



JOURNAL OF TOURISM, SUSTAINABILITY AND WELL-BEING

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The **Journal of Tourism, Sustainability and Well-being (JTSW)** is an international open-access academic journal in the tourism field that publishes high-quality, refereed articles that advance science widely available so that tourism can serve the society, enhance a sustainable development of the destinations, and positively impact the well-being of stakeholders.

JTSW offers itself a multidisciplinary and all-inclusive bridge between theoretical and practical aspects of tourism and the emerging interdisciplinary aspects that can revolutionise the tourism and hospitality industries. While the JTSW maintains its traditional focus on original research, both conceptual and empirical, that clearly contributes to the theoretical development of the tourism field, it also has a far more inclusive and broadened scope to keep up with the new problems that challenge academics and practitioners working in private, public and non-profit organisations globally. JTSW encourages research based on a variety of methods, qualitative and/or quantitative, based on rigorous theoretical reasoning and supported by a strong methodology. Criteria for evaluation include significance in contributing new knowledge, conceptual quality, appropriate methodology, technical competence (of theoretical argument and/or data analysis), and clarity of exposition.

JTSW promotes research on a broad range of topics that explore major trends in the study of relationships between tourism, sustainable development of destinations and well-being of tourism-related stakeholders. Contributions can be from all disciplinary perspectives, with interdisciplinary approaches especially welcomed as far as they apply to the tourism research field. All policy, planning and management aspects of tourism are also encouraged.

The journal is published as a quarterly international review in open access, mainly composed of thematic special issues. The publishing schedule is the last working day of March, June, September and December. Any interested scholar can submit a proposal for the guest-edition of a special issue to the Editor-in-Chief. The proposal should follow the guidelines provided in the Guide for Guest Editors. Each article must follow the publication rules as in the Author Guidelines. The Guest-Editors and the Editor-in-Chief are responsible for the implementation of a double-blind review process. This method ensures that the author(s) and the reviewers remain anonymous to guarantee a fair and impartial review of the submitted manuscripts.

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The Editorial Board gathers world-renowned experts in different scientific areas, with a striving balance in geographic and gender diversity.

EDITORIAL

Five years have passed since our Research Centre, CinTurs, changed from a broad approach to Social Sciences to a focus on research and transfer of knowledge in Tourism and Hospitality. During this time, four volumes (16 issues) were published, mostly already addressing Tourism and Hospitality related topics. The new year of 2022 is markable for our Journal as it is finally prepared to give a step ahead, by assuming in its editorial policy the current focus of CinTurs and changing its title from Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics to Journal of Tourism, Sustainability and Well-being.

Our Journal has now a new image, and significant changes were implemented in the editorial board team, review policy and submissions guidelines. We are very grateful to all authors that supported us since the journal was launched in 2013. With the new “brand”, we hope to go on receiving high-quality contributions that advance knowledge so that Tourism can serve society, enhance the sustainable development of the destinations, and positively impact the well-being of stakeholders. We are proud to say that we will go on our practice of not charging authors for submitting, processing, or publishing papers. As always, the journal's expenses are fully covered by the publisher - Research Centre of Tourism, Sustainability and Well-being (CinTurs), Universidade do Algarve, Portugal.

This first issue of 2022 is composed of four articles. The first article offers a structured literature review on the tourism area life cycle and offers insights on how this theory can contribute to tourism planning and strategy analysis. The remaining three articles, one theoretical and two empirical, are mainly related to Tourism and its stakeholders' well-being. The second article is dedicated to positive psychology and mindfulness, and their relevance to developing meaningful tourism experiences and benefiting individuals' well-being while visiting a destination. The third article presents the residents' perspective and how their perceptions of tourism impacts are affecting their quality of life regarding several dimensions: material, community life, health and safety feelings domain and emotional life. The fourth paper leads the reader to those working in the tourism sector, focusing on front-line hotel employees and how their internal motivations affect the relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviance behaviours.

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A Structured Literature Review of the Tourism Area Life Cycle Concept

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ABSTRACT

The tourism area life cycle is used to map the changes within the tourism destination on a temporal basis. The paper reviews the literature on the tourism area life cycle from 2003-2020. Articles appearing in journals having a cite score of 1.0 or higher were considered for the review process. The paper uses a structured review methodology and a widely accepted technique of content analysis to review the articles. The tourism area life cycle, as a concept, has traced its lifecycle. However, the use of the tourism area life cycle for tourism planning and strategy analysis is lacking. The authors recommend tourism area life cycle based research on macro-environmental and tourism-specific factors to identify strategies at the destination. Ex-post-facto research seeks to reveal the correlational relationship between the variables responsible for destination development. The paper also suggests tourism area life cycle research on accommodation units, restaurants, transport, infrastructure, market segments, and tourism attractions.

KEYWORDS

Tourism Area Life Cycle, Resort Cycle, Destination Life cycle, Tourism Destination, Patterns, Mapping.

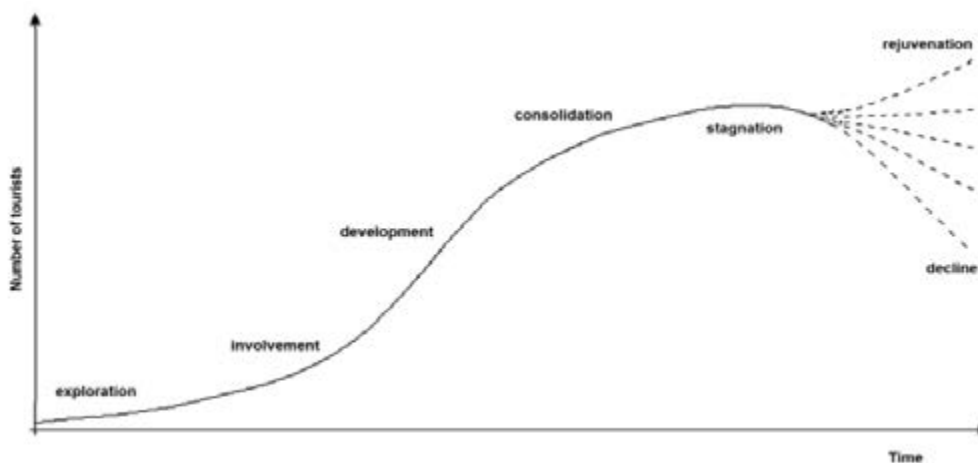
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1. Introduction

Butler (1980) developed the concept of the tourism area life cycle (TALC) having an 'S' shaped curve and six developmental phases. The exploration stage of the tourism area life cycle is the beginning of tourism at the destination. The destination gains popularity due to its natural and cultural environment. As tourism grows, the destination transforms itself into a class of many different tourism products. The most critical stage of the tourism area life cycle is the development phase. The development phase signifies if tourism is sustainable or not. Tourism at the destination stabilises during the consolidation stage. Destination managers can prolong the consolidation phase by developing better tourist facilities. The stagnation stage is characterised by the reduction in popularity of the destination as many economic, social, and cultural problems crop up. After the stagnation stage, the destination may either decline, rejuvenate, or reposition itself by introducing a new market segment or new tourism product. Figure 1 shows the growth of the destination as it moves from one phase to the other through time.

Figure 1. Tourism Area Life Cycle



Source: Butler (1980) used with permission

The tourism area life cycle is one of the most researched models in tourism literature. A literature survey on the work done by authors on the TALC model is done by Lagiewski (2006), wherein the author included papers published in English until 2002. However, a literature review post-2002 has not been attempted to the best of the authors' knowledge. Therefore, the principal objective of the paper is to present a literature review on the tourism area life cycle, recognise research gaps, and propose future research areas.

2. Methodology

The paper discusses a theory-based structured review of the literature (Rosado-Serrano, Paul & Dikova, 2018; Gilal, Zhang, Justin & Gilal, 2019; Paul & Rosado-Serrano, 2019). The paper follows the literature review process similar to Gilal et al. (2019) and suggested by Paul and Criado (2020). The journals with a combined cite score (2017, 2018, 2019) of one or greater than one were selected for the review. It was done to ensure that only good quality, high-impact articles were picked. Selecting journals with an impact factor of 1.0 is a criterion used extensively in most cited articles (Paul & Rosado-Serrano, 2019).

Journals in travel and tourism were identified from the Scopus database. The database included all the travel and tourism journals listed in Web of Science. Five hospitality journals from the Scopus database that matched the above criteria (Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, Hospitality and Society, International journal of contemporary Hospitality Management, International Journal of Hospitality management and journal of Hospitality Marketing Management) were excluded from the study as the scope of these journals was not found to be consistent with the subject under study. The authors also did not find any article on

TALC published in these journals. Out of the forty-three travel and tourism-based journals listed in Scopus, twenty-nine qualified the above criteria. The journals belonged to Science Direct, Taylor and Francis, Sage, and Emerald publications. The articles were searched with the keyword's tourism area life cycle, tourism cycle, resort cycle, and destination life cycle appearing anywhere in the full text (Paul & Criado, 2020).

From the list of twenty-nine journals, seventeen journals published papers on the tourism area life cycle. Seventy-seven articles were found relevant to the study. Later, the reference list of the papers was used to search (Paul, Parathasarathy & Gupta, 2017) for other articles by Butler. From the above search, six more articles were added to the list. These articles were primarily used to evaluate the change/progress in the conceptual framework of the TALC over the years and the author's views concerning future research avenues. Finally, a total of eighty-three articles were included in the literature review. The literature survey by Lagiewski (2006) discussed the applicability of the TALC, research methods used and works that supported or challenged the model. Papers from 2003 onwards are discussed in this review.

A widely accepted methodological process for content analysis was used to review the articles and identify the research gaps. Content analysis is a procedure used to organise text into predefined groups to link the text's components (Shelley & Krippendorff, 1984). Microsoft Excel was used to sort the articles into categories through data tables. The articles are categorised based on the methodology used (case studies, comparative analysis, theory-based, conceptual, survey, quantitative analysis, mixed methodology, quantitative and theory-based models), units of analysis, variables, concerns/difficulties, and future research areas. Under the methodology involved in the TALC section, the paper discusses articles that use qualitative and quantitative studies. The qualitative study includes papers based on a theory, a model, conceptual papers, case studies and comparative analysis. The quantitative papers are categorised as surveys, time series, and models. Articles using mixed methodology are also mentioned. Appendix 1 provides the details of the journals and the articles included in the review.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Methodologies Involved in TALC Research

The following subsections present the studies on the TALC and Table 1 lists the different methodologies used for TALC research.

3.1.1 Case study

Authors have used case study method to describe the evolution process of the destinations (Cohen-Hattab & Shoval, 2004; Aguiló et al., 2005; Andriotis, 2006; Kapczyński & Szromek, 2008; Ivars I Baidal et al., 2013; Hunt & Stronza, 2014; Lee & Weaver, 2014; Omar et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2014; Strom & Kerstein, 2015). The analysis period has varied from a year (Adamiak, 2020) to over a hundred years (Omar et al., 2014, Omar et al., 2015; Chapman & Light, 2016). Authors have discussed bombings (Moss et al., 2008), the evolution of national parks (Zhong et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016), growth of conference centres (Whitfield, 2009), amusement arcade (Chapman & Light, 2016), sports tourism (Heuwinkel & Venter, 2018), and Airbnb distribution (Adamiak, 2020) as the unit of analysis. Weiermair et al. (2007) map the growth pattern of entrepreneurs in the Alpine regions of Europe. Tourism development and utilisation of water resources at Mallorca are discussed by Essex et al. (2004). A few authors suggest variations to TALC research. Hunt and Stronza (2014) suggest that increased participation in tourism leads to more favourable outcomes and attitudes among the residents of a developing country. Andriotis (2006) proposes using morphological change models in coastal areas. Authors also suggested using a scalable and fad life cycle (Moss et al., 2008) and a cyclical TALC model (Whitfield, 2009). Chapman and Light (2016) suggest researching resorts at the destination as assemblages, each having its life cycle. Yang et al. (2014) analyse social harmony with the concept of just destination in tourism planning and management.

Table 1. TALC Studies

Methodology	Authors
Qualitative Studies	
Case Studies	Adamiak, 2020; Aguiló et al., 2005; Andriotis, 2006; Chapman and Light, 2016; Cohen-Hattab and Shoval, 2004; Essex et al., 2004; Heuwinkel and Venter, 2018; Hunt and Stronza, 2014; Ivars I Baidal et al., 2013; Kapczyński and Szromek, 2008; Lee and Weaver, 2014; Liu et al., 2016; Moss et al., 2008; Omar et al., 2014; Omar et al., 2015; Povilanskas and Armaitiene, 2011; Strom and Kerstein, 2015; Weiermair et al., 2007; Whitfield, 2009; Yang et al., 2014; Zhong et al., 2008
Comparative Analysis	Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Henderson, 2008; Kristjánsdóttir, 2016; Lundberg, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015
Theory-Based	Cochrane, 2010; Garay and Cànoves, 2011; Kozak and Martin, 2012; Lane and Kastenholz, 2015; Ma and Hassink, 2013; Oreja Rodríguez et al., 2008; Pavlovich, 2003, 2014; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Tang and Jang, 2010; Weiermair et al., 2006; Zahra and Ryan, 2007
Conceptual	Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2015; Avdimiotis and Poulaki, 2019; Butler, 2006, 2009a, 2009b, 2011, 2012, 2014, 2019; Butler, Gilal and Weidenfeld, 2012; Fan et al., 2019; Gouveia and Rodrigues, 2005; Kubickova and Martin, 2020; Lozano et al., 2008; Marsiglio, 2018; McKercher, 2005; Papatheodorou, 2004; Weaver, 2012
Model (Theory-based)	Cohen, 2007; Ma and Hassink, 2014; Pritchard and Lee, 2011
Quantitative Studies	
Quantitative analysis based on Surveys	Cruz-Milán, 2019; Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009; Ferreira and Hunter, 2017; Lee and Jan, 2019; Nazneen et al., 2020; Yun and Zhang, 2017
Quantitative analysis based on Time Series	Baggio and Sainaghi, 2016; Báez-García et al., 2018; Cole, 2012; Karplus and Krakover, 2005; Philander and Roe, 2013; Sastre, et al., 2015
Model (Quantitative)	Albaladejo et al., 2016; Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2017; Albaladejo and González-Martínez, 2019; Almeida and Correia, 2010; Falk and Lin, 2018; Moore and Whitehall, 2005; Pratt, 2011; Romão et al., 2013
Mixed Methodology	Chhabra, 2010; Cole, 2009; Lee and Weaver, 2014; Pulina et al., 2006

Source: Own Elaboration

3.1.2 Comparative study

Bardolet and Sheldon (2008) compared two similar archipelagos at Balearic Island and Hawaii, experiencing maturity stage. The authors discussed sustainability and ecological issues and suggested monitoring tourism activities by the government and the private sector. Henderson (2008) compared Singapore and Dubai, two destinations experiencing a completely different growth cycle. The author supported the use of the TALC model. Lundberg (2015) used a case study methodology and survey to compare three destinations in West Sweden. The author concluded that the life cycle of tourism destinations is more complex and chaotic. In another study, social exchange theory and resident attitude were measured to evaluate two destinations in Algarve (Portugal) and Huelva (Spain) (Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015). Finally, Kristjánsdóttir (2016) compares Norway and Iceland's tourism development to other OECD countries and evaluates the potential tourist's peaks. The studies use a mixed methodology, including both qualitative and quantitative analysis.

3.1.3 Theory

The authors use several theories to map the destination evolution pattern. Some studies support the TALC and suggest integrated models (Russell & Faulkner, 2004; Weiermair et al., 2006; Oreja Rodríguez et al., 2008; Cochrane, 2010; Tang & Jang, 2010; Garay & Cànoves, 2011; Kozak & Martin, 2012). Others negate the TALC and suggest a different theory (Pavlovich, 2003; Zahra & Ryan, 2007; Tang & Jang, 2010; Povilanskas & Armaitiene, 2011; Ma & Hassink, 2013). Lane and Kastenholz (2015) review the literature on rural tourism using the TALC model. A study of entrepreneurship education in the Alpine region and the TALC is also done (Weiermair et al., 2006). Table 2 represents the different theoretical perspectives presented with TALC research.

