships while safeguarding the rights and interests of stakeholders (Azinuddin *et al.*, 2022). Among these stakeholders, local residents hold significant importance and possess unique interests in the tourism sector (Su *et al.*, 2018). Literature suggests that local residents play a crucial role in promoting inclusive tourism development. Inclusive tourism development entails involving and engaging local residents as key participants in the growth of the tourism sector (Uchinaka *et al.*, 2019; Wassler and Hung, 2017). Recent research in the field of tourism emphasizes treating local residents as active beneficiaries of the tourism sector, involving them in the process of enhancing the value of the tourism ecosystem (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). Tourism destinations should create favorable environments that enable local residents to actively participate in inclusive tourism development as investors and co-investors (Yang *et al.*, 2021). Various literature indicates that when local residents are engaged as stakeholders in inclusive tourism development, they become more responsible and accountable to their respective tourism destinations (Amani, 2022c; Yang *et al.*, 2021). Hence, tourism destinations should empower local residents to participate in tourism activities as investors, fostering their commitment and support for the domestic tourism economy (Wassler *et al.*, 2021). Research in pro-poor tourism advocates for creating and expanding opportunities for local residents to benefit from investments in the tourism sector, thereby promoting sustainable tourism (Musavengane *et al.*, 2019). Based on the above explanation, this study proposes the hypotheses that:

H1. DSR-stakeholder influences destination psychological ownership.

H1a. DSR-stakeholder influences tourism ethnocentrism.

#### *Destination social responsibility-social dimension*

In the early stages of tourism sector development, many local communities in emerging tourist destinations were initially opposed to such development due to concerns about its negative impact on social aspects (Lwoga, 2013; Nelson, 2012). The intercultural exchange between local communities and tourists in the tourism sector was seen as potentially transformative to the traditional ways of life in these communities (Amani and Chao, 2021;

Kinyondo and Pelizzo, 2015). Consequently, the tourism sector was perceived to have a detrimental effect on the social values and norms of the majority of local communities in emerging tourist destinations (Kinyondo and Pelizzo, 2015). Despite some notable improvements in safeguarding the social aspects of local communities, a significant majority still holds the belief that the tourism sector is responsible for socio-cultural changes that are not aligned with their interests (Kinyondo and Pelizzo, 2015; Lwoga, 2013). This negative perception has contributed to an unfavorable attitude toward the tourism sector and a lack of support from these local communities (Salazar, 2008; Snyman, 2014). Recent literature highlights the importance of integrating the social dimension into tourism activities to achieve inclusive tourism development. Social dimensions are recognized as essential components of tourism products that have positively transformed the attitudes and perceptions of the tourism sector among the majority of local communities in emerging tourist destinations (Amani and Chao, 2023). Emphasizing social responsibility, tourism destinations are encouraged to provide benefits to society, significantly impacting the local community (George, 2017). This entails the readiness and willingness of tourism destinations to address social needs and consistently contribute to community development (Su *et al.*, 2017, 2020). The ongoing efforts to incorporate social values as a component of tourism products have naturally fostered a sense of ownership among the tourism destinations and encouraged local residents to actively participate in promoting domestic tourism (Amani, 2022a). Based on the aforementioned explanation, the following propositions are put forth:

H2. DSR-social influences destination psychological ownership.

H2a. DSR-social influences tourism ethnocentrism.

#### *Destination social responsibility-voluntariness dimension*

In the context of destination social responsibility, a tourism destination is viewed as an integral part of society, playing a specific role in ensuring social well-being and welfare (Lee *et al.*, 2021a; Su *et al.*, 2020). Voluntariness refers to the activities undertaken by a tourism destination to utilize its resources in order to enhance the local areas comprising the tourism destination (Manthé and Bilgihan, 2023; Su *et al.*, 2020). Within the framework of destination social responsibility, voluntariness focuses on encouraging tourism destinations to engage in morally right actions, even when not obligatory, by proactively exceeding imposed standards or rules (Azinuddin *et al.*, 2022). Tourism destinations, together with their DMOs, are expected to function as societal members by actively participating in empowering local communities to achieve social and economic development (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Research in the field of pro-poor tourism emphasizes voluntariness as a philosophy embraced by communities seeking to enhance the current social status by creating and delivering value to local communities. DSR-voluntariness encompasses activities undertaken by tourism destinations, such as making voluntary charitable contributions, to support members of local communities (Nasr *et al.*, 2022; Su *et al.*, 2020). Research in the field of destination social responsibility indicates that charitable contributions, as a form of voluntariness, aim to bridge the gap between tourism destinations and local communities, fostering feelings of commitment and support for the tourism sector (Nasr *et al.*, 2022). DSR voluntariness represents a philanthropic responsibility that involves donating a portion of tourism destinations' earnings to worthy causes within local communities (Manthé and Bilgihan, 2023). Local residents and other stakeholders are exerting pressure on tourism destinations to be socially responsible and accountable by participating in charitable

contributions, which can strengthen the relationship between local communities and the tourism destination (Agapito *et al.*, 2023). This demonstrates the commitment of tourism destinations to society and their recognition of the significant contributions made by local communities toward the development of the tourism sector (Su *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, the aforementioned explanation leads to the development of the hypotheses that:

- H3. DSR-voluntariness influence destination psychological ownership.  
H3a. DSR-voluntariness influences tourism ethnocentrism.

