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# 3 **Local Ambivalence to Diverse Mobilities – The** 4 **Case of a Norwegian Rural Village**

5 [Mariann Villa](#)

6

## 7 [Abstract](#)

8 In Norway, immigration and tourism have become important drivers of diversity in rural  
9 communities. While rural migration mostly has been studied from the migrants’  
10 perspective, this article examines how long-term residents in a Norwegian rural mountain  
11 resort characterised by seasonal tourism and labour immigration experience the flux of  
12 diverse migrants and how this affects them and the local community. The article is based on  
13 12 interviews with men and women who are long-term community residents. A major  
14 narrative of the locals is that of the village and its inhabitants as accustomed to mobility, a  
15 local knowledge acquired through decades of tourism and in-migration. But there are also  
16 narratives of ambivalence and contradictions and of the place as saturated by mobilities.  
17 The paper explores how locals adjust to and avoid these mobilities.

18

19 **Keywords:** rural village, seasonal in-migration, tourism, local ambivalence

20

21

## 22 Introduction

23 The rural village I call Inland is widely known as a popular mountain ski resort in Norway,  
24 serving affluent tourists in general and those from the capital region in particular.

25 According to the media, it has some difficulties with ‘party tourism’ in peak seasons. When

26 I visited Inland to conduct fieldwork, I was struck by two contrasting characteristics.

27 Physically, the centre village resembled other ski resorts, densely structured around

28 expensive shops, food stores, hotels, restaurants and holiday apartments. But, as Theodori

29 (2003) quoted in Avery (2013, p. 29) argues, ‘When you’ve seen one rural community,

30 you’ve seen one rural community. Every rural community has certain social, economic,

31 and/or environmental issues that are unique to that particular community and contribute to

32 its diversity’. What was most striking about the people on the streets of Inland was the

33 diversity of their languages. Everywhere individuals were speaking, not in traditional local

34 dialects, but in languages other than Norwegian. Internationality was an audible presence,

35 even though people looked like ‘ordinary locals’.

36 In Norway, immigration and tourism have recently become important drivers of

37 diversity in rural communities. Increasing labour migration has brought population growth

38 to some rural regions for the first time in several decades (Søholt, Tronstad and Bjørnsen

39 2014). Second home owners also contribute to population growth (Farstad 2015). Indeed,

40 Inland’s population is characterised not by stasis but by mobility and turnover. This diverse

41 mobility has marked the locality and its surrounding areas both historically and seasonally,

42 from those who built the railway over a century ago to today’s tourists, immigrant workers,

43 and second home owners. When these groups are present in the winter time, they actually

44 outnumber the permanent, year-round residents. Paradoxically, part of Inland's  
45 attractiveness is its rootedness in a traditional Norwegian highland culture, which contains  
46 elements associated with classic romantic nationalism (Berg-Nordlie 2018). Within this  
47 mix of mobilities and ideas of rootedness and traditional authenticity (Søholt, Stenbacka  
48 and Nørgaard 2018), tourists, in-migrants, and permanent residents of Inland live side-by-  
49 side on an everyday or seasonal basis.

50           Research on rural mobility often focuses on the migrants (Halfacree and Rivera  
51 2012; Scott, Murphy and Gkartzios 2017). This paper examines how long-term residents in  
52 and around the rural village experience tourists and seasonal in-migrants and how the flux  
53 of diverse migrants affects them and the local community. It explores mobility from the  
54 perspective of those being 'moved through' (Aure, Førde and Magnussen 2018) and the  
55 changes and challenges they see arising from the presence of newcomers.

56           The study is part of a larger research project on the exclusion and inclusion of  
57 immigrants in multi-ethnic rural and peripheral communities in Norway. As such, it adds to  
58 studies which look into media representations of rural immigration (Berg-Nordlie 2018),  
59 place attachment among internal and international labour migrants (Lynnebakke  
60 forthcoming), and perceptions of immigrants and immigration among local rural elites,  
61 defined as persons who hold leading positions in policy making bodies, the economy, or  
62 civil society (Søholt *et al.* 2018).

63           The study seeks to correct what Halfacree and Rivera (2012, p. 92) describe as an  
64 imbalance, a 'bias in favour of studying distinctive actions, such as migration, at the  
65 expense of non-actions, such as staying put'. It also responds to Benson and O'Reilly's

66 (2009, p. 621) call for research on the impact that diverse and relatively affluent migrants  
67 moving either part-time or full-time, permanently or temporarily may have on receiving  
68 communities.