Table 2. Theories Integrated with TALC Research

Theory	Articles
Complexity and Chaos Theory	Chhabra, 2010; Cole, 2009; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Tang and Jang, 2010; Zahra and Ryan, 2007
Regulation Theory	Garay and Cànoves, 2011
Network Theory	Pavlovich, 2003, 2014
Evolutionary Economic Geography-Path Dependence and Coevolution	Ma and Hassink, 2013, 2014
Teleology	Oreja Rodríguez et al., 2008; Romao et al., 2013
Customer Pyramid (Loyalty)	Kozak and Martin, 2012
Economic Growth Theory	Lozano et al., 2008
Social Exchange Theory	Chhabra, 2010; Fan et al., 2019
Doxey's Irridex, Ecotourism Cycle	Hunt and Stronza, 2014
Force Field Analysis	Butler, 2009b
Sharing Economy	Avdimiotis and Poulaki, 2019; Adamiak, 2020
Resilience Cycle	Cochrane, 2010
Plog's Venturesomeness	Cruz-Milán, 2019
Social Disruption	Chhabra, 2010
Stakeholder Theory	Nazneen et al., 2020
Porters Competitive Strategy	Weiermair et al., 2006

Source: Own Elaboration

3.1.4 Conceptual

Most conceptual papers propose using another theory /model along with the TALC. McKercher (2005) presents his opinion on the application of the TALC. The author argues that tourism destinations are a product class and discusses the principles for the TALC research. Authors have suggested economic growth models (Gouveia & Rodrigues, 2005; Lozano et al., 2008), integration and study of tourism organisations (Butler & Weidenfeld, 2012; Marsiglio, 2018; Kubickova & Martin, 2020), the study of endogenous and exogenous variables (Albaladejo & Martínez-García, 2017; Marsiglio, 2018), evolutionary economic geography (Papatheodorou, 2004), and sharing economy (Avdimiotis & Poulaki, 2019) as some of the ways to research TALC. Albaladejo and Martínez-García (2017) and Marsiglio (2018) suggested innovation as a variable for analysing tourism growth. Weaver (2012) posited three paths by which the destination can achieve sustainable mass tourism. The organic path is similar to TALC, whereas induced and incremental paths need to be planned. Fan et al. (2018) use social exchange theory to justify Doxey's Irridex concept through the utility maximisation model. Research and clarifications on the aspects of the TALC are highlighted by Butler (2004; 2006, 2009a; 2009b; 2011, 2012, 2014, 2019). The author broadened the scope of TALC to include change over time, the process of change, change initiators, management for long term perspective actions, spatial components, and universal applicability as vital variables for the TALC research.

3.1.5 Surveys

Identifying residents' attitudes toward destination growth has been the most used basis of conducting surveys. The surveys are based on impacts of tourism (Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009), perception of infrastructure, local facilities and sustainability (Lee & Jan, 2019). Ferreira and Hunter (2017) use the weighted framework and TALC to analyse the development of wine tourism in South Africa. Yun and Zhang (2017) analysed conservation attitudes based on local perception and related positive feelings.

3.1.6 Quantitative analysis

Authors have used tourism time-series data such as demand and trends in tourists arrivals and accommodation. The analysis includes the use of regression analysis like stochastic analysis (Karplus & Krakover, 2005), 5th-degree polynomial (Kristjánsdóttir, 2016), logarithmic (Báez-García et al., 2018), trend analysis (Pulina et al., 2006; Cole, 2012) to TALC. Sastre et al. (2015) used the income elasticity of demand (Gini Index) to analyse the effectiveness of tourism legislation and policies. Research-based on horizontal visibility graph networks was used to identify critical turning points in the destination growth model (Baggio & Sainaghi, 2016). Philander and Roe (2013) suggested labour cost as an essential factor for tourism destination competitiveness. The studies supported using the integrative approach for analysing destination evolution patterns.

3.1.7 Mixed methodology

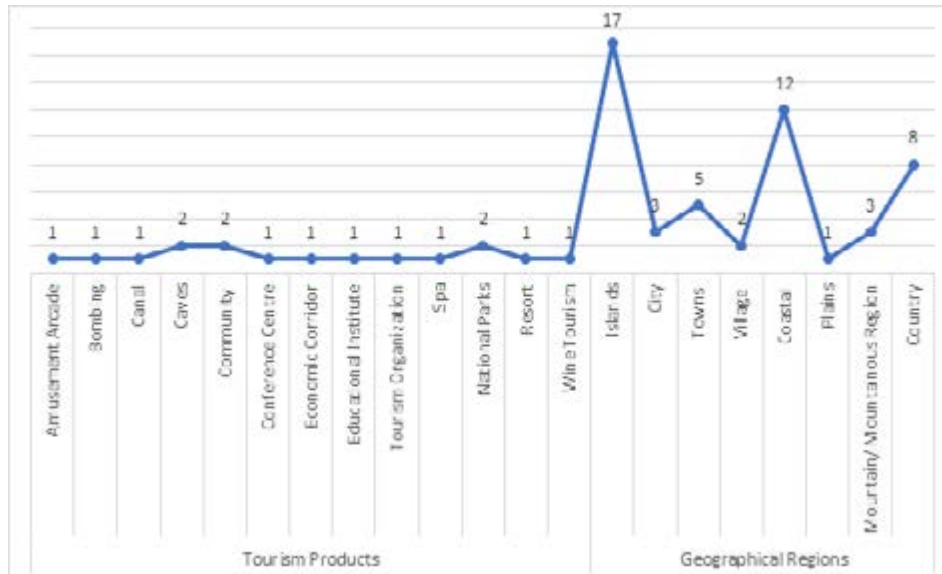
A few authors have combined more than one technique to map the pattern of growth. Cole (2009) applied a discreet logistic equation to highlight chaos in the development of the destination. Lee and Weaver (2014) analysed TALC indicators and explored the resident's satisfaction. Plog's venturesome concept was tested with the consumption needs of American citizens travelling to Mexico (Cruz-Milán, 2019). Chhabra (2010) used social exchange theories and interviewed senior and young citizens to measure residents' attitudes. Finally, Pulina et al. (2006) assessed agrotourism development through case study and trend analysis. The finding supports the use of the TALC framework with other methodologies.

3.1.8 Models

The econometric models used time series data on tourism demand, expenditure, tourists' arrivals and income (Moore & Whitehall, 2005; Almeida & Correia, 2010; Pratt, 2011; Albaladejo et al., 2016; Albaladejo & Martínez-García, 2017; Albaladejo & González-Martínez, 2019). Congestion at tourist places is also analysed as a variable (Cole, 2012; Albaladejo et al., 2016; Albaladejo & González-Martínez, 2019). The authors posit the integration of the model with the TALC (Moore & Whitehall, 2005; Pratt, 2011; Pritchard & Lee, 2011). A few authors consider the limitations of TALC and propose a novel method of measuring destination growth, like econometric estimation and multi logistic growth model (Almeida & Correia, 2010; Albaladejo et al., 2016; Albaladejo & Martínez-García, 2017; Albaladejo & González-Martínez, 2019). Cohen (2007), Pritchard and Lee (2011), and Ma and Hassink (2014) have used theoretical models and advocated an integrative methodology.

3.1.9 Unit of analysis

TALC analysis includes analysis of different types of tourist areas. The studies vary from the more traditional use of TALC at coastal areas (Andriotis, 2006; Albaladejo & Martínez-García, 2017) to analysing terrorism events (Moss et al., 2008) or specific tourism products (Kapczyński & Szromek, 2008; Whitfield, 2009; Chapman & Light, 2016) and also natural disasters like the tsunami in Thailand (Cohen, 2007). Figure 2 provides information on the units of analysis for TALC research categorised as tourism products and geographical regions, and appendix 2 represents the countries where TALC research is carried out.

Figure 2. Unit of Analysis

Source: Own Elaboration

3.1.10 Variables

Authors have used different variables at different locations. It is argued that variables need to be destination-specific to understand the growth pattern thoroughly. Berry (2001) stressed that the variables under study depend on several factors that will be different for each region and depend on the researcher's informed decision. Table 3 describes the different variables used by the authors while applying the TALC to individual destinations.

Table 3. Variables in the TALC Research

Variables	#	Articles
Tourists Arrivals	16	Almeida and Correia, 2010; Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2017; Albaladejo et al., 2016; Aguiló et al., 2005; Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Cohen–Hattab and Shoval, 2004; Fan et al., 2019; Kapczyński and Szromek, 2008; Kristjánsdóttir, 2016; Lee and Weaver, 2014; Lozano et al., 2008; Ma and Hassink, 2014; Moore and Whitehall, 2005; Papatheodorou, 2004; Pratt, 2011; Zhong et al., 2008
Historical Analysis	16	Andriotis, 2006; Cohen, 2007; Chapman and Light, 2016; Cochrane, 2010; Garay and Cànoves, 2011; Henderson, 2008; Kapczyński and Szromek, 2008; Lee and Weaver, 2014; Ma and Hassink, 2013, 2014; Omar et al., 2014; Omar et al., 2015; Papatheodorou, 2004; Pavlovich, 2014; Tang and Jang, 2010; Zhong et al., 2008
Accommodation	12	Almeida and Correia, 2010; Aguiló et al., 2005; Cohen–Hattab and Shoval, 2004; Cole, 2009, 2012; Falk and Lin, 2018; Henderson, 2008; Ivars I Baidal et al., 2013; Karplus and Krakover, 2005; Kristjánsdóttir, 2016; Lozano et al., 2008; Romão et al., 2012
Role of Government/ Policy	11	Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Cohen–Hattab and Shoval, 2004; Henderson, 2008; Ivars I Baidal et al., 2013; Kristjánsdóttir, 2016; Kubickova and Martin, 2020; Ma and Hassink, 2013, 2014; Pavlovich, 2003; Pulina et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2014
Host Attitude	11	Andriotis, 2006; Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Chhabra, 2010; Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009; Hunt and Stronza, 2014; Lee and Weaver, 2014; Lee and Jan, 2019; Lundberg, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015; Yun and Zhang, 2017; Zhong et al., 2008
Tourism Demand	9	Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2017; Báez-García et al., 2018; Baggio and Sainaghi, 2016; Cole, 2009; Liu et al., 2016; Moore and Whitehall, 2005; Philander and Roe, 2013; Sastre et al., 2015; Zhong et al., 2008
Tourism Products	8	Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Cole, 2012; Henderson, 2008; Ma and Hassink, 2013, 2014; McKercher, 2005; Pritchard and Lee, 2011; Whitfield, 2009
Economic Factors	6	Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Gouveia and Rodrigues, 2005; Philander and Roe, 2013; Liu et al., 2016; Romão et al., 2012; Zhong et al., 2008
Tourism Organisations	6	Ma and Hassink, 2013, 2014; Oreja Rodríguez et al., 2008; Pavlovich, 2003, 2014; Weiermair et al., 2007; Zahra and Ryan, 2007
Tourists Perception	5	Aguiló et al., 2005; Andriotis, 2006; Cohen–Hattab and Shoval, 2004; Lee and Weaver, 2014; Zhong et al., 2008
Sales and Revenue	4	Cole, 2009; Falk and Lin, 2018; Pratt, 2011; Strom and Kerstein, 2015
Land Use	4	Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Ferreira and Hunter, 2017; Papatheodorou, 2004; Romão et al., 2013

Endogenous and Exogenous Forces	4	Karplus and Krakover, 2005; Zahra and Ryan, 2007; Chapman and Light, 2016; Marsiglio, 2018
Social and Cultural Factors	3	Strom and Kerstein, 2015; Yang et al., 2014; Zhong et al., 2008
Politico-Legal Factors	3	Liu et al., 2016; Oreja Rodríguez et al., 2008; Zhong et al., 2008
Tourist Expenditure	3	Aguiló et al., 2005; Cole, 2012; Pratt, 2011
TALC Indicators	2	Chhabra, 2010; Lee and Weaver, 2014
Infrastructure Development	2	Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2017; Kristjánsdóttir, 2016
Marketing Plan	2	Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2017; Whitfield, 2009
Role of Entrepreneur	2	Ma and Hassink, 2014; Russell and Faulkner, 2004
Environment	2	Essex et al, 2004; Ma and Hassink, 2013
Sustainability	2	Hunt and Stronza, 2014; Lee and Jan, 2019
Tourism Scape	2	Povilanskas and Armaitiene, 2011; Strom and Kerstein, 2015
Labour Cost	1	Philander and Roe, 2013
Tourist Needs	1	Cruz-Milán, 2019
Tourist Consumption	1	Kozak and Martin, 2012
Workforce	1	Hunt and Stronza, 2014; Romão et al., 2012
Transport	1	Henderson, 2008

Source: Own Elaboration

3.1.11 Concerns with TALC research

The authors have discussed a few difficulties while doing TALC research. At the same time, others give possible solutions to overcome those problems. Table 4 presents the problems with TALC research

Table 4. Concerns with TALC Research

Concern	Raised by	Solution	Given by
Identification of stages	Adamiak, 2020; Lundberg, 2015; Papatheodorou, 2004	Estimation of stages based on the standard deviation of growth	Haywood, 1986
Data availability	Adamiak, 2020; Báez-García et al., 2018; Kubickova and Martin, 2020	Destination Specific	Berry, 2001
Identifying variables	Adamiak, 2020	Destination Specific	Berry, 2001
Time Frame	Adamiak, 2020; Butler, 2014;	Destination Specific	Berry, 2001; McKercher, 2005
Practical Utility (Theoretical Model)	Aguiló et al., 2005	TALC as an analytical tool.	McKercher, 2005
Calculating Carrying Capacity	Butler, 2009a, 2019; Ma and Hassink, 2013	Depends on the type of carrying capacity	Mowforth and Mutt, 2009; Swarbrooke, 1999
Destination as a product	Chapman and Light, 2016; Cole, 2009, 2012; Ma and Hassink, 2013	Destination as a product class having multiple attractions	Butler, 2009a; McKercher, 2005

Source: Own Elaboration

3.2 Future Research Areas

The conflicting literature provides an opportunity for further research into the TALC (Pavlovich, 2003; Zahra & Ryan, 2007; Albaladejo et al., 2016). Table 5 shows the future research areas suggested by the authors. This paper also suggests a few propositions for TALC from the supply side perspective and believes

that the proposed research areas would help the current scholars get new perspectives on the TALC model. Figure 3 presents a model, including variables proposed for TALC research at a tourism destination.

Table 5. Future Research Areas Suggested by Authors

Research Areas	Authors
Host Perception	Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009; Chhabra, 2010; Lundberg, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015; Yun and Zhang, 2017; Fan et al., 2019; Lee and Jan, 2019
Tourist Perception	Tang and Jang, 2010; Nazneen et al., 2020
Employee Perception	Hunt and Stronza, 2014
Peer to Peer Accommodation	Avdimiotis and Poulaki, 2019; Adamiak, 2020
Role of Government	Liu et al., 2016; Kubickova and Martin, 2020
Competitiveness	Philander and Roe, 2013; Kubickova and Martin, 2020
Structural Changes	Gouveia and Rodrigues, 2005; Marsiglio, 2018
Tourism Products/ Attractions	Heuwinkel and Venter, 2018; Pritchard and Lee, 2011
Types of Tourism and Development	Ferreira and Hunter, 2017; Lane and Kastenholtz, 2015; Sastre et al., 2015; Tang and Jang, 2010
Tourism Investments	Liu et al., 2016
Tourism Systems	Butler and Weidenfeld, 2012; Ma and Hassink, 2013, 2014; Pritchard and Lee, 2011
Tourism Impacts	Pratt, 2011
Triggers of Change	Butler, 2014
Managing and Transition of stages	Butler, 2014; Liu et al., 2016
Local Community Participation	Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015
Politics of Development	Butler, 2004; 2014
Entrepreneurship	Butler, 2004; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Weiermair et al., 2007
Economic Growth Model	Lozano et al., 2008
Mediating and Moderating Variables	Ma and Hassink, 2013

Source: Own Elaboration

3.2.1 Variables for identifying TALC stages

Pearce (1998), while researching the tourist district in Paris, stated that the popularity of a particular destination is reason enough to research that destination. Many authors have suggested different geographical areas for TALC research (Ma & Hassink, 2014; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015; Albaladejo et al., 2016; Baggio & Sainaghi, 2016; Báez-García et al., 2018; Adamiak, 2020). TALC research involves inquiries in developed countries. Coastal areas are at the core of TALC research. An investigation of other types of tourism areas is limited. Very few studies are on developing and third world countries. Tourism is said to be “the passport to development.” It needs to be investigated how the development took place and whether it is sustainable. The research on developing countries could bring out a different perspective on the TALC concerning planning and decision-making processes. Tourism destinations can be compared and contrasted with other famous destinations to draw generalisations. Investigating the fast-growing economies like Taiwan, UAE, and Chile can also provide insights and a new viewpoint on TALC research.