*Destination social responsibility-environmental dimension*

Recently, there has been a growing emphasis on promoting environmentally friendly practices and actions in tourism activities, leading to the emergence of green tourism and sustainable tourism (Kyara *et al.*, 2022; Lee *et al.*, 2021b). The goal is to protect available natural resources for sustainable development (Manthé and Bilgihan, 2023; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Stakeholders expect tourism destinations to engage in practices that protect the environment and provide considerable benefits, thereby promoting sustainable development (Su *et al.*, 2017). Evidence indicates that a majority of stakeholders, including local residents, are aware of the importance of environmentally friendly practices (Nasr *et al.*, 2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). As a result, they are putting more pressure on tourism destinations to adopt significant measures to promote green tourism and sustainable tourism (Al-Sakkaf *et al.*, 2022; Kyara *et al.*, 2022). In emerging tourism destinations where the tourism sector heavily relies on natural resources, environmentally friendly practices are crucial for building a positive attitude and garnering support for the sector (Lee *et al.*, 2021b). Research has shown that socially responsible tourism destinations, which promote environmentally friendly practices and actions, are likely to foster a positive attitude and perception among environmentally conscious stakeholders (Lee *et al.*, 2021b). Therefore, tourism destinations, through DMOs, should demonstrate social responsibility and accountability by implementing strategic measures and actions that ensure tourism activities contribute to the protection rather than the destruction of the environment (Hu *et al.*, 2019; Nasr *et al.*, 2022). Consequently, the above explanation leads to the development of the following hypotheses:

- H4. DSR-environmental influences destination psychological ownership.  
H4a. DSR-environmental influences tourism ethnocentrism.

*Destination social responsibility-economic dimension*

There has been an ongoing outcry in the majority of emerging tourism destinations, as it is widely believed that the tourism sector has not significantly contributed to fostering the economic development of local communities (Hafidh and Rashid, 2021; Nelson, 2012). According to Su *et al.* (2020), a tourism destination should fulfill its economic responsibilities by providing positive direct and indirect economic impacts on the community and other stakeholders. Numerous studies in the pro-poor tourism literature indicate that, although many emerging tourism destinations possess the potential for tourism development, the tourism sector's contribution to the local communities' economy remains insignificant (Amani and Chao, 2023; Hafidh and Rashid, 2021; Lwoga, 2013). The tourism sector in these tourism destinations heavily relies on the natural resources found in the localities. However, evidence suggests that the majority of local communities residing near these natural tourist attractions have not experienced the economic benefits of tourism in their areas (Meyer and Meyer, 2015; Ramaano, 2022). This situation has given rise to various challenges for

inclusive tourism development, including negative attitudes and perceptions toward the tourism sector. Inclusive tourism development narratives suggest that when a tourism destination significantly contributes to the economy at the individual and country levels, it is more likely to promote support for the tourism economy (Ramaano, 2022). Therefore, tourism destinations, through their respective DMOs, should ensure that the tourism sector creates both direct and indirect employment opportunities, fosters investment, and makes substantive contributions to the economic well-being of local communities in the tourism destination (Hafidh and Rashid, 2021). Consequently, the aforementioned explanation gives rise to the development of the hypotheses that:

H5. DSR-economic influence destination psychological ownership.

H5a. DSR-environmental influences tourism ethnocentrism.

### *Tourism ethnocentrism*

Ethnocentrism, rooted in sociology and psychology, refers to an individual's psychological inclination to perceive their in-group as superior and as the standard against which out-groups are judged (Cardador *et al.*, 2023; Hammond and Axelrod, 2006; Lever *et al.*, 2022; Xiaolong *et al.*, 2023). This perspective is limited to one's own in-group and is believed to be both the standard and the correct viewpoint (Lever *et al.*, 2022). Ethnocentrism has extended into the marketing domain, leading to the concept of consumer ethnocentrism (Kock *et al.*, 2019). Consumer ethnocentrism encourages local consumers to consider domestic products superior to foreign-made ones (Wel *et al.*, 2018). It encompasses notions of responsibility and morality in supporting domestic products and the domestic economy. In the context of a competitive global market, consumer ethnocentrism is seen as a strategic tool for safeguarding a country's social and economic interests by promoting domestic consumption (Kock *et al.*, 2019). It offers an alternative approach to complement strict laws and regulations, such as tax embargoes, which have had limited success in many countries (Kibret and Shukla, 2021). Consequently, consumer ethnocentrism aims to instill a patriotic mindset among consumers, emphasizing the importance of supporting the domestic economy through the purchase and consumption of domestic products (Stepchenkova, 2023). Research on consumer ethnocentrism suggests that ethnocentric consumers exhibit a reluctance to purchase foreign-made products due to their sense of patriotism toward their home country and its economy (Josiasen *et al.*, 2022; Kock *et al.*, 2019). These consumers firmly believe that buying foreign-made products is an unpatriotic act that should be discouraged among those who love their home country (Ismail, 2022). They are empowered and persuaded to view their home country, as well as its products, as superior to those of any other nation worldwide.

Tourism ethnocentrism is a newly emerging concept that highlights the presence of positive in-group biases within the realm of tourism (Kock *et al.*, 2019; Lever *et al.*, 2022; Rybina, 2021). It encompasses a preference for one's own nation and is manifested through personal beliefs and perceived moral obligations to contribute to the growth of the domestic tourism economy (Gedecho *et al.*, 2023; Kock *et al.*, 2019). This support for domestic tourism is characterized by a willingness to recommend domestic tourism, engage in tourism development, and travel within the destination (Gyimothy *et al.*, 2022; Kock *et al.*, 2019; Lever *et al.*, 2022). Tourism ethnocentrism is distinct from other forms of support for the domestic tourism economy due to its emphasis on establishing differences between "us" and "them," recognizing the significance of traveling within the home destination, and developing a sense of responsibility toward supporting local residents dependent on the

domestic tourism economy (Bremser and Abraham, 2022; Xiaolong *et al.*, 2023). Although its relationship with other tourism concepts is still being explored in the nascent literature (Lever *et al.*, 2022), preliminary findings suggest that tourism ethnocentrism can lead to positive recommendations and advocacy behavior from both tourists and local residents (Boukamba *et al.*, 2021; Rybina, 2021). Ethnocentric tourists are motivated to establish a close connection with the tourism destination and domestic tourism economy, encouraging other in-group members to support their country's tourism industry (Bremser and Abraham, 2022; Cardador *et al.*, 2023; Stepchenkova, 2023; Todorović *et al.*, 2023; Xiaolong *et al.*, 2023). Thus, tourism ethnocentrism acts as a symbolic motive for travel, motivating tourists to decide to support tourism destinations and the domestic tourism economy (Rybina, 2021; Todorović *et al.*, 2023). This understanding leads to the development of the following hypotheses:

- H6.* Destination psychological ownership influence tourism ethnocentrism.
- H7a.* Destination psychological ownership mediate the relationship between DSR-stakeholder and tourism ethnocentrism
- H7b.* Destination psychological ownership mediate the relationship between DSR-social and tourism ethnocentrism.
- H7c.* Destination psychological ownership mediate the relationship between DSR-voluntariness and tourism ethnocentrism.
- H7d.* Destination psychological ownership mediate the relationship between DSR-environmental and tourism ethnocentrism
- H7e.* Destination psychological ownership mediate the relationship between DSR-economic and tourism ethnocentrism.

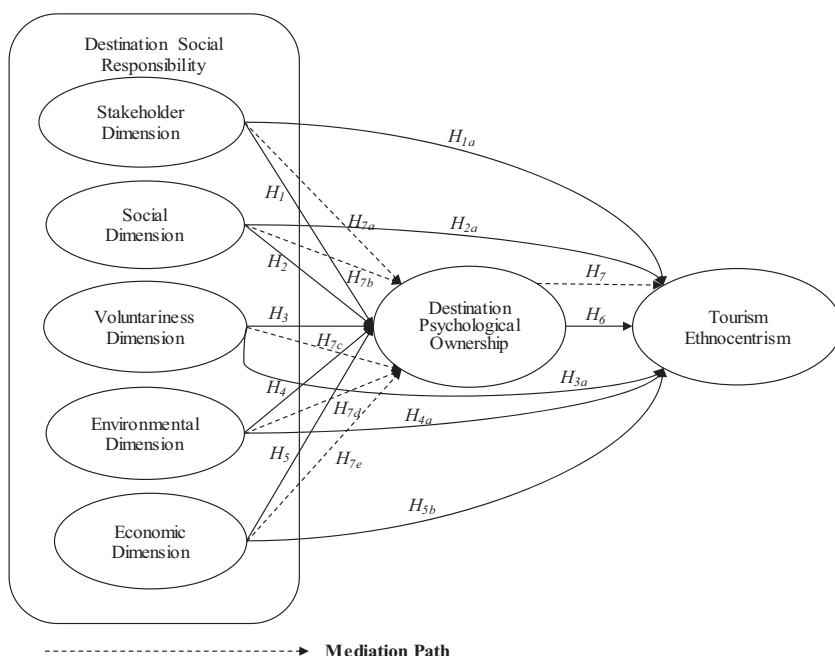
### Research model

The research model depicted in [Figure 1](#) summarizes the hypotheses formulated in this study. The model was developed using the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) paradigm, which suggests that observable behavior results from environmental cues acquiring significant meaning in a specific social context. By utilizing the S-O-R paradigm as a theoretical framework, this study posits that destination psychological ownership (stimulus) functions as environmental cues that can be converted into meaningful psychological ownership of the tourism destination (organism). Ultimately, this leads to observable behavior, specifically, tourism ethnocentrism (response).

### Methodology

#### *Study setting and research design*

The study was conducted in Dodoma, the capital city of Tanzania. The Dodoma region is rapidly emerging as a tourist hub in Tanzania, offering diverse opportunities for medical tourism, meeting tourism, and nature-based tourism [United Republic of Tanzania (URT), 2019]. The Dodoma region is strategically located, facilitating the creation of tourism itineraries that connect the popular northern tourism circuit with other emerging circuits, primarily the southern circuit (URT, 2019). Furthermore, existing literature focusing on tourism destinations in developing countries emphasizes that current efforts to promote the tourism sector in the region should be more inclusive and participatory to ensure sustainable tourism development (Amani and Chao, 2023). This implies that there is room to



Source: Author

Figure 1.  
Research model

examine the drivers that can foster local residents' support for domestic tourism in the region. Past studies indicate that the development of tourism in Tanzania has been hindered by the low involvement of local residents, resulting in minimal support for the tourism sector (Amani, 2023c).

Additionally, the Dodoma region boasts a wealth of potential resources for nature-based tourism, including the Swagaswaga Game Reserve, home to unique species in sub-Saharan Africa (Athumani *et al.*, 2023; Nyakeko and Nyahongo, 2020). Moreover, the region is blessed with the Mkungunero Game Reserve, which is part of the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem (Foley and Foley, 2022; John *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, the region is home to the Kondoa rock art, a UNESCO World Heritage Site in Tanzania renowned for its rock paintings discovered by archaeologists (Bwasiri and Smith, 2015; Tryon *et al.*, 2018). The study utilized a quantitative cross-sectional survey design, a research method that involves collecting data from a sample population at a specific point in time (Zikmund *et al.*, 2009). This method employs structured questionnaires or surveys to gather information on various variables of interest, aiming to provide a snapshot of the population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Statistical techniques are often employed to collect and analyze data, enabling quantitative insights into the topic under investigation.