69

## 70 Mobility and migration in rural areas

71

72 A mobilities perspective shapes the study's overall approach, illuminating how turnover  
73 and migration affect permanent residents and produce parallel and ambiguous narratives of  
74 rural place. While 'the urban' is constructed as the archetypal space of hyper-mobility in  
75 demographic work, less attention has been paid to mobilities in rural spaces (Milbourne and  
76 Kitchen 2014, p. 326). Yet mobility is a continuous feature of rural areas. As Milbourne  
77 and Kitchen point out, it has long been a significant driver of change in rural areas through  
78 the out-migration of young people, the incoming flows of tourists, holiday home owners,  
79 and people seeking to adopt rural lifestyles, and by people moving in and out at different  
80 phases of the life course (Villa 2000). Coastal fishery-based communities have always  
81 been distinguished by mobility, whether in fish stocks, markets, fishermen, or on-shore  
82 workers (Gerrard 2016; Aure *et al.* 2018). More recently, rural areas have experienced  
83 rising international in-migration, e.g., to fishery-based economies (Rye 2018), agriculture  
84 (Andrzejewska and Rye 2012), and tourist destinations (Henningsen, Jordhus-Lier and  
85 Underthun 2015). During the first years after the EU enlargement, Norway received more  
86 labour migrants than the other four Nordic countries combined, and immigration has  
87 become a major source of population increase in rural areas (Søholt *et al.* 2014, 2018).

88 Rural places with long-term local residents and diverse in-migrants as well as places  
89 with substantial seasonal fluctuations in population make good sites for the study of  
90 complex processes of mobility. Studies of labour migration reveal the interrelations  
91 between mobility and stability, as well as the differential processes of inclusion and  
92 exclusion at work in a place over time. Labour migrants maintain stability and consolidate  
93 in rural communities at the same time that they experience exclusion (Aure *et al.* 2018;  
94 Søholt *et al.* 2018). Others have pointed to the paradox that tourism and labour migration  
95 are crucial to the stability of local economies and the sustainability of rural places, while  
96 the same mobilities have the power to destroy what is distinctive to those very places  
97 (Milbourne and Kitchen 2014).

98 New migration streams to rural areas have been analysed within the frame of rural  
99 gentrification. People seeking a certain quality of life in specific rural destinations and rural  
100 restructuring for residential or tourism purposes might induce social tensions and  
101 displacement of local populations (Nelson and Hines 2018). Studies have found that the  
102 increased local presence of new social groups can lead to nostalgia or a sense of alienation  
103 among long-time residents (May 1996; Gustafson 2014 cited in Lynnebakke 2018, p. 13).  
104 Donaldson (2018) refers to rural gentrification as more subtle processes, which impose  
105 changes on local populations without physically displacing them. But according to Nelson,  
106 Lilley and van Gemeren (2019) little attention has been given to the ‘temporal signatures’  
107 left by gentrification and how this transforms the ways people use and experience space.

108 Building on studies of the transformative impact of international migration on rural  
109 communities and of interactions between in-migrants and established rural residents, rural  
110 studies have begun to draw on the concept of cosmopolitanism (Woods 2018, p. 164).

111 While discursively cosmopolitanism has been attributed to transnationally mobile elites and  
112 urban and global societies, cosmopolitanism recently has been discussed in terms of ideas,  
113 agencies, dispositions and practices within rural villages (Woods 2018), among immigrants  
114 and Indigenous in rural areas (Krivokapic-Skoko, Reid and Collins 2018), and in strategies  
115 related to farm development (Stenbacka and Bygdell 2018). In a review of the literature on  
116 rural cosmopolitanism, Woods (2018) refers to cosmopolitan dispositions among  
117 individuals who bridge rural and non-rural places and transfer external experiences, skills  
118 and tastes into rural society, or who produce a cosmopolitan atmosphere for those who  
119 travel to rural places (Notar 2008 cited in Woods 2018). Among the cosmopolitan  
120 properties of rural communities are collective practices of hospitality toward others and  
121 openness to difference and diversity (Woods 2018, pp. 166). But review of  
122 cosmopolitanism in rural areas also finds contrast and variety (Krivokapic-Skoko *et al.*  
123 2018). In his own study, Woods (2018) examines the dynamics and relationships that shape  
124 migrants' engagement with long-term residents in rural small towns. He argues that  
125 cosmopolitanism is both facilitated and restricted by the rural setting and posits a  
126 'precarious rural cosmopolitanism'. The cosmopolitanism identified in new rural immigrant  
127 destinations is partial, contingent, incomplete and reversible (p. 165).

128         This conclusion has some parallels with Søholt *et al.*'s (2018) study, which speaks  
129 of a conditional receptiveness toward immigration in rural areas. Receptiveness here  
130 corresponds to being open-minded, able to receive new signals, and interested in new  
131 people. Søholt *et al.* (2018) found that rural elites in multicultural communities with long-  
132 standing settlement regard immigration as promoting rural resilience, but their attitudes  
133 towards immigrants are also conditioned by this benefit.