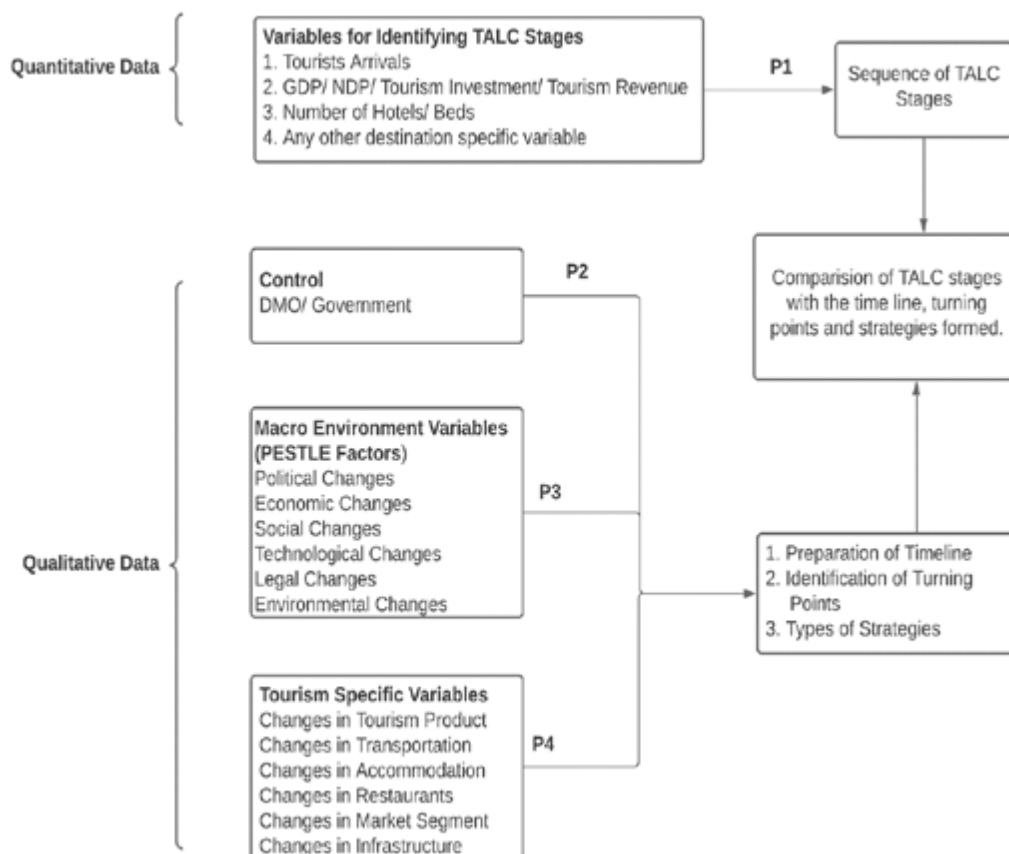
Future TALC research should involve triangulating data based on qualitative and quantitative analysis. The determination of the stages of the TALC is based on time series data specific to the destination. Authors have used the number of tourists arrivals, gross domestic product, net domestic product, tourism investment/ income, number of hotels/hotel beds as some of the variables to identify the TALC stages.

The use of an appropriate variable is necessary to analyse the destination growth. For example, concerning GDP and NDP, it is typically suggested that GDP provides an economic growth pattern of a place. However, for mapping, the welfare of a destination NDP is more appropriate (Hulten, 1992; Spant, 2003). Similarly, accommodation capacity is suggested to be a more appropriate variable than tourists arrivals (Romão et al., 2012; Baggio & Sainaghi, 2016; Falk & Lin, 2018; Marsiglio, 2018). However, the use of the data set is destination-specific and depends on data availability. Multiple variables can be used to map and compare the TALC graphs. In addition, data can be correlated to check the relationship between variables and the growth of the destination. Thus, the following proposition is drawn to identify the sequence of stages of the TALC.

Proposition 1: The stages of the TALC at a tourism destination are similar to the stages of the TALC suggested by Butler.

Individual stages of the TALC can be analysed. TALC research includes research based on the consolidation and post-consolidation stages. Investigating other stages like exploration, development, and rejuvenation merit an investigation. The development stage is the most critical stage for the destination. Sustainable development of a destination is a big challenge for tourism planners. Research on tourist arrivals, generating markets, trending tourism products, and tourist spending at the development stage can be evaluated. The development stages could be strategically planned for the destination so that the benefits of the development can be shared by the local community and the tourist equally. Research on archetypal destination's development strategies can give visions to developing and underdeveloped countries. The development and rejuvenation strategies have scope for investigation on whether they are deliberate or ad-hoc developments. Authors have also suggested analysing the early stages of development (Almeida & Correia, 2010; Adamiak, 2020).

Figure 3. Future Research Propositions



3.2.2 Control of tourism/ strategic decision making

Getz (1992) advocated the use of the TALC for tourism planning. Authors have used marketing plans with the TALC (Whitfield, 2009; Albaladejo & Martínez-García, 2017). However, very few papers use tourism plans to analyse destination development (Cohen-Hattab & Shoval, 2010). The research evaluating the tourism plans based on the TALC is also neglected. TALC can investigate tourism plans, timings of the plans, implementation details, and impacts on the destination. The central or local government is at the heart of tourism planning activity for a developing country (Hall, 2008). Tourism requires investments in the infrastructural project for transportation, accommodation and public facilities. The private sector is often not in a position to put in investments. Thus, the government has to invest public money in providing the necessary infrastructure and facilities. The government is also responsible for forming policies conducive to tourism growth. Hence, future TALC research would require studying the role of the government in forming tourism policies. An inquiry into the government's decision-making process could give vital information on destination development. The government has many constitutional bodies which carry out its work. It is essential to recognise and evaluate the role and function of these bodies. The role of government and destination management organisations can be assessed along with the TALC stages. The process and pattern of planning in the development of the destination can be mapped on the TALC. They can be compared and contrasted to bring out critical differences and insights into their functioning. The government's role in forming policies in tourism development like coastal zone management plans and regional development plans and its effect on TALC can be evaluated. TALC can be used as a tool for tourism planning audits.

Strategies involving the local communities as stakeholders in the decision-making process can be analysed. Similarly, the role of the public sector or private sector stakeholders in the planning process and its impact on the TALC could be explored. Furthermore, the role of regional organisations and local bodies can also be mapped on the TALC, as most decisions concerning tourism may be taken at the regional or local level. Finally, evaluating how decision-making power is shared between regional and central governments could also have implications on the development of the destination. Thus, the following proposition is drawn concerning evaluating the role of the state and the central government in tourism planning and decision-making.

Proposition 2: Strategic decision-making in tourism is the responsibility of the state government rather than the central government.

Butler (2014) supported an integrative approach to TALC research. McKercher (2005) suggested using strategic management tools like the BCG matrix for destination development. Cooper (1992) and Baum (1998) proposed using the TALC for strategic planning. However, the authors did not find any study that evaluates tourism strategies using the TALC. The research gap on strategic tourism management could be bridged by planning, implementing, and evaluating tourism strategies using the TALC (Cooper, 1992; Henderson, 2008). Strategies are the cause and effect of the destination's life cycle and are developed for each stage of the life cycle to prolong the life of the destination (Kotler, Bowen, Makens & Baloglu, 2018). Thus, the types of strategy formed for the destination for each stage of the TALC could be identified. The strategies required to lessen the negative impacts of tourism can be researched based on each life cycle stage. Strategy evaluation based on TALC stages, tourists' segments, and tourism products can be undertaken. The turning points, periods of strategic change, and the types of strategies formed at the destination can be mapped on the TALC. Deliberate and emergent strategy analysis (Mintzberg, 2007) based on the stages of the TALC could give an insight into the planning process. Developmental and preventive strategies based on the different stages of the TALC at the destination could also be explored.

3.2.3 Variables for TALC analysis

PESTLE analysis that includes studying all elements within and outside the destination is not found in TALC literature. Many authors have suggested the use of longitudinal data and different data sets for TALC research (Baggio & Sainaghi, 2016; Yun & Zhang, 2017; Báez-García et al., 2018; Adamiak, 2020). Authors have advocated using exogenous and endogenous factors for researching the life cycle (Butler,

2009b; Almeida & Correia, 2010; Fan et al., 2019), but very few have explored a combination of the external or internal factors at one destination. Tourism is a multidisciplinary subject and impacts every aspect of a destination. The government's economic, social, environmental, and legal policies impact tourism and vice versa. Tourism planning usually happens in the context of an organisation (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993; Porter, 2002; Hall, 2008). Hence, scanning the external environment for political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental (PESTLE) factors will provide information on the changes in the past. The chronology of changes in PESTLE factors would involve both internal and external analysis for the destination.

The political situation of a country or a region is a determining factor in tourism growth. A few authors have investigated the political factors at the destination (Oreja Rodríguez et al., 2008; Zhong et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016). Political factors can be investigated to determine how the policies have impacted tourism at the destination and whether the international political environment had any role in tourists arrivals. Legal policies regarding foreign tourists, trade practices, and visa regulations have influenced tourism. An investigation into the types of policies formed by the government, especially concerning foreign tourists, will help to get vital information on the TALC.

The economic factors are most researched with TALC (Gouveia & Rodrigues, 2005; Zhong et al., 2008; Bardolet & Sheldon, 2008; Cole, 2009; Liu et al., 2016; Lee & Jan, 2019). Tourism and the economy have a direct relationship with one another. Authors have suggested four hypotheses related to tourism and economic growth (Lee & Chang, 2007; Ohlan, 2017; Dash, Tiwari & Singh, 2018). Tourism led growth hypothesis, conservation hypothesis, feedback hypothesis and neutral hypothesis (Ohlan, 2017). The authors have a contrasting view of the nature of the relationship between tourism and economics. Many agree to a feedback relationship between tourism and economics in a developing country (Katircioglu, 2009; Seetanah, 2011; Yazdi, Salehi & Soheilzad, 2017). Research also shows that the financial benefits of tourism supersede all the ill effects of tourism in a developing country. Hence, the type of hypothesis applicable to the region needs an investigation along with the TALC.

Technology, as a variable, is not much researched in the TALC literature. Gore, Borde and Desai (2021) investigated the technology strategies formed at the destination and TALC research. The authors concluded that technological factors were instrumental in changing the nature of tourism at the destination. Advances in technology brought in new tourist segments and products. Developments in technology provide new forms of tourism that are more carbon neutral. An investigation into how technology will change the destination life cycle can be carried out. The evaluation of changes in the landscape using GIS and Landsat satellites is also not found in the literature. Technology roadmaps along the TALC stages could be developed to manage destination competitiveness.

Tourism has a substantial effect on the development of villages and the lifestyle of the people. In addition, tourism changes the land use pattern and traditional occupations of people living on the coast. These fundamental changes in the social structure merit an investigation (Russell & Faulkner, 2004; Zhong et al., 2008; Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009; Romao et al., 2013; Lundberg, 2015). The role of the government in the socio-economic transformation of the destination also needs to be investigated. Tourism also undeniably impacts the environment. Therefore, a continual study is required to investigate the effect of tourism development on the beaches, dunes, and weather patterns. Carrying capacity as a construct for TALC research is suggested by Butler (2019) and Diedrich and García-Buades (2009), while Kristjánsdóttir (2016) suggests identifying limits for tourists. However, evaluation of the carrying capacity of the destination is not found while reviewing papers. Therefore, the following proposition is drawn to analyse the PESTLE factors.

Proposition 3: PESTLE variables have a relationship with the development of tourism and TALC.

3.2.4 Destination specific variables

Several variables require an investigation with the TALC, for example, the growth in transportation, infrastructure and changes in attractions at the destination. Transport infrastructure development affects how tourists perceive a destination (Henderson, 2008). Transport infrastructure includes international standard entry points, fast roads and bridges, standard accommodation facilities, and a reliable

inter-modal transportation system. The role of transportation (within the destination and transportation used for transit) in the development of the tourism region needs an investigation (Bardolet & Shelodon, 2008). The authors have researched attractions and accommodation units at the destination (Pritchard & Lee, 2011; Romão et al., 2012; Cole, 2012; Ma & Hassink, 2013, 2014; Marsiglio, 2018). However, there is no study done on the restaurant sector. There is scope to research food and accommodation outlets individually and as a sector. Based on the types of attractions, TALC can map the pattern of changes to the attraction and tourist area. The destination life cycle can be drawn based on the life cycle of all the attractions. The number of attractions at a place or type of attractions could be used as a variable (Ma & Hassink, 2013; Sastre et al., 2015; Heuwinkel & Venter, 2018). Manmade or natural attractions can also be evaluated in the TALC. Future research objectives could examine how different tourism products are differentiated in the life cycle. Destination management organisations and constituents of the tourism system, including accommodation, transport operators, restaurants, can be evaluated as separate entities on the TALC. Hence, the following proposition is drawn

Proposition 4: The tourism-specific infrastructure improvement positively impacts the TALC at the destination.

TALC research concerning tourist segments has focussed on tourists generating markets. The TALC can be mapped on the types of tourists (domestic or foreign) and the purpose of their visit. Different tourists segments and how they have influenced tourism growth at the destination is also not given much attention. TALC research based on tourist segments would involve mapping the life cycle stage of each segment separately. The segments could be based on nationality (domestic and foreign), interests (leisure, business, adventure, heritage, religion, visiting friend and family), spending power, lifestyle (preference for star category hotels), duration of stay (weekend tourist and long stays), number of visits (first-time visitors, regulars) and tourist having second homes. Tourist consumption patterns or tourist experiences are evaluated to analyse the stage of TALC (Aguiló et al., 2005; Zhong et al., 2008; Kozak & Martin, 2012; Lee & Weaver, 2014; Cruz-Milán, 2019). A comparison study with tourist typology models (Cohen, 1972; Plog, 1974) that capture the tourist consumption patterns could analyse similarities and differences in tourism development. The research on each of these segments will have different implications for the TALC. Also, each tourist segment would require different strategic interventions. Research on the types of strategies formed for each market segment will help enrich the TALC literature. Destination managers or governments may also develop specific tourism products for specific tourist segments. A mapping of the development pattern of a particular tourist segment with a particular tourism product can be done to assess the most impactful tourists.

TALC can be used as a predictive tool (Butler, 2004). However, the forecasts are not used for developing future roadmaps. Future positioning strategies based on the present and future competitors and the stage of the TALC can be identified. Positioning strategies can also be predicted for other stages like rejuvenation or development. The destination positioning could also be decided based on the stage of the TALC. Benchmarking, along with the TALC, can help a tourism destination establish standards and increase its competitive advantage. The literature review did not highlight any paper that used benchmarking as a tool for TALC research. Benchmarking helps assess tourism sustainability and reorganise tourism activities (Kozak, 2002; Assaf & Dwyer, 2013).