#### Sampling design and data collection procedures

The study employed convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, with a sample size of 415 respondents. Convenience sampling is commonly utilized in quantitative studies to gather data from an easily accessible and readily available population (Zikmund, 2003). The sample was drawn from high-traffic areas, including academic institutions,

shopping malls, and entertainment centers, targeting local residents aged 18 and above in the Dodoma region during the study period. Prior to participation, respondents were required to provide consent and were given a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire underwent pilot testing by tourism experts to ensure the measurement items adequately captured their respective constructs. Feedback from the experts was utilized to enhance clarity and eliminate any ambiguities in the questionnaire through rewording. The improved questionnaire was then distributed to respondents who expressed readiness to participate. A total of 450 questionnaires were distributed, resulting in a response rate of 92.2%, with 415 completed questionnaires returned. Data collection was conducted between January 2023 and March 2023.

#### *Measurement scales and development of questionnaire*

The study utilized previously validated scales from prior research in the field of tourism. To address the limitations of relying on a single item for assessing constructs in social research, the study employed multiple measurement items. Churchill (1979) argued that a single item is too narrow and may fail to capture all the characteristics of a variable, potentially leading to significant measurement errors. Following the recommended criteria, all variables in the study were measured using a minimum of three indicators, as depicted in Table 1. Five dimensions namely, stakeholder dimension (3 items), social dimension (4 items), voluntariness dimension (3 items), environmental dimension (4 items), and economic dimension (4 items), based on Su *et al.* (2020) were used to evaluate destination social responsibility. Measurement items from Amani (2022a) and Zhang and Xu (2019) were employed to assess destination psychological ownership (4 items), while measurement items from Kock *et al.* (2019) and Lever *et al.* (2022) were used to measure tourism ethnocentrism (5 items). All variables were assessed using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Additionally, semantic differential questions or scales were used to capture all variables.

### **Data analysis and results**

#### *Common method bias*

Common method bias (CMB) is a phenomenon where the variability observed in measurements is primarily influenced by the measurement technique used, rather than the underlying constructs being measured (Fuller *et al.*, 2016). In social science studies employing a cross-sectional research design and self-administered questionnaires, CMB poses a significant challenge. To address this issue, various steps were taken during the instrument development process. The language used in the questionnaire was carefully chosen to avoid ambiguity and multiple interpretations. Furthermore, pretesting was conducted to refine the instrument and improve the clarity of measurement items. Additionally, Harman's single-factor test was employed to assess statistical measures, specifically examining whether the variance explained by a single factor across all observed items exceeded 50% (Podasakoff *et al.*, 2003). The results of the test indicated that the explained variance fell 27.8% below the predetermined threshold, indicating the absence of common method biases that could impact the study.

#### *Measurement model test*

The measurement model underwent confirmatory factor analysis to assess its reliability and validity. The results showed that  $\chi^2 = 596.291$ ,  $df = 302$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.974$ , which was below the recommended criterion of 3 by Hooper *et al.* (2008). Other model fit statistics were examined, including a goodness-of-fit index (GFI) of 0.905, comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.951, Tucker-

| Item                                       | Statements  | Mean  | SD    | Loadings | CR    | $\alpha$ |
|--|---|-------|-------|----------|-------|----------|
| <i>Stakeholder dimension</i>               |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| shr1                                       | The destination interacts appropriately with any group or person affected by its actions        | 4.193 | 0.802 | 0.837    | 0.859 | 0.855    |
| shr2                                       | The destination guarantees the rights and interests of those invested in destination activities | 3.925 | 0.971 | 0.873    |       |          |
| shr3                                       | The destination is good to anyone impacted by the success or failure of the destination         | 4.082 | 0.864 | 0.741    |       |          |
| <i>Social dimension</i>                    |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| sc1  | The destination contributes to the positive development of society                              | 3.378 | 1.223 | 0.791    | 0.889 | 0.884    |
| sc2  | The destination pays attention to social benefits   | 3.703 | 0.998 | 0.772    |       |          |
| sc3  | The destination gives full consideration to its impact on the community                         | 3.559 | 1.054 | 0.887    |       |          |
| sc4  | The destination protects the traditional culture of the community                               | 3.692 | 0.943 | 0.811    |       |          |
| <i>Voluntariness dimension</i>             |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| vts1                                       | The destination's actions are based on good ethical values                                      | 4.116 | 0.925 | 0.773    | 0.836 | 0.827    |
| vts2                                       | The destination makes sufficient monetary contributions to charities and society voluntarily    | 3.935 | 0.996 | 0.868    |       |          |
| vts3                                       | The destination's actions go beyond its legal obligations                                       | 3.496 | 1.100 | 0.734    |       |          |
| <i>Environmental dimension</i>             |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| em1  | The destination implements special programs to minimize any negative impact on the environment  | 4.607 | 0.689 | 0.736    | 0.857 | 0.850    |
| em2  | The destination is concerned about environmental issues   | 4.539 | 0.669 | 0.792    |       |          |
| em3  | The destination implements environmentally responsible actions                                  | 4.476 | 0.523 | 0.815    |       |          |
| em4  | The destination makes investments to avoid environmental degradation                            | 4.528 | 0.698 | 0.754    |       |          |
| <i>Economic dimension</i>                  |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| ecm1                                       | The destination positively contributes to economic development                                  | 4.031 | 0.981 | 0.717    | 0.839 | 0.839    |
| ecm2                                       | The destination cooperates with others on social responsibility projects                        | 4.007 | 0.969 | 0.797    |       |          |
| ecm3                                       | The destination creates a stronger tax base   | 4.239 | 0.972 | 0.756    |       |          |
| ecm4                                       | The destination generates good profitability  | 4.098 | 0.977 | 0.737    |       |          |
| <i>Destination psychological ownership</i> |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| dsol                                       | I sense that the destination is mine  | 4.607 | 0.704 | 0.831    | 0.899 | 0.890    |
| dsol2                                      | I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for the destination                             | 4.513 | 0.680 | 0.821    |       |          |

(continued)

**Table 1.**  
Results of  
measurement model  
test

Table 1.