134           Local communities are contested places; even when they are relatively stable and  
135 homogenous, they are seldom unanimous on a range of issues. Different interests, norms,  
136 and identities coexist in local communities, which can generate individual and collective  
137 tensions (Barrett 2015). Barrett refers to normativity as embodied standards of conduct  
138 propagated through long-standing everyday interactions. These are governed by civility and  
139 sociability, respect, contempt or deference, superiority or subservience, neighbourliness,  
140 service, and conflict avoidance or codes of silence, which facilitate smooth interactions  
141 (Barrett 2015, p. 189). In homogeneous communities with long-standing settlement, Barrett  
142 (2015) argues, people are likely to be backward-looking and invoke a sense of nostalgia for  
143 lost traditions, while heterogeneous communities (exemplified by in-migration into  
144 established neighbourhoods or villages and new multicultural communities) are likely to  
145 invoke pluralistic sources of identity.

146           Forsberg (1998; Forsberg and Stenbacka 2017, pp. 4-6) has identified ‘local  
147 contracts’ as informal agreements on what behaviour is expected in specific contexts.  
148 Similarly, Cresswell (1996, p. 8) discusses how place and ideology intersect and ‘the way  
149 in which space and place are used to structure a normative landscape’. This normativity is  
150 comprised of ideas and understandings of appropriate and inappropriate uses of a particular  
151 space or place. Contemporary research on second home owners reveals such place  
152 contestations as tensions between rural ‘locals’ and propertied ‘visitors’, referring to  
153 differences in their demographic composition, value orientation, way of life, location in the  
154 rural economy, socioeconomic status, and relation to the rural landscapes (Farstad and Rye  
155 2013). Rural spaces may be contested as places for the consumption of a rural idyll or as

156 places to live and work (Flø 2013), and power relations may shift between ‘local’ and ‘non  
157 local’ groups, across classes and other identities (Scott *et al.* 2017, p. 601).

158 Mobility entails both cultural and class diversity (Farstad 2015; Henningsen *et al.*  
159 2015). And while migration and tourism have been viewed as ways of countering  
160 demographic and economic decline in rural communities, the presence of newcomers also  
161 raises concerns about their impact on their hosts (Rye 2018). This study explores how long-  
162 term residents experience the mobility of a diverse group of tourists, seasonal and labour  
163 in-migrants and perceive its effects on them and the local community. The challenges they  
164 see arising from the presence of newcomers illuminate the complex ways in which mobility  
165 affects host communities and permanent residents. These meanings are expressed in  
166 parallel and contradictory stories.

## 167 Data and Method

### 168 The case study

169 Inland is a pseudonym for a rural village located in a mountain region of Norway. It is a ski  
170 sport centre surrounded by farming areas and second homes, which is very crowded during  
171 the tourist season and seemingly empty at other times. While agriculture represents the  
172 region’s traditional culture, tourism and winter sports are the main industries today. There  
173 are more second homes than year-round inhabitants in the municipality, and during the  
174 most crowded seasons the population of Inland more than doubles.

175 The prosperous tourism sector has attracted increasing numbers of immigrants and  
176 seasonal labourers over the last decades. In 2018 the employment rate among immigrants



177 aged 20–66 was slightly lower (78.2 %) than among natives (81.7 %), but considerably  
178 higher than among immigrants on the national level (66.6 %) (Statistics Norway 2018).  
179 Today international in-migrants comprise about one fifth of the municipality’s inhabitants,  
180 representing a wide range of nationalities, the majority of whom come from Eastern  
181 European EU countries and the Nordic countries (Statistics Norway 2018).

182

### 183 [Data collection](#)

184

185 Semi-structured interview guides were designed in the main project for a cross-case  
186 Norwegian and Nordic study and adjusted for interviewing informants of different statuses:  
187 elites (defined as persons holding a position in local policy making bodies, the economy  
188 and civil society and having power to influence the local community’s response to  
189 immigration), ordinary local residents, internal migrants, and international migrants,  
190 including labour migrants, refugees, and family reunification migrants. My study  
191 encompassed several of these categories, exploring locals’ and internal migrants’  
192 experiences of mobility and settlement in the community. Residents who had grown up in  
193 the community were initially of special interest, as they could illuminate mobility from a  
194 local as well as retrospective perspective. Internal migrants turned out to be valuable  
195 contributors, as in-migrants who were settled and well integrated into local society or as  
196 residents of neighbouring rural communities that belonged to the same school district as the  
197 village. The local and long term inhabitants then had not all strictly ‘stayed put’ throughout  
198 their lives. Some also had moved away temporarily but returned and settled in or near the  
199 village more permanently.

200 I stayed in the community for five days in March 2014, together with others on the  
201 larger project's research team. This was my first visit to Inland, but I had arranged  
202 beforehand to interview people in local NGOs, the cultural sector, and the municipal  
203 administration to gain an overview. At the same time, I interviewed people whom I initially  
204 encountered in the streets, shops, and public offices. Some interviews were conducted  
205 together with colleagues exploring other topics in the main project, which contributed to  
206 broadening the conversations and to gaining insights across the different sub-studies.  
207 Finally, we incidentally had informal conversations with a few other people during our stay  
208 in the village. Although these are not counted as interviews, they helped to form an overall  
209 impression of the local community.