4. Research Implications, Conclusion and Limitations

TALC research is a retrospective analysis that gives us essential details about the growth of the tourism area. The analysis based on the TALC model is one of the most researched areas under the tourism literature. Despite the minor problems in operationalising the TALC, authors have used it to map the pattern of tourism development. During the early stages of the TALC research, the studies mainly concentrated on different geographical areas. New studies have integrated and used different qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The TALC model cannot be generalised based on variables or the sequence of stages, as each tourism area is unique. However, similar destinations can be compared and contrasted for

getting valuable insights into the development process. The life cycle span depends on tourism planning and policy initiatives at the destination. TALC research helps to bring about a complete understanding of the past. It helps the stakeholders involved in tourism planning evaluate and learn from past strategies. The TALC can also help predict the tourism area's future trajectory through various forecasting methods. Destination managers can use this information to avoid a decline.

There is ample scope for TALC research in Asian and African countries, specifically developing economies. Comparative studies, case studies, integrative analyses involving the TALC can be done. Such research will provide a new standpoint and expand the literature on TALC. The research model presented will help identify different research areas within the parameters of the TALC. Multidisciplinary research that links TALC to strategic management, sociology, political science, environmental studies, or technology will provide a better understanding of the growth of the tourism area. The mapping of the growth pattern would help the tourism planners evaluate their strategies and use the information from the past to formulate better strategic roadmaps in the future. The interrelated elements of PESTLE analysis would help to understand the antecedents of growth.

The authors have attempted to present vast literature on TALC concisely. Nevertheless, this research is not free from limitations. The study uses a systematic research review technique for analysing the TALC research. The results and analysis of this study were restricted to the list of journal articles that satisfied the criteria. Therefore, the analysed review cannot be generalised to the entire volume of TALC research from 2003 onwards. Employing other databases, articles in other languages, working papers, and books would augment the findings of this paper. Despite the limitation, it is hoped that the future research areas discussed in this study would help researchers advance towards new avenues in TALC research.

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Appendix

List of Journals and Articles Disseminating TALC Research

Journal	#	Articles
Tourism Management	19	Aguiló, Alegre and Sard, 2005; Albaladejo, González-Martínez and Martínez-García, 2016; Baggio and Sainaghi, 2016; Chapman and Light, 2016; Cole, 2012; Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009; Ivars I Baidal, Rodríguez Sánchez and Vera Rebello, 2013; Kapczyński and Szromek, 2008; Kozak and Martin, 2012; Kubickova and Martin, 2020; Lee and Jan, 2019; Oreja Rodríguez, Parra-López and Yanes-Estévez, 2008; Pavlovich, 2003, 2014; Pulina, Dettori and Paba, 2006; Vargas-Sánchez, Oom do Valle, Da Costa Mendes and Albino Silva, 2015; Weaver, 2012; Zahra and Ryan, 2007; Zhong, Deng and Xiang, 2008
Annals of Tourism Research	11	Andriotis, 2006; Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008; Cole, 2009; Garay and Cànoves, 2011; Ma and Hassink, 2013; Moore and Whitehall, 2005; Papatheodorou, 2004; Povilanskas and Armaitiene, 2011; Pratt, 2011; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Strom and Kerstein, 2015
Tourism Economics	10	Albaladejo and Martínez-García, 2015, 2017; Almeida and Correia, 2010; Falk and Lin, 2018; Fan, Liu and Qiu, 2019; Gouveia and Rodrigues, 2005; Lozano, Gomez and Rey-Maqueira, 2008; Marsiglio, 2018; Philander and Roe, 2013; Sastre, Hormaeche and Villar, 2015
Tourism Recreation Research	5	Butler 2009a; Butler and Weidenfeld, 2012; Cochrane, 2010; McKercher, 2005; Weiermair, Peters and Schuckert, 2007
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	5	Essex, Kent and Newnham, 2004; Hunt and Stronza, 2014; Lane and Kastenholz, 2015; Liu, Vogt, Lupi, He, Ouyang and Liu, 2016; Yang Ryan and Zhang, 2014
Tourism Analysis	5	Chhabra, 2010; Cohen, 2007; Moss, Ryan and Moss, 2008; Pritchard and Lee, 2011; Whitfield, 2009
Tourism Geographies	4	Cohen-Hattab and Shoval, 2004; Ferreira and Hunter, 2017; Ma and Hassink, 2014; Tang and Jang, 2010
Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	3	Adamiak, 2020; Kristjánsdóttir, 2016; Lundberg, 2015
Tourism Review	3	Báez-García, Flores-Muñoz and Gutiérrez-Barroso, 2018; Butler, 2019; Nazneen, Xu and Ud Din, 2020
Current Issues in Tourism	2	Albaladejo and González-Martínez, 2019; Romão, Guerreiro and Rodrigues, 2013
International Journal of Culture Tourism and Hospitality Research	2	Avdimiotis and Poulaki, 2019; Omar, Othman and Mohamed, 2014
Tourism Planning and Development	2	Omar, Othman, Mohamed and Bahauddin, 2015; Yun and Zhang, 2017
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	2	Cruz-Milán, 2019; Henderson, 2008
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	1	Lee and Weaver, 2014
Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism	1	Weiermair, Siller and Mossenlechner, 2006
Journal of Sports and Tourism	1	Heuwinkel and Venter, 2018
Tourism and Hospitality Research	1	Karplus and Krakover, 2005
Others	6	Butler, 2004; 2006; 2009b; 2011; 2012; 2014
Total:	83	

TALC Research Based on Geographical Area

Region	Publications	Percentage
Alpine Destinations	2	3%
Australia	2	3%
Belize	1	1%
Caribbean Island	1	1%
China	6	8%
Denmark	2	3%
Europe	1	1%
Greece	1	1%
Hawaii	2	3%
Iceland	1	1%
India	1	1%
Indonesia	2	3%
Israel	3	4%
Italy	2	3%
Korea	1	1%
Laos	1	1%
Lithuania	1	1%
Malaysia	2	3%
New Zealand	3	4%
Norway	2	3%
Nicaragua	1	1%
OECD	1	1%
Pakistan	1	1%
Portugal	2	3%
Singapore	1	1%
South Africa	2	3%
Spain	12	16%
Sri Lanka,	1	1%
Sweden	2	3%
Switzerland	1	1%
Taiwan	1	1%
Thailand	1	1%
Turkey	1	1%
United Arab Emirates	1	1%
United Kingdom	3	4%
United States of America	4	5%

Source: Own Elaboration

Positive Psychology, Well-Being, and Mindfulness: A Successful Partnership Towards the Development of Meaningful Tourist Experiences

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is going through a very challenging phase due to the current pandemic situation. In this context, psychology and tourism are a successful partnership to develop meaningful experiences considering tourists' needs, desires, and expectations. This interconnection is observed through the application of positive psychology in the context of meaningful tourist experiences. This approach comprises adequate indicators to explore the tourism field from the perspective of individuals' well-being. Positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness constitute the theoretical foundations of this article, which intends to understand how they are intertwined to fulfil one goal: developing meaningful tourist experiences. This article offers a theoretical reflection on the connections between the referred theoretical foundations. In so doing, it proposes a preliminary diagram illustrating the theoretical links observed in literature, which acts as a first step towards the design of a systematic literature review on the antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences.

KEYWORDS

Meaningful Experiences, Positive Psychology, Well-Being, Mindfulness, Positive Tourism.

ARTICLE HISTORY

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1. Introduction

Tourism is going through a very challenging time in light of the psychological impact of the worldwide coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, which began in 2019. Wang and colleagues (2020) recognised that in China the psychological impacts were evaluated as moderate or severe (53.8%), characterised by intense anxiety symptoms (28.8%) and moderate to extreme stress levels (8.1%). A Portuguese study (Agência Lusa, 2020) concluded that 24.0% of the sample reported anxiety and sadness, and 82.0% felt at least one adverse mental health effect. It is imperative to focus on what makes life worth living by understanding what makes experiences meaningful.

This article intends to further explore a new path for tourism that acknowledges the potential of positive psychology, well-being, positive tourism, and mindfulness with respect to the development of tourist experiences that are meaningful and thus contributes to the reflection on this research topic. This theoretical discussion represents a first step towards the design of a systematic literature review on the antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences. Some studies emphasise the connection between positive psychology and well-being in a tourism context (e.g. Filep, 2016; Filep & Laing, 2019; Garcês et al., 2018; Vada et al., 2020; Hao & Xiao, 2021). However, the literature suggests that more is needed to help to understand how stakeholders perceive a tourist experience as meaningful, in terms of both their triggers (antecedents) and their results in the short, medium, and long term (outcomes) (e.g. Garcês et al., 2018; Chen & Yoon, 2019). Also, the literature focuses on the immediate well-being results of the experiences (hedonic perspective) (see Nawijn, 2015; Voigt, 2017; Filep & Laing, 2019; Hao & Xiao, 2021; Allen et al., 2021), leaving behind the long-term results that have a substantial impact on individuals' lives. Finally, some research has shown the potential of mindfulness to create meaningful tourist experiences (e.g. Dutt & Ninov, 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Park et al., 2019; Tiberghien et al., 2020; Allen et al., 2021). Yet, research focused on the relationships between the theoretical approaches mentioned above is still scarce.

The article is organised into three main chapters. Chapter two offers the literature review, where the concepts of meaningful tourist experiences, positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness will be explored. Chapter three explores the interrelated aspects between the analysed theoretical concepts that contribute to the promotion of meaningful tourist experiences, the instruments already developed to assess them, and the research gaps and future directions. The final chapter includes the theoretical and managerial implications and the main conclusions. Some future research directions are discussed, according to the main gaps found.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Meaningful Tourist Experiences

Meaningful experiences are related to the interpretation, narration, and transformation of individuals' lives based on the activities, events, and environments in which people engage (Packer & Gill, 2017) and are characterised by the level of attraction and impact on individuals' attention. They represent the sum of the experience, its evaluation, and all the contextual and environmental contingencies involving emotions and knowledge. Therefore, the interpretation of an experience is what makes it meaningful, as it involves solid emotions that predispose the individual to a process of self-reflection (Duerden et al., 2018).

In tourism settings, meaningful experiences are characterised by pleasure but also by how personally meaningful tourists found their holiday activities (Filep, 2014), which leads to solid emotions, relevant insights, significant opinions and memories, and knowledge (Duerden et al., 2018). Simultaneously, they represent a path to overcoming physical challenges and self-sufficiency in dealing and negotiating with those challenges as an opportunity to express individuals' identity (Packer & Gill, 2017), thus enabling positive and collaborative interactions. Additionally, meaningful experiences allow the development of a feeling of community, moved by attention, emotion, reflections, and discovery (Fredrickson, 2001; Newman et al., 2014).

Through travelling, people discover several things that make everyday life meaningful, such as relation-

ships with others, encounters with nature and recreational activities, and an opportunity to think about oneself and personal growth (Packer & Gill, 2017). Travelling offers meaning, mainly when individuals use it to mark a significant life event or a great change in their lives. So, not only does an activity retain its meaning associated with its impact, but it adds a personal meaning related to a sense of reward, recovery, or to being an indelible marker of a turning point in people's lives (Packer & Gill, 2017).

During the evaluation of the experiences, four pillars help to explain how individuals develop meaning: (1) belonging (relationship developed with others), (2) purpose (perception about life purpose), (3) storytelling (how the situation is evaluated), and (4) transcendence (connection to something bigger) (Laing, 1967). For Baumeister and Vohs (2002), the search for meaning fulfils four needs: (1) purpose, (2) values, (3) sense of efficacy, and (4) self-worth.

To understand how meaningful experiences are expressed, several instruments have been developed that address some of the aspects preconised by the literature associated with meaningful experiences, even though they do not fully assess the construct. Examples are (1) emotional component—Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) (Watson et al., 1988), Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999), Scale of Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) (Diener et al., 2010); (2) positive relationships, purpose in life, well-being, self-discovery—Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010), Questionnaire for Eudaemonic Well-being (QEWB) (Waterman et al., 2010), Tourism Well-being Scale (TWS) (Garcês et al., 2020); (3) personal expressiveness, flow experiences, and self-realisation—Personally Expressive Activities and Questionnaires (PEAQ) (Waterman, 1993); and (4) meaningfulness—Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE) Scale (Kim et al., 2012; Staphit & Coudounaris, 2018).

Meaningful experiences are a complex concept, focused on the self and the social, relational, and emotional dimensions. As such, what other theoretical foundations introduce an essential complement to the correct evaluation of meaningful experiences? The following sections introduce theoretical foundations that research has proven to be closely related to meaningful experiences and also with each other, giving strength to a possible new path of investigation.

2.2 Positive Psychology

Seligman (2002) founded positive psychology, the study of individuals' and communities' strengths, characteristics, and actions that explain their positive and significant results in their experiences (Garcês et al., 2020).

As a movement of perseverance, strength, and virtues, positive psychology encourages individuals to overcome challenges and develop a sense of independence that will lead to self-sufficiency and, thus, to compete for a sense of reward and independence (Packer & Gill, 2017). Thus, positive psychology induces in people the need to exacerbate their virtues and strengths (Seligman, 2002). Peterson and Seligman (2004) established the existence of six cross-cultural virtues, each one with their strengths (in parentheses): (1) wisdom and knowledge (creativity, curiosity, open-mindedness, love of learning, perspective), (2) courage (bravery, persistence, integrity, vitality), (3) humanity (love, kindness, social intelligence), (4) justice (citizenship, fairness, leadership), (5) temperance (forgiveness, modesty, prudence, self-regulation), (6) transcendence (appreciation of beauty and excellence, gratitude, hope, humour, spirituality).

Positive psychology has three pillars: (1) positive emotions, placed in time, as a *continuum*; from this perspective, positive emotions related to the past (e.g. satisfaction, contentment, fulfilment, pride, serenity), present (e.g. joy, ecstasy, calm, zest, ebullience, pleasure, flow, happiness), and future (optimism, hope, faith, trust); (2) positive individual traits, like subjective well-being, optimism, happiness, and self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2001); and (3) positive institutions, like responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic (Seligman, 2002). The outcomes are associated with well-being, happiness, optimism, and life satisfaction (Garcês et al., 2020).

Positive psychology's mission is to understand the factors that lead individuals, communities, and societies to flourish. Emotions are elicited through the process of interpretation, evaluation, and appraisal of a determined individual experience, meaning that different people appraise the same stimuli in various manners, producing different emotional reactions (Scott et al., 2017). As such, positive emotions play a fundamental role in this process since they will trigger individuals to optimise their well-being in favour-

able conditions due to their intermediary role between psychological growth and improved well-being over time (Fredrickson, 2001).

One of the contexts in which positive psychology has been applied is tourism (Filep et al., 2017; Garcês et al., 2018, 2019; Vada et al., 2020; Volo, 2021). Travelling is an experience that since the beginning has had a strong meaning attached to it: it starts with the recognition of the need to satisfy something that is currently missing, the development of expectations, and destination choice (anticipation phase, the tourist experience itself, where individuals develop emotions, meanings, feelings, and memories [on-site phase], and the evaluation of the experience [reflexive phase] [Larsen, 2007]).

Tourism experiences are subjective, as people are not predictable in their actions, thoughts, and expectations, thus affecting the process of planification, interpretation, and storing of experiences. This plays an essential role in the associated emotions. Considering that to be remarkable an experience must be associated with powerful emotions (Volo, 2021), tourist experience is a product of past, travel-related events that evoke extreme and powerful emotions (Larsen, 2007). As such, increasing knowledge about the triggers (antecedents) of an experience can be the key element to promoting meaningful tourist experiences associated with powerful personalised outcomes.

From the previous foundations, another strong characteristic of positive psychology emerges: *the search for meaning and purpose in life*, the core contribution to happiness and pleasure through the pursuit of life satisfaction (Packer & Gill, 2017). The construction of meaning is central in positive psychology, in light of its close relation with well-being, life satisfaction, and positive affect (Packer & Gill, 2017). The search for meaning is a daily construction, in that that individuals seek the meaningful component of the experiences, which gives life a purpose.