| Item                         | Statements  | Mean  | SD    | Loadings | CR    | $\alpha$ |
|------------------------------|---|-------|-------|----------|-------|----------|
| dso3                         | I sense that the work I do as part of building the destination is mine  | 4.552 | 0.696 | 0.816    |       |          |
| dso4                         | It is easy for me to think about the destination as mine  | 4.537 | 0.676 | 0.854    |       |          |
| <i>Tourism ethnocentrism</i> |   |       |       |          |       |          |
| tem1                         | Tanzanians should support the Tanzania economy by travelling to holiday destinations in Tanzania                    | 3.981 | 0.911 | 0.713    | 0.876 | 0.874    |
| tem2                         | Everyone should support the Tanzania economy by spending their holiday in Tanzania                                  | 4.043 | 0.942 | 0.779    |       |          |
| tem3                         | Tanzanians should spend their holiday in Tanzania because this secures jobs in the Tanzanian tourism industry       | 4.157 | 0.852 | 0.816    |       |          |
| tem4                         | Tanzanians should feel a duty and responsibility to travel within Tanzania on national holiday                      | 4.058 | 0.846 | 0.741    |       |          |
| tem5                         | Every time a Tanzanian decides to spend their holiday in Tanzania, it makes Tanzania's future a little bit brighter | 4.108 | 0.849 | 0.776    |       |          |

**Source:** Data Analysis

Lewis index (TLI) of 0.943, and normed fit index (NFI) of 0.906. These values surpassed the recommended threshold of 0.9 by Bollen (1989), Hu and Bentler (1999). Additionally, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was found to be 0.049, below the recommended criterion of 0.08 by Hu and Bentler (1999). Furthermore, the psychometric properties of the model, such as reliability and validity, were evaluated using composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), factor loadings ( $\lambda$ ), and Cronbach's alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ). As shown in Table 2, the composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha coefficient values for all latent variables exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.7 by Cronbach (1951) and Said *et al.* (2011), indicating acceptable reliability. As shown in Table 1, the factor loadings of latent indicators were also higher than the recommended criterion of 0.7 by Hu and Bentler (1999), and as indicated in Table 2, the average variance extracted for all variables surpassed the threshold of 0.5 suggested by Valentini *et al.* (2016), demonstrating good convergent validity. To achieve discriminant validity, as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the square root of AVE should be greater than the inter-construct correlations among the constructs and other constructs in the model. The results in Table 2 met this criterion, indicating good discriminant validity.

*Structural model test and hypotheses testing*

The study employed AMOS 21 and structural equation modeling to evaluate the structural model and test the proposed hypotheses. The structural model exhibited satisfactory fit statistics:  $\chi^2 = 773.293$ ,  $df = 312$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.479$ , which fell below the recommended criterion of 3 (Hooper *et al.*, 2008). Additionally, GFI = 0.9, CFI = 0.923, TLI = 0.914, NFI = 0.9, exceeding the recommended criterion of 0.9 by McDonald and Ho (2002) and RMSEA = 0.060, below the recommended criterion of 0.08 by Hu and Bentler (1999). The results, presented in Table 3, provided evidence supporting all hypotheses based on standardized path coefficients, *t*-statistics, and *p*-values.  $H_1$  examined the relationship between the stakeholder dimension and destination psychological ownership, which received support ( $\beta = 0.101$ , *t*-values = 2.810, *p*-value < 0.05). In addition,  $H_{1a}$ , which tested the impact of the stakeholder dimension on tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.230$ , *t*-values = 5.232, *p*-value < 0.05). The findings suggest that an increase in DMOs' efforts to fortify strategies for safeguarding stakeholders' interests by one unit may lead to an 10.1% rise in destination psychological ownership among key stakeholders, such as local residents. Furthermore, increasing stakeholder engagement by one unit may lead to a 23% increase in the level of support for domestic tourism.  $H_2$  proposed a positive relationship between the social dimension and destination psychological ownership, and the results confirmed this hypothesis ( $\beta = 0.135$ , *t*-values = 3.926, *p*-value < 0.001). In addition,  $H_{2a}$ , which tested the impact of the social dimension on tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.153$ , *t*-values = 9.860, *p*-value < 0.001). The results imply that a one-unit

|        | AVE   | MaxR(H) | 1     | 2     | 3     | 4     | 5     | 6     | 7     |
|--------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. shr | 0.671 | 0.871   | 0.819 |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 2. scl | 0.667 | 0.898   | 0.246 | 0.816 |       |       |       |       |       |
| 3. vts | 0.630 | 0.851   | 0.373 | 0.255 | 0.794 |       |       |       |       |
| 4. eml | 0.600 | 0.860   | 0.108 | 0.141 | 0.322 | 0.775 |       |       |       |
| 5. emc | 0.566 | 0.842   | 0.194 | 0.229 | 0.333 | 0.350 | 0.752 |       |       |
| 6. dso | 0.690 | 0.900   | 0.256 | 0.303 | 0.336 | 0.556 | 0.344 | 0.831 |       |
| 7. tem | 0.586 | 0.880   | 0.430 | 0.275 | 0.406 | 0.231 | 0.233 | 0.521 | 0.766 |