210 In total, five men and seven women who lived in Inland or adjacent rural areas were  
211 interviewed for my study. They worked for the municipality, in service centres, at schools,  
212 in commercial business, farming and tourism, or they were housewife or retired. Being  
213 'local' means being settled on a permanent basis in the village or neighbouring rural areas.  
214 Seven of the informants had grown up in Inland or elsewhere in the municipality. Others  
215 had in-migrated through marriage, employment, or business. Only one of the informants  
216 was not a native Norwegian, and all but one had worked in Inland. The interviewees were  
217 recruited so that they represented different voices within the long-term resident population.  
218 They were not representative in terms of age: most were in their 40s and 50s.

219 The interviews were conducted in cafes, at interviewees' workplaces, or in their  
220 homes and lasted between one and two and a half hours. In a few cases, two persons were  
221 interviewed together. They might have felt restricted by each other's presence, but they  
222 seemed to feel comfortable together and expanded on topics in a way that enriched our

223 data. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. The main themes across the interviews  
224 that are explored in this paper are individuals' relationships with the local community, in-  
225 migrants, and other visitors, and their perceptions of mobility in and out of the rural village  
226 and the challenges it poses to them and the community.

227

## 228 [Approaches to data analysis](#)

229

230 The overarching question of this study was “How do locals experience the mobility and  
231 turnover that characterises this place?” This was also a guiding question when approaching  
232 local inhabitants, and much of our conversation revolved around this theme. The  
233 interviewees reflected and elaborated on the topic by talking about their own relations to  
234 the place, their migration history, and the history of the locality. From this material,  
235 dominant narratives of how population flows affect local residents and the community  
236 emerged.

237         The process of analysis could be described as ‘tracing connections’ (Follo 2008:  
238 52). Follo was inspired by Strathern’s (1992) mapping of a range of phenomena, sources,  
239 and parallel arguments in order to expose hidden connections among them. While  
240 following Follo’s method, I had more limited ambitions: to illuminate some of the factors  
241 that shape local residents’ perceptions and experiences of mobilities. I explore people’s  
242 stories and how they resonate with concepts that help to map the case, particularly those  
243 developed in mobility studies and in studies of culture, identity and social norms related to  
244 place.

## 245 Findings

### 246 Mobility as generic to the local community

247

248 This study explores locals' experiences with and understandings of the mobilities of  
249 tourists and visitors, including many Norwegians with second homes in the area and  
250 seasonal labourers and work in-migrants, such as Scandinavians and Europeans working in  
251 the service sector and in construction. A man who had grown up and was living in the rural  
252 area close to the village described Inland's tourism as 'very distinguished by people from  
253 the upper social stratum, with a lot of money. And this has added colour to the local  
254 community for years and years.' This statement epitomises the widely shared narrative of  
255 the rural village as a place of mobility.

256 In contrast to prevalent characterisations of rural communities as stable and  
257 homogenous, the inhabitants of Inland constructed their understanding of the local  
258 community and themselves in explicit relation to mobility. The reiterated narrative is that  
259 for centuries the region and the mountain resort have been accustomed to migration and  
260 were built on mobility and tourism. The railway through the region, which was constructed  
261 largely by workers from Sweden and Finland, made tourism key to the regional and local  
262 economy and is still a potent symbol of its identity. Seasonal visits from upper-class  
263 Norwegians have recently been complemented by labourers from Sweden and Eastern  
264 Europe who work in the service sector and in construction. This story presents the local  
265 community and its inhabitants as accustomed to mobility, the sights and sounds of guests  
266 and foreigners, and characterised by a sophisticated local habitus. This understanding of

267 mobility as essential to the community has broadened and enriched local residents'  
268 cultural preferences and substantially strengthened the local economy.

269         The story of a former scrubber boy who succeeded in the flourishing tourism and  
270 service sector exemplifies the idea that those who come to the locality create new and  
271 exciting possibilities for its permanent residents.

272         In old days (...) I worked as a scrubber boy at the hotels; washed boilers, peeled  
273 potatoes, was a slave in the kitchen, and thought it was real fun. I thought it was an  
274 enrichment, enjoyable and exotic. I worked with chefs from Norway, France,  
275 personnel from Denmark and Sweden. I thought it was a great pleasure, and fun to  
276 speak English (...) That paid off in school, as I got a lot of English practice.

277 To local youth, the multicultural community and labour market offered opportunities for  
278 paid work during and after their formal education and represented not only income and  
279 work experience but also adventure and excitement. Living in a place that was changing  
280 through immigration and tourism allowed locals to feel that 'the world is coming to them'  
281 (Stenbacka and Bygdell 2018). This has some resemblance with cosmopolitan orientations  
282 expressed as hospitality and openness towards difference and diversity and interest in the  
283 lives of international in-migrants in rural areas (Stenbacka and Bygdell 2018; Woods  
284 2018).