Finally, the third component of positive psychology is related to *life satisfaction*, connected to seeking what makes life worth living, and thus it represents a decisive dimension for positive psychology since it is an individual process that involves individuals' needs, motivations, and characteristics, life purpose, and the meaning of each one's actions (Packer & Gill, 2017).

Overall, positive psychology is one of the most significant contributors to the development and engagement of individuals in meaningful experiences, considering its focus on the promotion of resilience and the search for meaning. One of the first attempts to join positive psychology and tourism was suggested by Filep (2016), with the proposal of a subfield called positive tourism.

2.3 Positive Psychology and Tourism: Positive Tourism

Positive tourism focuses on the hedonic and eudaemonic human well-being components, with the primary objective being to understand tourists', local communities', and tourism workers' flourishing, depending on the characteristics of meaningful tourist experiences, the relationship between tourists and the local community, and the kind of interactions between tourism industries and tourists, aiming to promote well-being through three pillars: (1) *positive tourism experiences*, which offer opportunities for social interactions, personal growth, identity development, and reflection on the purpose of life (Packer & Gill, 2017); (2) *positive host communities*, characterised by emotional commitment, feelings of moral obligation, interest in the welfare of others, and reduced uncertainty about the other's likely behaviour (Glover & Filep, 2017); (3) *positive tourism workers*, responsible for emotional engagement with clients, guiding roles that mediate experiences and facilitate life changes that help tourists achieve their goals, grow, and develop themselves. In turn, this provides tourism workers with a sense of meaning in life by transforming other peoples' lives (Saunders et al., 2017).

A vital characteristic of positive tourism is searching for meaning in individuals' activities. Vacations are considered a source of meaning that serves three purposes: (1) milestone markers, by introducing something that never happened before; (2) remedy or reward, in view of individuals' need to restore their strengths and see vacations as positive reinforcement of all their commitment; (3) change of life (Packer & Gill, 2017), related to the development of positive and more meaningful memories, positive emotions, pleasant sensations (Filep & Deery, 2010), and a higher sense of relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In sum, looking at tourism in a positive, humanist-inspired way enables host communities to flourish, encourages workers to thrive and enhance the quality of the experiences (Filep et al., 2017), leading to the

development of a strong relationship between tourism, psychology, experiences, and well-being (Filep & Deery, 2010; Filep, 2014, 2016).

2.4 Well-being

Well-being is the core element of positive psychology (Seligman, 2002; Garcês et al., 2020). Applied to tourism, positive psychology promotes well-being for tourists, resident communities, and workers (Voigt, 2017; Garcês et al., 2018), which points out the need for industries and entrepreneurs to be aware of the characteristics associated with meaningful tourist experiences (Smith & Diekmann, 2017), turning well-being into the gold element of tourism industries (Garcês et al., 2020). In fact, well-being has been noted as being one of the strongest predictors for people to develop an emotional bond with a particular destination. In a broader perspective, tourist well-being promotes tourist health, considering that it enhances one's inner self, belongingness to a social world, and reinforces the ability to cope with the stress of everyday life (Vada et al., 2020). However, there are disagreements on what is the correct definition of well-being and how to measure it, resulting from the confluence of different disciplines (Voigt, 2017) and leading to the development of several perspectives (Garcês et al., 2019). The results point to one of the most crucial well-being perspectives that have served the foundations of positive psychology: the search for meaning under the immediate outcomes of the experiences—hedonic well-being—versus a broader perspective related to long-term benefits—eudaemonic well-being (Packer & Gill, 2017; Voigt, 2017; Vada et al., 2020).

2.4.1 Hedonic and eudaemonic well-being

The Greek Aristippus of Cyrene used the foundations of philosophy to express and examine feelings of “hedone” (“pleasure” in Greek) as the supreme good in life (Voigt, 2017), as the pursuit of happiness and avoidance of painful experiences. Hedonia is the immediate perspective of well-being related to the pursuit of happiness (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999; Packer & Gill, 2017; Voigt, 2017), the development of positive and negative emotions (Bradburn, 1969; Watson et al., 1988; Waterman, 1993; Diener et al., 2010; Packer & Gill, 2017; Voigt, 2017), the search for enjoyment, pleasure, fun, relaxation, escape (Voigt, 2017), and sensory stimulation (Voigt, 2017).

Eudaemonia is characterised by excellence (Waterman, 2011), using individuals' virtues and strengths to undertake the best choices and actions (Laing & Frost, 2017). Discovering the true self is the central core of eudaemonia, meaning that the authentic eudaemonic experience presupposes the achievement of equilibrium between individuals' potential and the activities in which they engage (Voigt, 2017). Overall, eudaemonia defines a process of personal expressiveness, considering the way people should live and the positive cognitive-affective subjective condition (Waterman, 2011).

Huta and Waterman (2014) adopted four central eudaemonic perspectives: (1) growth (self-actualisation and personal goals), (2) *meaning* (purpose of life), (3) *excellence* (higher standards of individuals' behaviours), and (4) *authenticity* (connection with our inner selves).

To Ryff (1989), eudaemonia assesses six dimensions: (1) *self-acceptance* (self-actualisation and optimal functioning), (2) *positive relations with others* (trust, empathy, identification with others, and intimacy), (3) *autonomy* (self-determination, independence, and regulation of behaviour), (4) *environmental mastery* (create environments that suit one's psychic and mental conditions), (5) *purpose in life* (comprehension of life purpose and goals), (6) *personal growth* (ability to grow, actualisation, and openness to experience).

Csikszentmihalyi (1991) developed the flow theory, which compares flow to an optimal, transformational experience in which individuals engage with their full awareness. The best condition to induce a full sensation of flow is the full engagement in challenging activities allied with the individuals' skills, which gives rise to an optimal flow experience (Waterman, 2011).

Waterman et al. (2010) also emphasised intense involvement in activities. They developed a study where eudaemonia and other categories emerged, such as self-discovery, perceived development, purpose and a meaningful life, and enjoyment of activities as personally expressive.

Comparing the two perspectives, hedonia is oriented to the present, whilst eudaemonia is to the future. Hedonia is a function of self-regulation of the emotions, which helps people regulate affect. On the

other hand, eudaemonic activities develop a cumulative effect on positive affect and decrease distress. They can be associated with developing objectives that prevent the absorption of negative affect and with developing coping skills to deal with this adverse outcome. In sum, hedonia is related to purely affective outcomes, whilst eudaemonia leads to cognitive-affective feelings of significance and appreciation, a connection to the whole experience, and long-term outcomes.

Another perspective originated with Seligman (2011), with the PERMA model of flourishing.

PERMA Model (Seligman, 2011)

PERMA model is a valuable resource for positive psychology as a solid theoretical framework that is concerned with promoting well-being in a holistic way (Garcês et al., 2019). It is based on the Authentic Happiness Theory (2002), as authentic happiness is related to being cheerful and is measured by life satisfaction (Seligman, 2011).

Seligman (2011) defends that there are other elements that together with hedonic and eudaemonic well-being deliver a better and more complete definition of well-being. These elements are **(PERMA)**:

- **Positive emotions** (e.g. amusement, awe, compassion, contentment, gratitude, hope, interest, joy, love, and pride)
- **Engagement** (leads to flow experiences when individuals' strongest strengths match the challenges)
- **Relationships** (developing strong ties is a skill that leads to individuals' well-being and health improvements)
- **Meaning** (belonging to and believing in something bigger than oneself)
- **Accomplishment** (achievement, mastery, and competence)

Each of these elements is pursued by individuals, contributing to the overall experience of well-being (Seligman, 2011). Concerning the benefits of this approach, they are related to assumptions from eudaemonic well-being perspectives, such as self-acceptance, positive relations with other people, personal growth, and finding a purpose in life (Seligman, 2011).

As Filep (2016) acknowledged, the outcomes of PERMA have been projected onto tourism experiences in different phases of the trip. Filep and Deery (2010) considered that positive emotions could reach higher values when individuals imagine their travel, namely what they expect to find based on information searched or received through the advice of someone. This process promotes a more robust engagement with the travel experience and the development of meaning and purpose.

DRAMMA Model (Newman et al., 2014)

After the PERMA model, Newman and colleagues (2014) developed a new approach to subjective well-being. The authors defend that the fulfilment of determinant psychological experiences is the key to enhancing subjective well-being in leisure. The authors tried to understand how leisure affects subjective well-being in all its components—satisfaction, positive feelings, and negative feelings—given that the more positive psychological processes occur, the more subjective well-being can be approached (Newman et al., 2014).

The psychological components of this approach are detachment-recovery, autonomy, mastery, meaning, and affiliation (DRAMMA). Each one plays an essential role in mediating the relation between leisure and subjective well-being on account of their interrelated components (satisfaction, positive feelings, and negative feelings) and their impact on this relationship (Newman et al., 2014).

Detachment-recovery is related to satisfying basic needs, such as relaxation and recovery from different daily life efforts. Detachment relates to the act of giving up certain troubling or harmful elements of life. Recovery refers to the attempt to recover some aspects of life, which involves the release from high arousal or physically challenging forms of leisure. Through the first attempt at detachment and avoidance of something painful, individuals restore themselves to authentically fulfil their identity, allowing them to engage in a further process of recovery, increasing life satisfaction, enhancing positive emotions, and decreasing negative emotions, which is crucial for the recovery (Newman et al., 2014).

Autonomy is a vital prerequisite to understand how people develop and seek well-being in their lives (e.g. self-determination theory from Ryan and Deci [2001]). Through constant participation in the same leisure

activities, individuals restore their perception of control and freedom, leading to subjective well-being (Newman et al., 2014). The inclusion of autonomy in subjective well-being can be brought about through intrinsic leisure motivation and autonomous motivation in leisure. Intrinsic motivation is linked to the activities that match peoples' interests, leading to higher life enjoyment and psychological well-being, as well as a great sensation of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991). Autonomous motivation relates to activities that do not match individuals' motivations and willingness.

Mastery focuses on introducing the right skills into a leisure activity, achieving a new level of success, or overcoming challenges. Several associations confirm the relationship between mastery and subjective well-being and flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991) since that absorption is a challenging activity that demands mastery and increases an individual's satisfaction with life, self-actualisation, self-enrichment, renewal, and a sense of accomplishment (Newman et al., 2014).

Meaning is related to positive emotions and life satisfaction and strongly correlates with the flow and serious leisure, given that strong commitment and meaningful engagement are two critical requisites of serious leisure (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Newman et al., 2014). This link between meaning and subjective well-being can be improved through engagement with life and close relationships (Fredrickson, 2001; Newman et al., 2014).

Affiliation proposes that social activities are related to the affiliative need for socialisation and the development of relationships with others since they represent a sense of belonging and connection with others and with activities (Newman et al., 2014).

Finally, the DRAMMA model is also applied to tourism settings. Different psychological mechanisms emerge from tourist trips, explaining peak mood levels and emotions through travel (Nawijn & Biran, 2019). Individuals are more likely to engage in self-congruent activities related to their needs, goals, and personalities in order to enhance subjective well-being (Newman et al., 2014).

PERMA and DRAMMA: Similarities and Differences

Compared to PERMA, DRAMMA proposes similar dimensions. However, DRAMMA attempts to address both hedonic and eudaemonic outcomes (Laing & Frost, 2017). Both models share the same construct of meaning associated with seeking a purpose in life, a talent for living as intensely as possible, and a sense of belonging to some social commitment (Newman et al., 2014). Through the dimensions of affiliation (DRAMMA) and relationships (PERMA) associated with the same outcomes, it can be observed that the latter is strongly related to eudaemonic well-being (Huta & Waterman, 2014) and finding love is strongly related to a more hedonic outcome (Laing & Frost, 2017).

An equal relation is found between mastery (DRAMMA) and achievement (PERMA), as both are related to an autonomous attitude of conquering something meaningful when the mastery challenge lies in dealing with different cultures or learning something new about them (Laing & Frost, 2017). Both components might involve the learning of new skills or a deeper understanding of different issues (Seligman, 2011), as well as an opportunity to develop and grow (Laing & Frost, 2017).

DRAMMA's autonomy is strictly linked with PERMA's engagement, as engaging in new activities presupposes an independent attitude and a sense of control over the future. PERMA's positive emotions are not present in the DRAMMA model (Newman et al., 2014). However, research has shown that this dimension is transversal to all the dimensions of DRAMMA (Newman et al., 2014).

Finally, the most expressive difference between these models is the context in which the DRAMMA model was developed, i.e. a leisure context, making this model particularly attractive in understanding tourists' well-being (Laing & Frost, 2017).

2.5 Mindfulness

Mindfulness has been defined as a state of mind where individuals experience strong attention to and awareness of what happens in the moment (Chan, 2019), which gives individuals the opportunity to be implicitly aware of the context and content of the information, notice new details, and feel sensitive to context. Considered the consciousness property with the highest relation to well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003), mindfulness involves an openness to novelty, self-acknowledgement, and self-regulation (Langer,

2000), helping individuals be conscious of awareness through scanning the physical sensations of the body, thoughts, feelings, or emotions and by exploring what surrounds them (Brown & Ryan, 2003). As for its benefits, mindfulness increases individuals' competence, decreases accidents, improves memory, creativity, positive affect, and longevity and reduces stress (Langer, 2000).

Chen and colleagues (2017) examined the relationship between mindfulness and tourist experiences by exploring the role of mindful mental states in the genesis of experiential outcomes. Their framework is divided into antecedents (triggers of meditative mindfulness), episodes (constructs related to mindful experience), and consequences (positive outcomes of meditative mindfulness). The themes and constructs are as follows: (1) paying attention to the experience (sensory awareness and relaxed attention), (2) living in the present (being aware of the moment and interacting with the surroundings), (3) non-elaborative awareness (cognitive processes occurring on meditative mindfulness experiences).

Dutt and Ninov (2016) studied the role of mindfulness in helping tourists remember the interactions established within tourism businesses. The results confirmed that mindfulness influenced tourists' positive memories through unique experiences, features, variety of facilities, and services offered, showing the strong potential of this movement to impact tourists' memories about the destination. The framework divided the factors involved in this process into individual (interest, perception and mindset, people, and interpersonal relationships) and site factors (people and interpersonal relationships, experience, aesthetics, safety, and control) and the benefits into hard (word of mouth, satisfaction), and soft benefits (understanding, history, culture and heritage, environment, difference, and infrastructure).

Tourism has been a crucial context in which to apply mindfulness. Individuals develop a sense of self-awareness, resulting in an existentially authentic experience and a feeling of *communitas* (Tiberghien et al., 2020). The spiritual dimension of tourism involves people, places, relationships, and emotions and is influenced by cultural background, personal goals, motivations, expectations, preconceived knowledge of the destination, and local people (Tiberghien et al., 2020). The social interaction during the experience is crucial in evaluating the role of mindfulness in meaningful experiences and can be constructed between tourists who travel together but also with local communities, contributing to promoting destinations' attractiveness (Park et al., 2019).

In sum, key main characteristics related to mindfulness are: (1) *transcendence* (Chen et al., 2017), (2) *self-acceptance* (Chen et al., 2017), (3) *awareness* (Langer, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Dutt & Ninov, 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Chan, 2019; Tiberghien et al., 2020), (4) *meaning of life and beliefs* (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Tiberghien et al., 2020), and (5) *spirituality* (Chang et al., 2021).

3. Positive Psychology, Positive Tourism, Well-Being, and Mindfulness: Synergies

Meaningful experiences represent a change in the routine of important social, personal, and emotional components of individuals' lives. Positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness mediate this process of increasing personal consciousness, thereby providing enhanced experiences. As such, tourism experiences have the strong potential to become extraordinary and meaningful (Kirillova et al., 2017). A considerable number of studies relating meaningful tourist experiences with positive psychology, well-being, mindfulness, and other psychological constructs (e.g. emotions, memory, place attachment, destination image, authenticity) present the motivations that lead tourists to engage in these meaningful experiences. Considering the complementary theoretical foundations reflected in this manuscript, what are the potential synergies between positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness in relation to meaningful tourist experiences?