**Table 2.**  
Discriminant validity  
using Fornell-  
Larcker criterion

Source: Data Analysis

| Hypotheses   | Path model  | Standardized estimates | Standard error | t-statistics | Decisions (S/NS) |
|--------------|---|------------------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|
| Hypothesis1  | Stakeholder → destination<br>Psychological ownership              | 0.101                  | 0.036          | 2.810**      | Supported        |
| Hypothesis1a | Stakeholder → tourism<br>ethnocentrism                            | 0.230                  | 0.044          | 5.232**      | Supported        |
| Hypothesis2  | Social → destination<br>Psychological ownership                   | 0.135                  | 0.034          | 3.926***     | Supported        |
| Hypothesis2a | Social → tourism<br>ethnocentrism                                 | 0.153                  | 0.015          | 9.860***     | Supported        |
| Hypothesis3  | Voluntariness → destination<br>Psychological ownership            | 0.072                  | 0.033          | 2.158**      | Supported        |
| Hypothesis3a | Voluntariness → tourism<br>ethnocentrism                          | 0.148                  | 0.040          | 3.700***     | Supported        |
| Hypothesis4  | Environmental → destination<br>Psychological ownership            | 0.532                  | 0.061          | 8.747***     | Supported        |
| Hypothesis4a | Environmental → tourism<br>ethnocentrism                          | 0.202                  | 0.042          | 4.824***     | Supported        |
| Hypothesis5  | Economic → destination<br>Psychological ownership                 | 0.099                  | 0.038          | 2.602**      | Supported        |
| Hypothesis5a | Economic → tourism<br>ethnocentrism                               | 0.238                  | 0.033          | 7.193***     | Supported        |
| Hypothesis6  | Destination<br>Psychological ownership →<br>Tourism ethnocentrism | 0.494                  | 0.075          | 6.602***     | Supported        |

**Table 3.**  
Result of structural  
model test and  
hypotheses testing

**Notes:** S = supported, NS = not supported; \*\*\* $p$ -value < 0.001 and \*\* $p$ -value < 0.05  
**Source:** Data Analysis

increase in DMOs' investment in social issues can potentially enhance destination psychological ownership by 13.5%. Furthermore, increasing in DMOs investment in social issues by one unit may lead to a 15.3% increase in the level of support for domestic tourism.

$H_3$  predicted a positive relationship between the voluntariness dimension and destination psychological ownership, which found support ( $\beta = 0.072$ ,  $t$ -values = 2.158,  $p$ -value < 0.05). In addition,  $H_{3a}$ , which tested the impact of the voluntariness dimension on tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.148$ ,  $t$ -values = 3.700,  $p$ -value < 0.001). Statistically, the findings suggest that a one-unit increase in participation in voluntary and charitable activities within a tourism destination can potentially elevate destination psychological ownership by 7.2%. Additionally, increasing in increase in participation in voluntary and charitable activities by one unit may lead to a 14.8% increase in the level of support for domestic tourism. Moreover, the results in Table 3 supported  $H_4$ , indicating the influence of the environmental dimension on destination psychological ownership ( $\beta = 0.532$ ,  $t$ -values = 8.747,  $p$ -value < 0.001). In addition,  $H_{4a}$ , which tested the impact of the environmental dimension on tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.202$ ,  $t$ -values = 4.824,  $p$ -value < 0.001). These findings imply that a one-unit increase in engagement toward improving and promoting environmental issues or consciousness could amplify destination psychological ownership by 53.2%. Additionally, increasing increase in engagement toward improving and promoting environmental issues or consciousness by one unit may lead to a 20.2% increase in the level of support for domestic tourism.

$H_5$  postulated a positive relationship between the economic dimension and destination psychological ownership, a hypothesis that gained support ( $\beta = 0.099$ , t-values = 2.602,  $p$ -value < 0.05). In addition,  $H_{5a}$ , which tested the impact of the economic dimension on tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.238$ , t-values = 7.193,  $p$ -value < 0.001). The results indicate that when a tourism destination increases economic distribution within society by one unit, it could result in a 9.9% upsurge in destination psychological ownership. Moreover, increasing increase economic distribution within society by one unit may lead to a 23.8% increase in the level of support for domestic tourism. Finally, the results ( $\beta = 0.494$ , t-values = 6.602,  $p$ -value < 0.001) presented in Table 3 supported  $H_6$ , which proposed a positive and significant relationship between destination psychological ownership and tourism ethnocentrism. These results suggest that a one-unit increase in destination psychological ownership might potentially elevate the intention to support domestic tourism by nearly 49.4%.

*Mediation models test*

The research model, depicted in Figure 1, suggests that destination social responsibility influences tourism ethnocentrism through the mediating effect of destination psychological ownership. The study hypothesized this mediation effect in  $H_{7a}$ ,  $H_{7b}$ ,  $H_{7c}$ ,  $H_{7d}$ , and  $H_{7e}$ . To test the hypotheses, bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) with 5,000 bootstrap samples were utilized in SPSS version 21 (Hayes, 2022). The choice of this technique is grounded in its frequent recommendation for testing mediation, attributed to its superior statistical power compared to other tests (Chen and Fritz, 2021). Results indicated that a bootstrapping CI entirely above zero suggests the presence of a mediation effect. As shown in Table 4,  $H_{7a}$ , which proposed the mediating role of destination psychological ownership between DSR stakeholders and tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.0878$ ; CI: 0.0446 to 0.1337).  $H_{7b}$ , suggesting that destination psychological ownership mediates the relationship between DSR-social and tourism ethnocentrism, was also supported ( $\beta =$

| Hypotheses | Mediation path  | Path coefficients | Standard error | 95% confidence interval (CI) |          | Decisions (S/NS) |
|------------|---|-------------------|----------------|------------------------------|----------|------------------|
|            |   |                   |                | Lower CI                     | Upper CI |                  |
| $H_{7a}$   | Stakeholder → destination psychological ownership → tourism ethnocentrism   | 0.0878            | 0.0226         | 0.0446                       | 0.1337   | Supported        |
| $H_{7b}$   | Social → destination psychological ownership → tourism ethnocentrism        | 0.0195            | 0.0188         | 0.0568                       | 0.1311   | Supported        |
| $H_{7c}$   | Voluntariness → destination psychological ownership → tourism ethnocentrism | 0.0922            | 0.0235         | 0.0514                       | 0.1441   | Supported        |
| $H_{7d}$   | Environmental → destination psychological ownership → tourism ethnocentrism | 0.3108            | 0.0527         | 0.2158                       | 0.4197   | Supported        |
| $H_{7e}$   | Economic → destination psychological ownership → tourism ethnocentrism      | 0.1204            | 0.0274         | 0.0723                       | 0.1793   | Supported        |