285         The former 'scrubber boy' described today's local youth as spoiled and not  
286 interested in the low paid, unskilled work that is available in the local tourism industry and  
287 contrasted them with international labour migrants, whom he saw as more industrious. He  
288 said he was 'pretty sure there are very few with Norwegian passports making the beds at

289 the hotels today.’ While there are ardent and skilled skiers among the local youth in winter  
290 sport destinations (Vestby and Ruud 2008; Lynnebakke forthcoming), most jobs in tourist  
291 services are held by labour migrants. Over the years, migration and educational trends have  
292 changed rural populations’ skills and aspirations. Rural youth aspire to higher education,  
293 and the school system encourages ‘learning to leave’ (Corbett 2007). Moreover, with  
294 greater affluence local youth are not forced to earn their own money while they are in  
295 school.

296           At the same time, local residents express ambivalence toward and contest the  
297 dominant narrative that Inland is accustomed to mobility. While being enriched by the  
298 mobilities of people and cultures, their ambivalences resonate with the tenacious discourse  
299 of rural communities as narrow (Haugen and Villa 2006), as well as the messiness of rural  
300 in-migration (Stockdale 2016) when seen from the perspective of long-term rural residents.

301

### 302 [Locals’ embodied hospitality](#)

303 Within the local community, some regard tourists and second home owners as affluent and  
304 self-centred visitors from the upper classes. This portrait contrasts with the local culture’s  
305 norm of modesty, rather than self-promotion. But this awareness is contradictory. Local  
306 people who experience being subordinated and treated as if they are of lesser value in  
307 encounters with tourists and second home owners are also conscious of their economic  
308 dependency on visitors and thus enact a ‘business’-oriented hospitality.

309           Long-term residents have been socialised to behave in ways that favour tourism.

310 One interviewee saw this disposition as marking their personality:

311 We are a municipality of tourism. So, kind of genetically, you have learnt that it  
312 pays off to be polite to people you don't know, because that's part of the package of  
313 being in a service business. (...) You understand what's useful. That's a  
314 consequence of living here, in a way ... and ... if we see a well-known celebrity ...  
315 it is in a way in the genes to let him alone – you don't boast of seeing him, because  
316 that's supposed to be ordinary to us, it's the way it is here. We are not supposed to  
317 make any fuss about such a thing.

318 The internalised acceptance of the community's dependence on tourism shapes the local  
319 reception of visitors and newcomers, with politeness and a refined, worldly-wise sense of  
320 confidentiality.

321 Local residents support local entrepreneurs and industries that rely on national and  
322 international visitors and labour migrants. To feel such responsibilities and behave  
323 accordingly assumes a certain integration within and commitment to the community and  
324 their fellow inhabitants (see also Stenbacka and Bygdell 2018). By these actions and  
325 attitudes local people are supportive of and co-responsible for keeping the world  
326 continuously coming to them.

327 Inland residents' polite performances toward visitors could be regarded as  
328 cosmopolitan, as the locals express and enact hospitality toward diverse groups of visitors  
329 and contribute to the production of a cosmopolitan atmosphere, as Notar (2008 cited in  
330 Woods 2018, p. 166) finds among the owners of rural cafés and pubs. Alternatively, it  
331 could be interpreted as a blasé state of mind, strategically developed to cope with local  
332 development and as such exemplifying what Goffman (1970) called impression

333 management and strategic interaction. This behaviour literally ‘pays off’ and is ‘part of the  
334 package of being in service’.

335           While the locals’ delicate balance of openness and restraint facilitates tourism,  
336 locals appear reserved in relation to newcomers and in-migrants, as found in Lynnebakke’s  
337 (forthcoming 2) study. They are well aware that labour migrants are essential to the local  
338 economy, but they are reluctant to become socially involved with newcomers. The  
339 complexities of the situation are underlined by Søholt *et al.* (2018, p. 226), who found a  
340 conditioned receptiveness and instrumental openness towards in-migrants and immigrants  
341 among local elites, ‘a tradition of impersonal friendliness and a cosmopolitan attitude  
342 including taking mobility for granted’.

343

#### 344 [Locals’ reluctance to connect with newcomers](#)

345 The mobility that characterises the locality contributes to long-term residents’ reluctance to  
346 engage in social interactions with in-migrants. Today some locals are rather unimpressed  
347 by visitors and migrants.

348           We are friendly as part of tourism, but we don’t allow you to be closer than that.  
349           (...) My wife (...) found it difficult to get to know people here. Because ... I believe  
350           an indigenous person is a bit difficult to get to know. Because ... they have been  
351           disappointed a lot of times as people just disappear. You might be here for a season  
352           or two, three, four, and then you disappear. So her simple analysis is that people



353           have a bit higher guard. You don't bother to invest your soul in a relationship; when  
354           you know that a person is going to leave in few years, then you hold back.