3.1 Positive Psychology and Positive Tourism

Positive tourism aligns the foundations of positive psychology related to tourism, enhancing the potential to promote meaningful tourism experiences, in view of positive host communities and positive tourism workers (Filep et al., 2017). Studies corroborate these assumptions, centring on the antecedents and consequents related to these topics. There are different motivations to engage in meaningful experiences,

given that individuals seek an *inner construction based on beliefs and perspectives* (Reisinger, 2013). Positive psychology and positive tourism corroborate this motivation because both focus on fulfilling a purpose and positive significance. Filep (2014) acknowledged that individuals develop a sense of *gratitude* throughout their meaningful tourist experiences that lead to the *development of a feeling for the visited place* (Reisinger, 2013). Positive psychology, as the driver of positive emotions (Seligman, 2002), and positive tourism compete for the same goal: to develop positive emotions through engagement with significant positive experiences.

In sum, meaningful experiences are a personal and simultaneously a social process, considering individuals' motivations and expectations and the relationship between tourists and the local community (Filep et al., 2017).

3.2 Positive Psychology and Well-Being

Through the lens of positive psychology and well-being, the main motivations to engage in meaningful experiences are the *search for self and identity*, *the quest for self-empowerment* (Steger et al., 2006), and *seeking positive emotions* (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Wilson et al., 2013). As for the outcomes, they relate to the development of *strong emotions and feelings* (*excitement, pleasure, enjoyment*) (Packer & Gill, 2017), *pleasant sensations* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Larsen, 2007; Wilson et al., 2013), *sense of being* (Packer & Gill, 2017), and *happiness* (Seligman, 2002). As both movements are related to positive emotions, personal growth, search for meaning, and life purpose (Laing, 1967; Ryff, 1989; Seligman, 2002, 2011; Newman et al., 2014; Packer & Gill, 2017; Voigt, 2017), they have the potential to develop meaningful experiences.

3.3 Positive Tourism and Well-Being

Positive tourism is related to well-being, as both focus on the development of *positive relationships* between individuals and the visited place, competing to develop meaningful experiences (Filep et al., 2017; Glover & Filep, 2017; Saunders et al., 2017). Both positive tourism and well-being focus on the *social component* of meaningful experiences, a topic that can dictate the success or lack thereof of the experiences on account of the critical role that the host communities and tourism workers play in promoting their destinations as meaningful (Filep et al., 2017).

3.4 Mindfulness, Positive Psychology, Positive Tourism, and Well-Being

Mindfulness influences positive psychological experiences and well-being. Consciousness is related to several well-being dimensions, like positive affectivity, vitality, life satisfaction, self-esteem, optimism, self-actualisation, autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Also, mindfulness is responsible for developing self-awareness, influencing positive emotional states, and decreasing mood disturbances and stress (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Mindfulness, positive psychology, positive tourism, and well-being place a strong value on *relationships*. Individuals seek authentic and strong relationships characterised by intimacy and experiencing a social change in the relationships with themselves, other people, the world, or a higher power or force. The same applies to positive psychology and well-being, where the social component is crucial to understanding the meaning of individuals' experiences (Tiberghien et al., 2020).

Tiberghien et al. (2020) and Deb and Lomo-David (2021) highlighted the *contribution of the local community* and the importance of having a good plan for tourist activities, as both can generate positive feelings, personal enrichment, and authentic tourist experiences. Another common topic is the promotion of *self-acceptance* and the *search for meaning and purpose* (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013), leading to an emotional reaction during the experience. A eudaemonic perspective is also a common characteristic, as transcendental, optimal, and inner experiences produce *self-knowledge, realisation, self-actualisation, self-awareness, and development* (Maslow, 1968; Park et al., 2019; Tiberghien et al., 2020).

In addition, mindfulness relates to positive psychology and well-being through the *flow moments* and the feeling of self-immersion (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991) that integrates individuals' optimal emotional levels (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987) and competes for the ultimate authentic tourist experiences (Tiberghien et al., 2020), intellectual enhancement, and self-actualisation (Maslow, 1968). Finally, the *presence of emotions*

related to mindful awareness is another common topic since that the better the emotional state, the better the evaluation of authenticity (Tiberghien et al., 2020).

3.4.1 How to assess relevant constructs?

Table 1 presents some examples of instruments used to assess relevant constructs related to the synergies between positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness in relation to meaningful tourist experiences.

Ryff's (1989) Psychological Well-being Scale assesses eudaemonic well-being through *self-acceptance* (self-actualisation, optimal functioning, and self-acceptance), *positive relations with others* (empathy, affection, intimacy, and generativity), *autonomy* (self-determination, independence, and regulation of behaviour), *environmental mastery* (manipulate and control complex environments), *purpose in life* (comprehension of life purpose, goals, and intentions), and *personal growth* (development of one's potential, openness to experience, and self-realisation). Considering the dimensions assessed, besides eudaemonic well-being, positive psychology (positive relationships; purpose in life; personal growth) and mindfulness (self-acceptance; purpose in life) can also be assessed.

Then, the Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010) assesses psychological flourishing and feelings, focusing on positive human functioning through positive relationships, competence, meaning, purpose in life, and engagement with daily activities. This resource is helpful in the assessment of eudaemonia (personal relationships, self-esteem, meaning and purpose in life), positive psychology (positive relationships, meaning and purpose in life), mindfulness (meaning and purpose in life), and positive tourism (personal relationships, positive relationships).

Positive psychology and eudaemonia can also be evaluated through the Basic Need Satisfaction Scale (Ryan & Deci, 2000), considering the dimensions competence, autonomy (eudaemonia) and supportive relationships (eudaemonia and positive psychology).

Kim and colleagues (2012) developed the Memorable Tourist Experience Scale (MTES), which includes seven domains: *hedonism* (excitement and enjoyment), *novelty* (uniqueness), *local culture* (immersion in local culture and local people), *refreshment* (sense of freedom), *meaningfulness* (self-knowledge), *involvement* (willingness for engagement), and *knowledge* (learn something new). These dimensions allow the assessment of hedonia (hedonism, refreshment), eudaemonia (meaningfulness, involvement), positive psychology (meaningfulness), and positive tourism (local culture). Later, Chandralal and Valenzuela (2013) reached different dimensions from the original ones: (a) *authentic local experiences*, (b) *Self-beneficial experiences*, (c) *professional local guides and tour operators*, (d) *local hospitality*, (e) *affective emotions*, (f) *perceived significance*, (g) *social interactions with people*, (h) *serendipitous and incredible experiences*, and (i) *fulfilment of personal travel interests*. These dimensions can also be involved in the assessment of hedonia (affective emotions, serendipitous, surprising experiences), eudaemonia (social interactions with people, fulfilment of personal travel interests), positive psychology (self-beneficial experiences, affective emotions, perceived significance, social interactions with people, fulfilment of personal travel interests), and positive tourism (professional local guides and tour operators, local hospitality, social interactions with people).

Hedonia and positive psychology share an important dimension: emotions and their role in the improvement of individuals' well-being. As such, several instruments can be useful in the evaluation of this dimension: Destination Emotion Scale (DES) (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010), which assesses three basic emotions—joy, love, and positive surprises; Life Satisfaction Index Scale (LSI) (Neugarten et al., 1961) under the dimensions zest vs apathy, tone of mood (hedonia), positive self-concept (positive psychology), resolution and fortitude, congruence between desired and achieved goals; Positive and Negative Experience Scale (SPANE) (Diener et al., 2010) and Positive and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS) (Watson et al., 1988), both focused on positive and negative emotions; Subjective Well-Being Scale (SHS) (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999), focused on information about relationships as well as happy and unhappy situations.

The Questionnaire for Eudaemonic Well-being (QEWB) (Waterman et al., 2010) measures eudaemonia through (a) *self-discovery*, (b) *perceived development of one's best potentials*, (c) *sense of purpose and meaning-in-life*, (d) *investment of significant effort in the pursuit of excellence*, (e) *intense involvement in activities*, and (f) *enjoyment of activities as personally expressive*. Considering these dimensions, positive psychology can also be assessed according to the category "sense of purpose and meaning in life".

The Hedonic and Eudaemonic Motives for Activities (HEMA) (Huta & Ryan, 2010) deepens the study of hedonic—seeking pleasure and comfort—and eudaemonic well-being—use and develop the best in one-self—since it appraises the general motivational tendencies of an activity.

The Personally Expressive Activities Questionnaire (PEAQ) (Waterman, 1993) assesses functioning according to the types of self-defining activities in which individuals engage and self-realisation values. It is responsible for evaluating eudaemonic (personal expressiveness) and hedonic well-being (e.g. hedonic enjoyment).

Voigt et al. (2011) developed the Benefits of Wellness Tourism Scale (BWTS), which measures benefits sought from wellness tourist experiences according to six dimensions: (a) *transcendence*, (b) *physical health and appearance*, (c) *escape and relaxation*, (d) *important others and novelty*, (e) *re-establish self-esteem*, and (f) *indulgence*. These dimensions have the potential to assess positive psychology (important others and novelty, transcendence), hedonia (physical health and appearance, escape and relaxation), eudaemonia (important others and novelty, re-establish self-esteem), and mindfulness (transcendence).

The Tourism Well-being Scale (TWS) (Garcês et al., 2020) addresses global well-being through *optimism* (positive side of situations), *meaning* (giving meaning to life), *positive emotions* (having fun), *creativity* (uniqueness, originality), *engagement* (participate in community activities), *accomplishment* (the best result from an experience), *spirituality* (connection with something higher, awareness of surroundings), and *positive relationships* (development of new relationships). Since the rationales for this scale are the PERMA (Seligman, 2011) and HOPE models (Human Optimal Psychological Experiences) (Garcês et al., 2017), hedonia (positive emotions), eudaemonia (engagement, meaning, accomplishment), positive psychology (positive emotions, meaning, recovery, relationship, optimism, creativity), mindfulness (spirituality), and positive tourism (relationships) can be analysed.

Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) (Brown & Ryan, 2003) explores the cognitive, emotional, physical, interpersonal, and general domains of the awareness of the present. The instrument has never been applied to tourism settings. A focus on mindful dimensions of the experience is also a priority for Pinto and Pais-Ribeiro (2007), who developed the Spirituality Scale. In particular, the scale is divided into two factors: *meaning of life/beliefs* and *optimistic life perspective/hope*. The first one is related to mindfulness.

Finally, Chang and colleagues (2021) developed the Experience Scale for Pilgrimage Tourists, which assess tourists' pilgrimage experience through five dimensions: (a) *spirituality*, (b) *learning*, (c) *physicality*, (d) *help*, and (e) *unpleasantness*. The dimensions *learning* and *unpleasantness* can help assess positive psychology, while *spirituality* is a mindfulness component.

3.5 Knowledge Gaps in the Literature and Preliminary Framework

Despite the apparent relationship between the theoretical approaches, the literature advises carefully analysing their interconnections further to support the rationale of future studies. The literature review also allowed examples of knowledge gaps that can shed light of future avenues for research on meaningful tourist experiences to be identified. Some of these research gaps are highlighted in this section.

Garcês and colleagues (2018) explored the role of positive psychology in tourism and highlighted the need to adopt a holistic view of stakeholders' well-being through the involvement of different populations in the analysis of this phenomenon. The relevance of addressing residents, host communities, and workers was also stressed in the systematic review conducted by Vada and colleagues (2020). In fact, the findings showed that there was minimal focus on these stakeholders in the literature reviewed. The authors approached the relationship between positive psychology, tourism, and tourists' well-being. On one hand, the review indicates that tourists' well-being is influenced by positive psychological variables, such as happiness, character strengths, gratitude, and humour. On the other hand, mindfulness was advanced as an antecedent of tourists' well-being. The study reveals the need to explore tourists' interactions with social and natural environments related to self-consciousness (e.g. wellness tourism, yoga tourism, volunteer tourism). Skavronskaya et al. (2018) focused on the description of the emotional consequences of experiences. However, there is a lack of understanding of the affective responses elicited by specific stimuli, raising some underestimated perspectives that lead to a new pathway: What other constructs can be considered as predictors of this relationship?

Table 1. Examples of Instruments used to Assess Relevant Concepts

Authors	Name	Components Analysed
Neugarten et al. (1961)	Life Satisfaction Index Scale (LSI)	-Zest vs. Apathy; -Mood tone; -Positive self-concept; -Resolution and fortitude; -Congruence between desired and achieved goals;
Watson et al. (1988)	Positive and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS)	-Positive emotions; -Negative emotions;
Ryff (1989)	Psychological Wellbeing Scale	-Self-acceptance; -Positive relations with others; -Autonomy; -Environmental mastery; -Purpose in life; -Personal growth;
Waterman (1993)	Personally Expressive Activities Questionnaire (PEAQ)	-Self-defining activities; -Self-realization values from the activities;
Lyubomirsky & Lepper (1999)	Subjective well-being scale (SHS)	-Information about the relationship established; -Happy/unhappy situations;
Ryan & Deci (2000)	Basic need satisfaction scale	-Competence; -Autonomy; -Supportive relationships;
Brown & Ryan (2003)	Mindful attention awareness scale (MAAS)	-Awareness to the present;
Pinto & Pais-Ribeiro (2007)	Spirituality scale	-Meaning of life/beliefs; -Positive life perspective/hope;
Diener et al. (2010)	Flourishing Scale (FS)	-Positive relationships; -Feelings of competence; -Meaning and purpose in life; -Engagement in daily activities;
	Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE)	-Positive emotions; -Negative emotions;
Hosany & Gilbert (2010)	Destination Emotion Scale (DES)	-Three basic emotions: joy, love, and positive surprises;
Huta & Ryan (2010)	Hedonic and Eudaimonic Motives for Activities (HEMA)	-General motivational tendencies;
Waterman et al. (2010)	Questionnaire for Eudaimonic Well-being (QEWB)	-Self-discovery; -Perceived development of one's best potentials; -Sense of purpose and meaning-in-life; -Investment of significant effort in the pursuit of excellence; -Intense involvement in activities; -Enjoyment of activities as personally expressive;
Voigt et al. (2011)	Benefits of Wellness Tourism Scale (BWTS)	-Transcendence; -Physical health and appearance; -Escape and relaxation; -Important others and novelty; -Re-establish self-esteem; -Indulgence;
Kim et al. (2012)	Memorable Tourist Experience Scale (MTES)	-Hedonism; -Novelty; -Local culture; -Refreshment; -Meaningfulness; -Involvement; -Knowledge;
Chandralal & Valenzuela (2013)	Memorable tourist experience scale (MTES)	-Authentic local experiences; -Self-beneficial experiences; -Professional local guides and tour operators; -Local hospitality; -Affective emotions; -Perceived significance; -Social interactions with people; -Serendipitous and surprising experiences; -Fulfilment of personal travel interests;
Garcês et al. (2020)	Tourism Wellbeing Scale (TWS)	-Optimism; -Meaning; -Positive emotions; -Creativity; -Engagement; -Accomplishment; -Spirituality; -Positive relationships;
Chang et al. (2021)	Experience Scale for Pilgrimage Tourists	-Spirituality; -Learning; -Physicality; -Help; -Unpleasantness;