Notes: S = supported; NS = Not Supported  
Source: Data Analysis

**Table 4.**  
Result of mediation models test

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TRC  
5,2

0.0195; CI: 0.0568 to 0.1311).  $H_{7c}$  predicted the mediating role of destination psychological ownership on DSR-voluntariness and tourism ethnocentrism, and the results in [Table 4](#) supported this hypothesis ( $\beta = 0.0922$ ; CI: 0.0514 to 0.1441). Similarly,  $H_{7d}$ , proposing the mediation effect of destination psychological ownership between DSR-environmental and tourism ethnocentrism, was supported ( $\beta = 0.1204$ ; CI: 0.0723 to 0.1793). Furthermore, the results in [Table 4](#) supported  $H_{7e}$ , indicating that destination psychological ownership mediates the relationship between DSR-economic and tourism ethnocentrism ( $\beta = 0.143$ ; CI: 0.076 to 0.219).

### Discussion

This study aims to develop and test a research model that can offer deeper insights into the drivers of tourism ethnocentrism within the perspective of developing tourism destinations. These tourism destinations have faced significant challenges due to the low involvement of local residents in various initiatives aimed at promoting sustainable tourism development. The research model was developed in response to concerns raised by practitioners and scholars regarding the assumption that local residents in emerging tourism destinations have lower levels of tourism ethnocentrism ([Amani and Chao, 2023](#)). The study's goal was to investigate how tourism ethnocentrism can be influenced by destination social responsibility through fostering a sense of psychological ownership of the tourism destination. Thus, the discussion of the findings is anchored in the theoretical proposition that destination social responsibility plays a crucial role in motivating local residents to feel obligated to support the domestic tourism economy through a sense of psychological ownership of the tourism destination. The results indicate that all hypotheses proposed in the conceptual model have been supported. This implies that destination social responsibility is an important driver of tourism ethnocentrism through the mechanism of destination psychological ownership. This suggests that tourism destinations should utilize social responsibility initiatives to promote a sense of ownership among local residents toward the tourism destination ([Liu et al., 2022](#)). Moreover, the findings suggest that when local residents develop a sense of ownership toward the tourism destination, they are also likely to engage in behaviors that support the growth and development of the domestic tourism economy.

Overall, these findings align with previous studies that have demonstrated positive attitudes among local residents when tourism initiatives prioritize the economic well-being of communities ([Su et al., 2017](#)). Additionally, given the current efforts to promote the contribution of tourism to sustainable tourism development, the findings of the study align with The Chengdu Declaration on Tourism and the Sustainable Development Goals by the UNWTO, which promotes destination social responsibility as a strategy for achieving inclusive and sustainable tourism development ([Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022](#); [UNWTO, 2017b](#)). The findings highlight the importance of the DSR-stakeholder dimension in promoting destination psychological ownership as a mechanism for eliciting tourism ethnocentrism. The social responsibility of a tourism destination aims to engage residents as active partners or beneficiaries in the tourism sector who have a stake in the tourism sector and inclusive tourism development ([Wassler et al., 2021](#)). Destination social responsibility initiatives should aim to ensure that local residents feel a sense of ownership toward the tourism destination, which has been confirmed as a driver of various positive attitudes and behaviors, including support for tourism development. This notion is supported by [Amani and Chao \(2023\)](#) and [Swapan et al. \(2022\)](#), suggesting that local residents develop a sense of affiliation with the tourism destination when deliberate measures are taken to ensure that local residents demonstrate active behavior as beneficiaries rather than passive recipients of

the tourism sector. Consequently, the sense of psychological ownership as a mechanism for promoting support for domestic tourism is developed when the rights and interests of those who have a stake in destination activities are guaranteed (Zhang and Xu, 2019).

Moreover, destination social responsibility, which comprises initiatives safeguarding socio-cultural norms and standards, alongside a tourism destination's prioritization of social benefits and resolution of local communities' social issues, plays a crucial role in fostering support for tourism development. The social dimension of DSR enables tourism destinations to demonstrate concern for socio-cultural impacts and establish mechanisms to minimize adverse effects on the socio-cultural aspects of local communities. Investing in social responsibility activities that enhance social benefits, address social issues, and respect local social norms is vital for cultivating a sense of psychological ownership of the tourism destination (Amani, 2022a). These findings align with the perspectives of Ngowi and Jani (2018), emphasizing that positive attitudes toward tourism among local communities are nurtured when tourism activities align with socio-cultural norms and standards. Another factor closely associated with the social dimensions of social responsibility is voluntary and charitable programs. The voluntariness dimension of DSR implies that tourism destinations aim to ensure the tourism sector significantly impacts underprivileged groups in society (Su *et al.*, 2020). To encourage proactive behavior toward sustainable tourism, such as tourism ethnocentrism, DMOs have an obligation to engage in charity programs focused on enhancing the social welfare of local communities (Nasr *et al.*, 2022). The findings indicate that local residents develop a sense of ownership when a tourism destination operates as a socially responsible entity accountable to society. These findings are supported by Al-Sakkaf *et al.* (2022), who proposed that positive attitudes toward the tourism sector can only be fostered when the sector actively contributes to combating extreme poverty in emerging tourism destinations.