355   One in-migrant, who later married a local woman, had a family, and settled down on a long  
356   term basis, verified this observation on the basis of his own experience: 'It was pretty  
357   difficult to get to know people, in tourism, because everyone knew that "he is going to stay  
358   for two years and then he leaves"'.  
359

359           Parallel to a local internalised knowledge and understanding of 'what is useful' in  
360   encounters with visitors and newcomers, rural inhabitants have themselves become  
361   increasingly mobile. They have gained experience not only by having the world come to  
362   them but also through global travel and communication. The thrill of being visited by  
363   people from other countries and cultures may have become somewhat diluted.

364           The high rate of transience in Inland has exhausting effects on long-term  
365   inhabitants. As they have learned that these are not long-lasting relationships, locals have  
366   developed reasonable ways of economising on social investments. Social investments are  
367   made primarily when there is some prospect of long-lasting gains through friendships or  
368   local economic developments.

369

### 370   Local residents' identity struggles

371   While interviewees accept the fact that tourism fuels the local economy, other factors make  
372   tourism contested, particularly overcrowding in public spaces and the respondents'  
373   experiences of inferiority in interactions with tourists and second home owners. Rural hosts

374 who are subordinated to and dependent on the urban and affluent guests at the hotels and in  
375 their second homes relate with discourses of both class and rural-urban differences. The  
376 interviewees themselves point at identity struggles in the wake of high mobility. As a long-  
377 term inhabitant of the neighbouring rural area put it:

378           For a long time, the municipality has experienced a lot of in- and out-migration.  
379           Very changeable [population]. The problems that follow concern local identity.  
380           What is our cultural heritage, and who am I and where do I come from? These are  
381           the challenges we have today as well.

382 A woman who also lived in a neighbouring rural area said that both rural culture and local  
383 dialects were vanishing. ‘Some feel they have lost their identity. Due to tourism and all the  
384 in-migration, which has taken over the place. (...) New people come and go, and who am I  
385 in all this?’

386           Mobility and migration, which are framed within a longer history that continues into  
387 the present, contribute to a narrative that Inland is ‘accustomed to mobility’. But that entails  
388 its own costs. This interviewee thought that residents had lost their local dialect. This  
389 comment connects to decades of sociocultural friction in the local community due to  
390 population turnover, as well as a severe and perhaps servile socialisation in the service  
391 sector. ‘We are raised and trained to ‘speak so people understand’. We had to take off our  
392 caps when someone from the capital city area came here. It was not the opposite way,’ a  
393 local man said. He described a courtesy in social encounters with visitors that was not  
394 explicit supposed to be reciprocal.

395           The interviewees' concerns about challenges to their local identity and the  
396 disappearance of their local dialect resonate with 'the movements implicit in identifications,  
397 grammars, economies, intensities, and orientations' as people, capital, and things move and  
398 re-form (Sheller and Urry 2006, p. 216). Local inhabitants' responses to affluent visitors and  
399 transient in-migration also pertain how seasonal changes in rural landscapes affect people's  
400 sense of identity (Milbourne and Kitchen 2014). These are societal-level processes, and  
401 when they accumulate, as they do in Inland, the question of 'who am I in all this' expresses  
402 anxiety about identity and belonging in the diverse and multicultural rural area.

403

#### 404 [Locals rearranging and adjusting their activities](#)

405

406 Long-term residents have rearranged their everyday lives in order to adjust to the  
407 consequences of mobility as tourists, second home owners, and migrants move about,  
408 apparently without regard to their presence.

409 A local man described his mother's shopping routines during the tourist season: She  
410           drives out of the local community for shopping. (...) In order to avoid crashing into  
411           crowds ... Or finds a time of the day when you suppose people are skiing. So, for  
412           sure, being a tourist municipality has its costs.

413 Affluent tourists cause local prices to rise. A woman who lives in a nearby rural area  
414 recounted:

415 We almost never buy clothes in the local community, as it is too expensive. We  
416 shop in neighbouring municipalities or in the city when we go there. Any city. Here  
417 the prices are three or four times higher than normal prices, because they are meant  
418 for the second home owners, and they shop without hesitating.

419 Finally, long-time residents had left the village and moved to the surrounding rural areas to  
420 avoid what they considered undesirable changes in Inland. The adjacent rural area was  
421 inhabited by more traditional or original populations and, as some interviewees explained,  
422 was preferable because it was free from the pressures of overcrowding and turnover that  
423 affected the village.

424 A woman from Inland and her friend from a neighbouring rural area discussed how  
425 tourism affects the village:

426 Interviewer: The chaos that you describe—what is that? Is it just a lot of people,  
427 or...?

428 Local woman: It is SUVs—those huge vehicles—parking everywhere they are not  
429 allowed to park, blocking everything and driving into tiny parking garages. They  
430 force their way forward and are impatient and park in all directions in the centre.  
431 They park so no one can pass if you try to drive through.

432 Friend: The bus drivers almost went insane—they cannot drive through anywhere,  
433 neither back nor forth. You cannot go anywhere. ‘I have parked here, and here am I  
434 going to park’ (laughing).