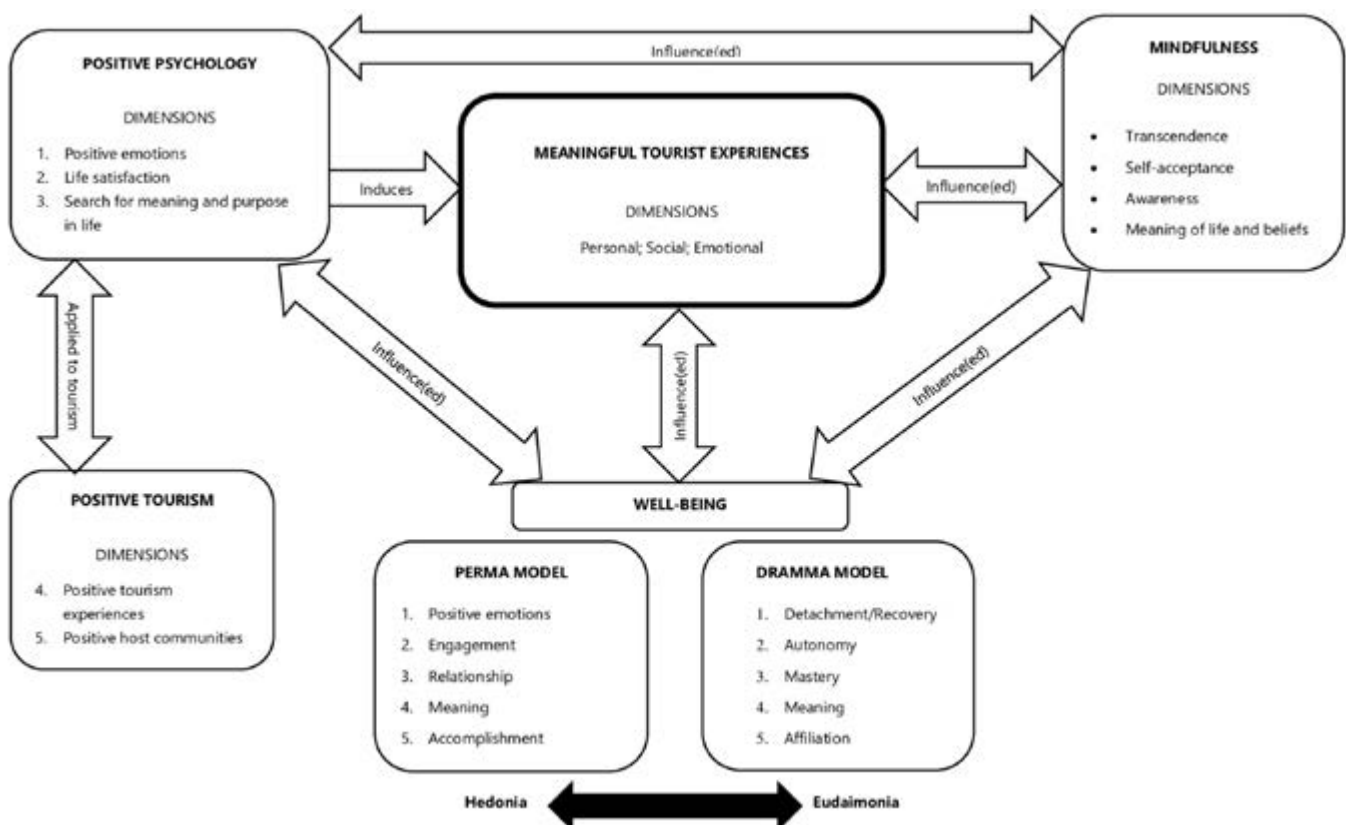
Source: Own Elaboration, 2021

Based on the identified knowledge gaps, the literature advances some research opportunities focused on meaningful experiences related to individuals' cultural differences (Filep et al., 2017), positive and negative emotional changes during the experience (Vada et al., 2020; Volo, 2021); centring the research in tourism and psychology on the processes (Filep & Laing, 2019); the relationship between tourists and residents (Volo, 2021); eudaemonia and positive tourism (Voigt, 2017); authenticity and emotional attachment (Deb & Lomo-David, 2021); hedonia, eudaemonia, and emotional attachment (Vada et al., 2020); intensity, durability, and the nature of eudaemonic experiences (Voigt, 2017; Filep & Laing, 2019); and positive psychology, well-being, happiness, positive emotions, character strengths, gratitude, humour, and authenticity (Vada et al., 2020).

If the studies show that positive psychology, well-being, mindfulness, and positive tourism are areas complementary to the study of meaning in tourism, what are the future directions for the theoretical deepening of these experiences? What leads individuals to engage in specific activities? What comes out of those experiences, associated with the foundations of the psychological constructs under study? Furthering knowledge on the antecedents of meaningful experiences will allow to enhance the perceived experiences and resulting outcomes. It is imperative to introduce a new lens on the promotion of meaningful tourist experiences that considers not only the individuals and their needs, expectations, and preferences but also the potential of the experiences and the places where they emerge (Garcês et al., 2018, 2020; Staphit & Coudounaris, 2018; Chen & Yoon, 2019).

The preliminary diagram (Figure 1) illustrates the interconnections between positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness as a psychological framework around meaningful tourist experiences derived from the literature review conducted in this research. This diagram can assist future research and act as a first step among systematic and empirical studies in exploring antecedents and outcomes of meaningful experiences.

Figure 1. Preliminary Framework - Positive Psychology, Positive Tourism, Well-Being, and Mindfulness: How they Interrelate?



Source: Own Elaboration

4. Conclusions

This article has offered a theoretical reflection on the connections between positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness towards the development of meaningful tourist experiences. In so doing, this research proposes a preliminary diagram illustrating the theoretical links observed in the literature, which acts as a first step towards the design of a systematic literature review of the antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences. This reflection can thus also contribute to future empirical research focused on empirically testing potential relationships between constructs. The resulting preliminary diagram (Figure 1) suggests that the synergies between positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness enable a greater understanding of meaningful tourist experiences, which can contribute to establishing a psychological framework for this topic.

4.1 Theoretical Implications

The study represents a first step towards the design of a systematic literature review on the antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences, considering different theoretical foundations and the role of each one in the promotion of meaningful experiences. First, despite the importance of considering different levels of well-being, in tourism well-being is mostly assessed through the general outcome level. In so being, the PERMA and DRAMMA models represent a good start for the complex work of studying well-being in view of the different dimensions approached (Seligman, 2018). The present study highlights the need to continue the research on this topic on the premise that tourist experiences must favour individuals' meaningful and long-term motivations and outcomes (Laing & Frost, 2017).

This study underlines the importance of considering both the reflexive and the anticipatory phase of the trip (Filep & Laing, 2019) through its focus on the antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences to understand what personal, emotional, social, or environmental reasons lead to involvement in a particular experience. So, through the study of antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences, it is possible to develop a set of meaningful activities and thus improve stakeholders' well-being and marketing strategies (Chen & Yoon, 2019; Garcês et al., 2020).

Despite the different instruments already developed, there is a need to carefully analyse and adapt some of these tools to better understand meaningful tourist experiences (Packer & Gill, 2017). As such, an important theoretical implication consists of improving the already existing instruments that assess the psychological variables under study.

The conclusions gathered through the chapters are a result of the investigation that highlights the strong interrelation between positive psychology, positive tourism, well-being, and mindfulness with tourism and meaningful experiences (Laing, 1967; Maslow, 1968; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Ryff, 1989; Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Seligman, 2002; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Steger et al., 2006; Larsen, 2007; Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Wilson et al., 2013; Reisinger, 2013; Filep, 2014; Huta & Waterman, 2014; Newman et al., 2014; Packer & Gill, 2017; Filep et al., 2017; Glover & Filep, 2017; Saunders et al., 2017; Voigt, 2017; Park et al., 2019; Tiberghien et al., 2020; Deb & Lomo-David, 2021). As such, the priority is to introduce a richer perspective on the promotion of these experiences with a holistic lens and to proceed to the development or improvement of new or existing tools to better address them and understand meaningful tourist experiences.

This theoretical approach is still at a preliminary stage and must be improved to allow a better tourism management decision, especially during these difficult times when resilience and persistence are being tested. As such, the article offers a theoretical reflection on the connections between the referenced theoretical foundations as proposed in a preliminary diagram illustrating the theoretical links observed; it acts as a first step towards the design of a systematic literature review of the antecedents and outcomes of meaningful tourist experiences. The advantages of this method include the fact that the focus is on the critical subjects in which to invest in future research through demonstrating the important research gaps that will help to better design and justify the research (Pickering & Byrne, 2014).

4.2 Managerial Implications

COVID-19 has been the wake-up call needed for tourism industries to reflect on the current problems and develop new strategies that enable a more compassionate and meaningful tourism practice. In so being, finding alternatives to innovate the offer and increase safety are two priorities.

Studies on tourism and well-being focus mainly on the hedonic perspective (Nawijn, 2015; Filep et al., 2019; Hao & Xiao, 2021; Allen et al., 2021). A comprehensive perspective of the meaningful tourist experience from tourism industries requires the consideration of hedonic and eudaemonic well-being (Nawijn, 2015; Smith & Diekmann, 2017; Voigt, 2017). As such, the theoretical investigation and destination managers must explore the eudaemonic perspective and its synergy with positive psychology in the development of positive meaningful tourist experiences, allowing for the emergence of other psychological components, such as meaning and purpose in life, life satisfaction, accomplishment, mastery, and affiliation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Fredrickson, 2001; Filep & Deery, 2010; Newman et al., 2014; Filep, 2016; Seligman, 2018; Garcês et al., 2019; Nawijn & Biran, 2019).

Consequently, managers and tourism industries should invest in the emotional, psychological, and social reactions that contribute to the relational component of the experiences, taking the characteristics of the experiences and also the intrinsic characteristics of stakeholders and their contribution to the development of meaningful tourist experiences into account (Staphit & Coudounaris, 2018).

Even though the literature argues for the applicability of positive psychology interventions to enhance tourists' well-being, they have not been overly developed. So, the knowledge about the potential of positive psychology for the promotion of well-being can be a powerful tool in the design of travel experiences (Nawijn, 2015), which could prove to be another arresting idea for tourism industries: innovate to captivate.

Finally, research stresses the need to improve the participation of other people, which is simultaneously important for the promotion of well-being. This research aims to assure that all stakeholders' needs are considered equally. As such, tourism industries can be responsible for exploring whether the quality of life and satisfaction of the host community is threatened by tourism in order to achieve positive well-being outcomes and help host communities and tourism workers flourish, thus contributing to the optimisation of the experience and the improvement of well-being (Filep & Laing, 2019).

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Residents' Perceptions on Tourism Impacts and Quality of Life: The Case of Faro

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ABSTRACT

This work addresses the problem of resident's perceptions of tourism impacts and their perceptions of quality of life. Although there is a growing bank of tourism research available on these topics, specific tourism locations still need to be studied. The main goal of this research was to determine the tourism impacts in Faro, Algarve and whether links could be established between tourism impacts (positive and negative) and residents' perceptions of quality of life, globally, and within four domains, namely: material domain, community domain, health and safety domain and emotional domain. A sample of 300 residents was used to collect data from Faro residents on their perceptions of tourism impacts in their location, as well as the residents' perceptions of their quality of life in the four domains. The results indicate a correlation between perceptions about tourism impacts and residents' perceptions of quality of life within the four domains and globally. These findings open the way for a more holistic understanding of the location's tourism environment and the interplay of tourism and the residents of the tourist location. These findings are beneficial to residents, policy planners, governing bodies and tourism operators.

KEYWORDS

Quality of Life, Residents' Perceptions, Tourism Impacts, Life Domains, Faro, Algarve, Portugal.

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1. Introduction

Economic tourism impacts are at the fore of research. Telfer and Sharpley (2008, p. 180) stated that the “potential contribution” to the locations’ economy is the motivator for tourism development. Yet, the authors also state that there are economic and non-costs associated to tourism that limit these net economic benefits. They list some of the impacts as the generation of income, employment, and the entrepreneurial opportunities for the host community, amongst others. These positive impacts are countered with the negative impacts of, for example, economic costs, overdependency on tourism and the seasonal inflation of prices in the tourism destination. Either positive or negative, these impacts affect the quality of life of residents of the host community in many ways (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2010).

Socio-cultural impacts include those that tourism has on healthcare, law enforcement, sports events and facilities, cultural aspects, such as cultural preservation and cultural exchange between residents and tourists. These impacts can be negative or positive, or both simultaneously at the destination- as evidenced in Gran Canaria by Tovar et al. (2020).

Williams and Lew (2015) determine environmental impacts to include, amongst others, positive impacts on conservation, infrastructure improvement, improved cleanliness of the destination, impacts on biodiversity, regeneration of the built environment and landscape improvement. The authors list negative impacts as disruptions to biodiversity, erosion of sites, pollution, depletion of natural resources, changes to the urban landscape and so on. These tourism impacts affect the host community and their perceptions of their quality of life in the life domains (Uysal et al., 2016).

The life domains categorise aspects of an individuals’ life as: the material domain, and the non-material domains of community, emotional, and health and safety (Lai, Pinto & Pintassilgo, 2020). Material domains relate to income and standard of living, community domains relate to public facilities and services, emotional domains relate to spiritual and other areas of personal fulfilment, and health and safety domains relate to personal perceptions of tourism’s impact on health and safety (Lai, Pinto & Pintassilgo, 2020).

Previous research demonstrates that conclusions on residents’ quality of life in tourism locations are subjective to the location, not allowing generalisations (Garcia et al., 2015). This necessitates research that is location specific, as residents’ perceptions of the impact of tourism and how they perceive their quality of life holds valuable indicators for further research and planning in host destinations. This study aims to determine residents’ perceptions of tourism impact as well as their perceptions toward quality of life in Faro, Algarve. This municipality was chosen because it is the capital of Algarve, the most significant and well-known Portuguese destination, yet not previously studied in the residents’ perspective. The focus is on what links can be determined between both positive and negative tourism impacts within the four life domains and within overall life satisfaction.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Residents Perceptions of Tourism Impacts

Research towards residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts has steadily grown in the last decade, indicating a need for more research in this area. This can be verified by the increased number of journals and books available from academic publishers. For instance, a search in the beginning of 2021 on the ScienceDirect database, for journals and books by publisher Elsevier yielded the following results for the keywords’ resident’s perceptions of tourism impacts - 1990-2010: 2, 628 results, and 2011-2021: 7, 269 results. This shows a 276% increase in research related to the topic.

When tourism development remains at low to moderate levels, residents tend to perceive tourism impacts positively. Yet, when tourism grows in an area, these views shift, and tourism impacts are perceived unfavourably (Woo et al., 2018). However, the relevant literature demonstrates that tourism impacts, and residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts rely on local context and are often location-specific. This view is supported by Garcia et al. (2015), who examined the positive and negative effects of tourism on resident’s attitudes and attempted to define a theoretical base with models and theories that could then generalise

findings. The authors concluded that this was not feasible as different locations provided contrasting data. It is therefore valuable to gather research at different tourism destinations.

It is widely recognised that tourism has important economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts which can be either positive or negative. Tourism offers experiences to tourists and economic opportunities to locations, yet as outlined further on, economic impacts in tourist destinations are not limited to economic opportunities and the context of the location determines how and why these impacts are either negative or positive. Sharpley (2014, p. 37) frames this idea as follows: “the destination communities face something of a ‘development dilemma (Tefler & Sharpley, 2008)’ because they are, in a sense, required to engage in a trade-off between the benefits they perceive to receive from tourism and the negative social and environmental consequences of its development.” For example, in Trujillo, Honduras, a cruise tourism port was established to boost economic opportunities for residents, the port brought the residents better cultural capital and security, but the resultant rise in corruption negated these benefits and further reduced residents’ ability to afford basic necessities (MacNeill & Wozniak, 2018).

Economic impacts include the costs of living, housing and basic necessities (Lai et al., 2020), the impetus for urban development, employment opportunity and employment stability (García et al., 2016), the ‘standard of living’, quantity of jobs, infrastructure and ‘revenue in the economy’ (Stylidis et al., 2014), a destinations dependency on tourism, a deterrent to other economic industry development, an increase in demand for foreign labour, an increase in the manufacture and sale of local produce, and the impetus to attract investment in the destination (Šegota, Mihalič & Kuščer, 2017).

While experiencing economic impacts, tourist destinations experience seasonal peaks of tourism activity and therefore, the effect of seasonality on these economic impacts must also be considered. Residents may perceive economic impacts positively or negatively, and sometimes these views may be held simultaneously. For example, residents in Gran Canaria negatively perceive the tourist season due to rising prices and the insecurity of seasonal employment, yet, at the same time, many residents positively perceived the availability of seasonal employment (Tovar et al., 2020).