Moreover, the findings have revealed that local residents develop a sense of ownership and are likely to support the domestic tourism economy when the tourism sector significantly impacts poverty reduction, promotes individual economic development, and contributes to national economic growth (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022). The limited contribution of the tourism sector to economic development at both individual and national levels has been identified as a reason for the low level of tourism ethnocentrism among local residents (Amani and Chao, 2023; Lwoga, 2013). When a tourism destination implements DSR-economic initiatives that substantially contribute to economic development, there is a higher likelihood of promoting destination psychological ownership as a mechanism for promoting tourism ethnocentrism. These findings also align with the UNWTO, which, in its agenda promoting tourism and the Sustainable Development Goals – Journey to 2030, indicates that local residents' support for tourism can be achieved when the tourism sector incorporates SDGs to ensure the improvement of the lives and well-being of local residents (Amani, 2023c; Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022; UNWTO, 2017b, 2017a). These findings are supported by Zhang and Xu (2019), who assert that tourism destinations should aim to ensure that the tourism sector significantly contributes to the social and economic development of local communities to foster positive attitudes among local residents.

Furthermore, with global efforts to promote sustainable tourism, local residents in various tourism destinations have become more conscious of environmental conservation (Bowen and Sotomayor, 2022; Su *et al.*, 2017). The study's findings suggest that tourism destinations, through DMOs, can cultivate support for the domestic tourism economy by ensuring that tourism activities conserve natural resources in local communities. This can be achieved by emphasizing DSR-environmental initiatives that promote environmental conservation and responsible tourism. Consequently, environmentally conscious local

residents are expected to develop a sense of psychological ownership of tourism destinations that prioritize environmental responsibility (Al-Sakkaf *et al.*, 2022). This implies that local residents perceiving a tourism destination as environmentally responsible are more likely to support the domestic tourism economy while emphasizing sustainable tourism. These findings align with Su *et al.* (2018), who emphasize that environmental issues are often the most significant criteria for stakeholders when deciding which tourism destination should be supported.

### **Theoretical implication**

The study extends the theoretical framework of the S-R-O paradigm, elucidating how external environmental cues influence the cognitive and emotional responses of individuals. It further explores the adaptation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices from organizational behavior to tourism destinations. Utilizing the S-R-O paradigm, the study formulates a theoretical model that encapsulates the perspectives of local residents concerning the social responsibility of tourism destinations. The model scrutinizes the relationship among destination social responsibility (DSR), tourism ethnocentrism, and destination psychological ownership, with the latter functioning as a mediating variable. By advocating for responsible tourism practices and fostering interactions between tourists and local communities, DSR interventions can engender positive perceptions and attitudes among local residents, thereby influencing their cognitive and affective responses. This study aligns with the S-O-R paradigm, indicating that external stimuli, such as DSR initiatives, can mold the cognitive and affective processes of local residents, leading to changes in attitudes and behaviors that bolster the domestic tourism economy. The study contributes to the limited research on DSR as a precursor of tourism ethnocentrism in emerging tourism destinations, offering a theoretical comprehension that DSR, as perceived by local residents in such destinations, can impact their attitudes and behaviors.

### **Managerial implication**

The study's findings carry significant managerial implications for tourism destination managers. Given the constant changes in stakeholders' demands, DMOs should adopt a management model aimed at promoting the active participation of local residents as beneficiaries in the domestic tourism economy. Additionally, to ensure proper management of DSR programs, DMOs should have management plans for tourism destinations, which are also a precondition for obtaining grants and mobilizing resources from various stakeholders, including both local authorities and international agencies responsible for tourism. Policies should be developed to provide room for tourism destinations, through DMOs, to have effective management plans that ensure tourism destinations engage in socially responsible activities and fulfill societal obligations according to local community standards. DMOs should take DSR initiatives that create an enabling environment for the distribution of ownership of the tourism sector among local residents, promoting their level of tourism ethnocentrism. It is recommended that by initiating DSR programs, DMOs can establish a model of management that makes tourism destinations more accountable and responsible to stakeholders, particularly local residents. Key stakeholders operating in the tourism sector should be encouraged to collaborate with DMOs to promote socially responsible practices in the tourism sector. It is recommended that advisory boards consisting of representatives from different stakeholders in the industry and local residents meet regularly each year to discuss issues pertaining to the tourism sector. This indicates the extent to which the tourism destination is responsible and accountable to its stakeholders and local residents, which could also promote a sense of psychological

ownership. Hence, it is important to design and implement regular training and empowerment programs to educate stakeholders on the importance of complying with DSR policies and regulations. It is further recommended that DMOs can achieve effective implementation of DSR programs by developing and running an off-season trade fair involving stakeholders and local residents. This trade fair or tourism event can allow stakeholders to express their opinions and views regarding tourism development.

#### *Limitations and future studies*

The study has several limitations that present potential opportunities for further research in the tourism domain. Firstly, the study's findings may not be easily generalized beyond Tanzania, warranting future research to expand the geographical scope by including more countries to enhance the robustness of the findings. Moreover, future studies can explore the perspectives of local residents who directly engage in tourism activities or operations, such as travel agents and tour operators, in addition to those who do not participate directly. By including both groups, a comparative analysis can be conducted to examine potential differences in how they perceive destination social responsibility and their reactions toward it. This insight could enable DMOs to tailor specific approaches to destination social responsibility that address the distinct demands and expectations of each group, thereby promoting support for the domestic tourism economy. Additionally, the proposed research model can be modified to incorporate a moderator, such as local resident empowerment, to examine the combined effect of destination social responsibility and local resident empowerment on promoting tourism ethnocentrism. Furthermore, the conceptual framework can be adjusted to position the study within the literature concerning place attachment, self-congruity, and/or identification. Considering the limited number of studies that connect tourism ethnocentrism with various tourism-related concepts, this adaptation of the framework could offer greater depth and insight into the relationship between different tourism-related concepts and tourism ethnocentrism. Finally, while the current study utilized a cross-sectional design, future research could adopt a longitudinal design to capture the evolving attitudes of local residents toward supporting the domestic tourism economy under different environments, such as varying levels of destination social responsibility.

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