435           Local woman: They park in all directions ... they don't bother to care. And then it's  
436           allowed to walk in the middle of the road.... They are in the countryside, you know,  
437           so they can do as they like (laughing).

438   These views express local's feelings of being trespassed on by visitors who are unconscious  
439   of and negligent toward the local community, which are framed by class and cultural  
440   distinctions as well as perceptions of rurality. Urban residents who treat rural areas as  
441   places of refuge for themselves, rather than as others' home, might well provoke anger  
442   among natives, especially if they disrespectfully violate local ways of doing things.

443           Tourists were 'taking over' the community in the winter season, creating mobility  
444   problems for local residents going about their everyday lives (Milbourne and Kitchen 2014,  
445   p. 331). The seasonal flows of people through Inland affect residents' sense of identity and  
446   daily routines. The locals' delicate personal restraint and their everyday rearrangements are  
447   all performances that help accommodate the influx of outsiders. This situation may be  
448   comparable to the 'silent bargain' in communities where newly settled groups and  
449   established residents accept or appreciate each other on given conditions and circumstances  
450   (Torres, Popke and Hapke 2006; Schech 2014 cited in Woods 2018, p. 166). Or, perhaps,  
451   locals express silent agitation by simply avoiding places and times when tourists overflow  
452   the streets.

453

454 Locals' expectations of community

455

456 Seasonal and migrant workers in the service and construction industries relate to long-term  
457 residents differently than tourists and second home owners do. They may blend in or even  
458 become invisible within the local community. In addition, migrants' economic and cultural  
459 statuses might not compromise local residents' economy or culture in the same way, if at  
460 all.

461 Locals described Inland as a 'class society', where an upper socioeconomic class  
462 has access to land, owns industrial companies, and can trace long lines of ancestors in the  
463 community. In contrast to tourists and holiday home owners, international in-migrants and  
464 seasonal labourers represent the lower classes. In-migrants are to a certain degree expected  
465 to enter into community life, although such expectations seem to have faded over the years.  
466 According to the interviewees, integration into the local community was to a large degree  
467 the responsibility of the newcomers themselves. Above all, they were expected to learn the  
468 language. A woman echoed the village elites' opinion (Søholt *et al.* 2018) that 'you have to  
469 do something yourself to be integrated'.

470 In the eyes of long-term residents, some Eastern Europeans contradicted this norm  
471 by apparently being 'not interested in learning the language at all'. These in-migrants  
472 seemed determined to 'stay together, build their own houses, have children in school', but  
473 were not interested in becoming involved in community affairs. Labour migrants, according  
474 to one interviewee, 'will work but not participate', and have priorities and interests that  
475 make them appear indifferent to the local community (see also Henningsen *et al.* 2015).  
476 Despite their strong orientation to work and family, they are given little credit when they do

477 not meet long-time residents' expectations that they learn the language, participate in  
478 community events, and take their turn as volunteers in supervising children's activities. At  
479 the same time, however, locals acknowledged their own reluctance to invite newcomers  
480 into their private lives, which they explained by saying that they were too busy with their  
481 own families and did not expect in-migrants to stay.

482

## 483 Discussion and conclusion

484 Long-term residents of this rural village told parallel and contradictory stories of mobility  
485 as familiar and embodied in polite interactions and of mobility as excessive and challenging  
486 local identities and configurations of place. While the earlier phase of tourism and  
487 international labour migration was characterised as having enriched local community life,  
488 today's tourism was described as leading to overcrowding. The turnover of labour migrants  
489 was regarded as a hindrance to satisfactory social involvement. The interviewees'  
490 awareness of the economic significance of tourism and labour migrants' work in the service  
491 sector resonates with the public and elite discourse of the place. A hegemonic discourse on  
492 the economic gains brought by immigration and the hospitality industry's reliance on  
493 immigrant labour (Berg-Nordlie 2018; Søholt *et al.* 2018) might, however, frame locals'  
494 experiences as a 'double-bind': residents of a community that is dependent on tourism and  
495 mobility present themselves as suffering from this very dependency.

496         The potential individual and collective tensions (Barrett 2015) implicit in this  
497 situation are illustrated by local inhabitants' attitude of resignation toward the local

498 authorities' chronic disregard of their own interests. They say, 'it's no use' to try and claim  
499 our rights; 'we are not listened to'. The transience of second home owners and seasonal  
500 labourers makes some experiences vary between the tourist and non-tourist seasons. Other  
501 issues relate to local policies. The year-round residents regard the authorities as prioritising  
502 the financial benefits of tourism, while overlooking the needs of indigenous inhabitants and  
503 their complaints about the undesirable effects of tourism.

504 In locals' stories and experiences, mobility was not only a social fact but also a  
505 matter of 'local knowledge', a generated habitus of managing constant comings and goings  
506 and sensibility toward local economic interests. To the extent that this knowledge was  
507 historical, it did not express a nostalgic longing for a lost past (Barrett 2015) but, rather, a  
508 sense of pride in the tradition of labour migration that made this place into the vital tourist  
509 centre it remains today.

510 Situational and temporal tensions between long-time residents and newcomers could  
511 be interpreted in terms of gentrification, which marginalises locals culturally, socially,  
512 economically and politically (Hines 2010: 514 note 5). There are different groups of  
513 newcomers to Inland. Unlike second home owners, international labour in-migrants might  
514 not be interpreted as gentrifiers. Second home owners and seasonal tourism were by locals  
515 experienced to have some impact on themselves that resemble tensions described in rural  
516 gentrification literature (cf. Nelson *et al.* 2019). But the fact that the various newcomers  
517 and second home owners were all temporary may mean that they affect the local  
518 community in different ways and even transform the ways *local people* use and experience  
519 space. These are both temporary adjustments and enduring influences. Settling down in the  
520 outskirts, rearranging their daily routines to avoid tangling with discourteous drivers,



521 changing their dialect, and showing deference toward outsiders could be explored as local  
522 and permanent residents' experiences of being out of place (Cresswell 1996) in their own  
523 place.

524         Søholt *et al.* (2018) found few narratives among rural elites about 'place-changing'  
525 due to immigration in Inland, since mobility was perceived as normal. The ordinary locals  
526 interviewed in this study also regarded mobility as normal. But unpacking their narratives  
527 reveals other, partly contradictory experiences of mobility involving changes in the place  
528 and in individuals' daily lives. The locals deplore overcrowding and transience while  
529 asserting their own cosmopolitanism or worldly-wise mastering of the same mobilities.  
530 Although tourism and in-migration sustain the municipality's prosperity and increase its  
531 self-esteem, they also raise fundamental questions about identity. The range of encounters  
532 in the rural village reveals ambiguities regarding who belongs and who is out of place.  
533 While this dynamic often is delineated geographically (Cresswell 1996), it is also  
534 delineated through the seasonal round of demographic change in Inland.

535         The everyday adjustments that residents make during the tourist season range from  
536 rearranging to restricting their own mobilities. While being careful to treat tourists politely,  
537 they also avoid them. Some even move from the village to surrounding rural areas—a form  
538 of mobility that resembles displacement as it entails some loss of the year-round village  
539 population and its replacement by seasonal residents and transients.

540         Multiple and contradictory as well as mutually reinforcing processes of mobility are  
541 visible in this study. Locals express both a pragmatic economic understanding of in-  
542 migration and tourism and an acute awareness of the annoyances and alienation that arise

543 from them. This ambivalent response contributes to the complexity of the coexistence  
544 between locals and in-migrants (see also Lynnebakke 2018).

545         The rural village in many respects exemplifies recent public policies of diversifying  
546 rural socioeconomic landscapes (Flø 2013; Almstedt *et al.* 2014). The locals' experiences  
547 of being subordinated and swamped by the mobility that supports the locality contradicts  
548 municipal policy but adheres to traditional discourses of rural communities as reluctant to  
549 welcome newcomers. However, the local residents' objections or resistance are due to the  
550 palpable effects of others' mobilities. Their feeling of being worn out by the mobilities  
551 affecting their community coexists with their sense of being 'accustomed to mobility' and  
552 able to navigate its consequences. Although their hospitable performances might resemble  
553 cosmopolitan dispositions, the ambivalence arising from their experience of new and  
554 challenging configurations of the place make such dispositions precarious (Woods 2018).

555         A parallel story, then, to the 'accustomed to mobility' narrative is that of being  
556 saturated by mobility. In this story in-migration and tourism are flows of mobilities which  
557 the local community does not absorb but, instead, press upon local identities and norms of  
558 behaviour in the village. This condition is wearing out long-term residents, who conduct  
559 their lives at a polite distance from guests and newcomers. The indigenous inhabitants  
560 present themselves as guarded, protective, and reserved, refusing to invest personal time  
561 and emotions in relationships with migrants whom they expect to leave. In the saturated  
562 community, mobility becomes intrusive and contributes to different groups appearing  
563 indifferent to each other.

564           The locals' compensatory practices and immobility or displacement reinforce the  
565 idea that 'mobility' is an umbrella term that covers a wide range of experiences. Baas and  
566 Yeoh (2019, p. 161) suggest that the recent focus on time and temporality amounts to a  
567 shift toward understanding migration and non-migration as 'umbilically conjoined  
568 phenomena'. This framework, they contend, enlarges the awareness that migration itself is  
569 never always about trans/national mobility but often also about not moving at all,  
570 recognising the temporal as well as spatial complexity of mobility (Sheller 2019). While  
571 these scholars discuss mobilities from the perspective of a migrant trajectory, this study  
572 shows how dimensions of time, temporality, migration and 'non-migration' conjoin in the  
573 experiences of mobilities among sedentary populations in host communities.

574

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