Tourism economic impacts extend to the improved availability of services and goods in the area. This is often experienced as a positive impact, yet these positive effects can be negated during tourism seasons. For instance, researchers in Macau found that negative economic perceptions of tourism impacts arose due to shortages of goods and services related to an influx of tourists (Lai & Hitchcock, 2017). Further afield, in the tourist destination of Bahia, Brazil, residents expressed positive perceptions and gratitude for the economic effects of tourism, stating that assets such as their homes and bicycles would not be within their reach if not for tourism (Winter & Adu-Ampong, 2021). The disparity in perception between Macau and Bahia may arise from differences between the two locations, as each offers a different type of tourist experience, the residents have different cultural ideologies and experience contrasting socio-economic circumstances, their locations have developed different infrastructure models and have varying environmental, social and economic needs amongst other factors.

Socio-cultural impacts arise when resident’s ways of life, their social and cultural expectations and their personal experiences, amongst other factors are interrupted by tourism (Soontayatron, 2013). These impacts encompass social behaviours in public and private contexts and a multitude of other factors that arise in specific locations due to cultural norms, practices, and expectations. In a study of tourism impacts in Macau, Lai and Hitchcock (2017), found that residents negatively viewed tourists’ disregard for local smoking laws. Yet, in another study, residents in Gran Canaria, Spain, had positive perceptions of shops being open on Sundays and holidays due to tourism, with only some concern for the negative affect of this on other businesses (Tovar et al., 2020). Tourism produces further inherent socio-cultural impacts at destinations that affect public services such as healthcare, law enforcement, sports facilities, etc. For example, Agovino et al. (2021) state that ‘during the tourist season, residents witness a deterioration in their general quality of life, and specifically in health services.’ Further, Godovykh and Ridderstaat, (2020) determined that tourism impacted resident’s health with short and long-term effects –they found a tourism growth lowered health in the short term and increased resident’s health over the long term.

Socio-cultural impacts also encompass cultural issues such as whether tourism promotes local cultural preservation, cultural exchange between residents and tourists, and how tourism affects cultural identity and respect towards other cultures. These impacts can be positive or negative. For instance, in Bahia,

Brazil the impacts of tourism created better schools, improved healthcare and improved opportunities for residents to participate in leisure activities. Although still basic, these facilities were better than those in other rural non-tourist destinations in Brazil (Winter & Adu-Ampong, 2021). In addition, the authors determined that these residents had positive perceptions that tourism created the impetus for better infrastructure in their area. Socio-cultural contexts include the impact on residents' perception of how their location is viewed by themselves and tourists. Perceptions of prestige, recognition and image of a destination are important to some residents. In Gran Canaria, residents feel that cruise ship tourism positively impacts the image and prestige of the destination (Tovar et al., 2020). Yet if we look at Bahia, Brazil, socio-cultural impacts and perceptions of prestige seem to be of less importance, and the focus is centred on economic impacts that improve quality of life.

Environmental impacts on tourism destinations play a large role for residents. These impacts include those that affect the protection of the environment, the cleanliness of public spaces, pollution, noise and garbage. Stylidis et al. (2014) describe environmental impacts as 'crowding, traffic congestion, noise levels and environmental pollution'. An example of environmental impacts can be found in a study by Hayati et al. (2020) who concluded that tourism in Jakarta, Indonesia, produced the highest percentage of waste on the island and that this waste concentrated in coastal areas with the majority of the waste being plastic packaging from food and drink consumption. High levels of tourism can have other potential adverse effects on the environment, such as the noise pollution reported by residents of Venice, stemming from travellers wheeling suitcases along the city's cobbled streets (Yeomans & Slater, 2021). Or, in Gran Canaria, negative perceptions of cruise ship tourism were experienced due to the consequent increase in air and noise pollution and city congestion (Tovar et al., 2020). Environmental impacts also relate to public spaces such as parks and gardens, city streets, local wildlife and natural surroundings, and even natural resources found in tourism destinations. In Gran Canaria, the beach water and the local town of Las Palmas were jointly considered by residents to be 'dirtier' when tourists arrived (Tovar et al., 2020).

Environmental impacts on infrastructure often produce conflicting views. This is due to how infrastructure improvements can often cause negative impacts on local wildlife, natural landscapes and increase traffic or crime. Yet, they can improve various economic factors, such as those created by improved transport opportunities. For instance, the building of a highway in Bahia, Brazil represents this duality. The highway was seen as damaging to the environment, economically frivolous and unnecessary by a resident who was not reliant on tourism for income, yet residents who relied on tourism for income viewed the highway positively (Winter & Adu-Ampong, 2021). Interestingly, Winter and Adu-Ampong (2021) found that positive perceptions of tourism impacts were mainly related to economic, community health and well-being, and negative perceptions were mainly related to the environmental effects. In another study, Saenz-de-Miera and Rosselló (2012), concluded that an increase in tourists has the potential to lower speeds and increase traffic congestion and volume. The authors also determined that congestion can have a negative effect on the destination's image to tourists, thereby reducing tourism to the area.

2.2 Tourism Impacts on Residents' Quality of Life

Tourism affects resident's quality of life, and these impacts can be researched from a broad perspective, regarding overall life satisfaction (Meeberg, 1993), and regarding life domains (Sirgy et al., 1995). Lai, Pinto and Pintassilgo (2020) researched satisfaction according to life domains in four areas: i) material domains, and non-material domains of ii) community, iii) emotional, and iv) health and safety. In their study, the authors defined material domains as economic factors related to income and standard of living. Community domains were related to public facilities, services and spaces. Emotional domains were classified in relation to personal fulfilment on spiritual and personal levels. Health and safety domains aligned with personal perceptions of how health and safety are affected by tourism.

In a study in India, it was discovered that negative perceptions of tourism impacts arose due to varying levels of exploitation of local workers, nepotism, corruption, government legislation, scarce availability of job opportunities and other factors (Rao & Saksena, 2021). While Rao and Saksena (2021) provide research that leaves a gap for further study related to governing bodies obligation to residents in terms of boosting tourism, creating more genuine tourism experiences, benefiting local communities, and increas-

ing quality of life in their countries, their study also validates research centred around location-specific factors, and highlights the importance of understanding local residents' perceptions of tourism impacts.

In 2020, Lai, Pinto and Pintassilgo researched understanding residents' perceptions of how tourism impacts quality of life in Macau and understanding residents' 'emotional solidarity' towards tourists. Woosnam (2011), defines 'emotional solidarity' as 'the feeling of identification a person has with another person that serves to strengthen bonds between individuals.' This includes the welcoming nature, emotional closeness and sympathetic understanding (Lai et al., 2020) experienced between residents and tourists. How residents act towards tourists will be determined by their perceptions and overall satisfaction of quality of life across life domains. Lai et al. (2020), studied the link between emotional solidarity and quality of life, showing a positive correlation between the two when considering the four domains of material, emotional, health and safety, and community. The authors also determined that overall quality of life impacted the resident's emotional solidarity towards tourists in Macau. The study offers preliminary insights into resident motivations for welcoming or unwelcome attitudes towards tourists. These correlate with perceptions on quality of life and offer insights into the data collection methods utilised, which are similar to those of this study.

In their previous study, Garcia et al. (2015) concluded that residents were inclined to interchange with tourists if the exchange produced benefits aligned to specific factors: 1) the benefits had to be free from undesirable costs, 2) the outcome of residents' perceptions had to be that positive factors outweighed negative factors, and 3.) the interchange between residents and tourists had to have a positive impact on future tourism development. Woo et al. (2015) conducted a study in five different areas, namely: New York City, Hawaii, Orlando, Las-Vegas, and Virginia. The authors concluded that residents' perceptions of quality of life affect their support for further tourism development.

Material life domain impacts create perceptions of quality of life which affect views on life satisfaction. Lai et al. (2020) found that, in general, residents perceived modest positive effects on quality of life due to tourism. These effects were related to material domain factors of income, job security and government benefits. Garcia et al. (2015) show that positive economic impacts result from employment generation and thus income, an increase in the negotiating power of residents, and improved infrastructure and facilities that improve the quality of life and living standards of residents. Garcia et al. (2015), determined negative impacts were related to the seasonal nature of tourist activities, the low-quality jobs available with low salaries and the consequent increase in the cost of living. The authors determined that economic impacts were generally perceived as positive because of the benefits received from tourism. Negatively perceived impacts were low wages and low-quality employment opportunities – yet, at the same time, these are perceived as positive due to the benefit of income.

In a similar context, Rao and Saksena (2021), explored tourism impacts on sustainable livelihood for residents of Ranthambore Tiger Reserve in India and looked deeply at resident's perceptions on economic, social and environmental tourism impacts. Rao and Saksena (2021) concluded that a majority of residents felt tourism had negative economic outcomes – with high local prices and an unfair distribution of economic gains related to the tourism sector. Further to the economic disadvantages, locals were not given the possibility to interact with tourists, as large companies created tour packages that didn't provide opportunities to local traders for positive cultural interaction and exchange. It was concluded that local tourism did not contribute towards higher salaries or higher spending potential for resident households. From this example, a variety of material life impacts exhibit and uncover local perceptions, insufficiencies, and expectations. Understanding these perceptions puts tourism impacts in the area into context and directs the way for further research.

Tourism impacts also affect community life domains which are the socio-cultural and environmental impacts. When residents have access to leisure activities, when there is communication between locals and tourists, when cultural awareness and activities are promoted, and when historical sites are preserved, these are considered by residents to be positive impacts (Garcia et al., 2015), and these can increase feelings of cultural identity and pride for an area. Negative impacts are often perceived as distress, the creation of high-pressure environments and overcrowding, which compromises cultural identity and endangers social reality through an increase in crime in certain areas (Garcia et al., 2015).

Emotional domain impacts include feelings of solidarity towards tourists, a sense of pride in the area

of residence and having either positive or negative feelings and perceptions of tourism and tourism activity and its impacts. An emotional connection to one's home city or city of residence can be affected by the influx of tourists to an area. Although not immediately determinable, the emotional life of residents has a strong effect on their perceptions of tourism impacts. In Bama, China residents feel strong negative associations to tourism and tourists due to the negative effects on their local environment (Huang et al., 2021). This is predominant at the Panyang River which, once clear, is now polluted due to the rapid tourist development in the area and the environmental effects this has had. Huang et al. (2021) cite residents feel 'worry, helplessness and disappointment' in relation to the Panyang river, some residents feel blame towards tourists for the damage caused to the environment by the influx of tourists and frustration is also felt by residents towards the noise and air pollution caused by construction related to tourist development. Emotional responses and impacts from tourism are related to the types of tourism an area experiences, such as health and well-being tourism, or tourism where visitors want authentic experiences from a location, and these different types of tourism bring very different experiences and impacts for residents.

Understanding tourism impacts, and how these affect resident's perceptions of quality of life is a complex process that requires insight into the life domains of residents in order to contextualise findings. While locations might experience tourism impacts differently, and generalisations cannot be made, the understanding of each location and its tourism environment from the resident's point of view offers invaluable insight into tourism. This understanding can then be applied to a variety of research fields and business and entrepreneurial contexts, as well as future tourism development, tourism management, municipal and other governing bodies policies and plans.

3. Methodology

3.1 Study Site

Faro is a municipality of the Algarve region in mainland Portugal. It is also the capital of the Algarve region, the most important and well-known Portuguese destination. In 2019, tourism activity boosted a GDP growth in the Algarve (2.6%) higher than the national average (2.2%) (INE, 2020).

In the last decade, Faro has become a popular tourism area due to this attraction of the Algarve. In addition, it has a balance of vibrant nightlife and outdoor tourist activities, including high-quality beaches and surfing and other water sport activities. Tourism in Faro is benefited by the Faro International Airport, which makes Faro accessible and convenient.

According to the available data from the Census 2011, Faro municipality had a population estimated at 64,560 in 2011, and a balanced distribution of male to female of 47.9% to 52.1%, respectively, in the same year (PORDATA - Search Environment, 2021). The target population for this study were residents in Faro parishes of Conceição e Estoi, Montenegro, Santa Bárbara de Nexe, and Sé and São Pedro.

3.2 Sampling and Data Collection

This study benefits from data collected through a survey questionnaire developed for the RESTUR low season report (2021). This project collected data in the 16 municipalities of the Algarve using stratified sampling by municipality, gender and age group, proportional to the resident population in each municipality. However, for this study, only data from residents living in Faro will be considered. The collected sample size (300) represents 90.1% of the defined sample size (333). Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the remaining 33 (9.9%), who were senior residents, were no longer willing to participate in the study.

The questionnaire was applied in 2020 from February to March, and October to November, during the Algarve tourism low season. The sample consisted of Portuguese residents in the city, aged 18 years and older. An inquiry team randomly approached residents in public spaces such as parks, shops, restaurants, places of residence, streets, etc. The residents then filled out the questionnaires in their own capacity. Questionnaires that were returned incomplete or with non-response rates over 10% were discarded.

3.3 Survey Instrument and Measures

Previous literature provided foundational information on which to build the survey questions. As mentioned, earlier studies identified tourism impacts according to economic, socio-cultural and environmental factors, as well as life satisfaction with regards to the life domains of material, community, emotional, and health and safety. These dimensions were used to structure and form the questions and to organise the data. This study explores some questions of the questionnaire used in the RESTUR project, namely about perceptions towards tourism impacts, perceptions towards quality of life, sociodemographic variables and questions that measure dependence from the tourism activity.

The survey questionnaire provided 5-point Likert scales for resident responses. Tourism impacts were measured using a Likert scale of agreement ranging from 1 to 5, where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. Questions of life satisfaction had a Likert scale of satisfaction ranging from 1-5 where 1=very unsatisfied, 2=unsatisfied, 3= Neutral, 4=satisfied, 5=very satisfied. These scales were used to determine the degree of agreement between respondents, and this was quantified as a mean value that determined the average opinion or perception according to the scale options. Nominal or ordinal scales were used to identify gender, marital status, education level and employment situation. Open answer questions were used to identify age, municipality of residence, parish of residence and length of residence in their municipality. Table 1 shows the studies used to inform the items chosen to assess the tourism impacts and quality of life dimensions in this study.

Table 1. Analysed Questions Theoretical Foundation

Analysis Dimensions	References
Perceptions about the economic, environmental and sociocultural impacts of tourism	Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2015); Sánchez et al. (2014) García et al. (2016); Vareiro et al. (2013); Nunkoo & Gursoy (2012); Jordan et al. (2019); Segota et al. (2017); Rasoolimanesh et al. (2015); Choi et al. (2005); Tosun (2002); Wang (2019); Lin et al. (2017); Lee & Jan (2019); Liang & Hui (2016); Kim et al. (2013) Woo et al. (2018)
Perceptions about tourism impacts on the quality of life	Suess et al. (2018); Andereck et al. (2011); Lee & Jan (2019); Kim et al. (2013, 2018)
Personal characteristics	Used by all the aforementioned researches Liang & Hui (2016)

Source: Own Elaboration

3.4 Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 300 residents in Faro, with slightly more female (51.7%) respondents than male (48.3%). This gives a good representation of this demographic for Faro's residents as it is very close to the distribution reported on www.citypopulation.de (Faro District, Portugal) - Population Statistics, Charts, Map and Location, 2021), which cites 52.6% female residents in Faro and 47.4% male residents. Respondents' age varied from 18 to 86 years old. The average age was 43 years old, with a standard deviation of over 16 years. The highest percentage of respondents were single (43.7%), followed closely by 42.3% being married or living together, and the remaining sample was divided as 10.9% divorced and 3.1% widowed. Regarding education, 18.5% of the sample had completed elementary school until 9 years, 47.3% had completed secondary school, and 34.2% had completed a form of higher education. Responses from 291 of the 300 residents on how long they had lived in the municipality indicated an average term of approximately 28 years of residency in the council of Faro, yet a deviation of over 18 years implies that a diverse residency term in fact exists. Residents came from several parishes, but Sé e São Pedro residents delivered around 83% of responses from 245 of 300 responses received.

Regarding a connection to the tourism sector, 55% of respondents had professional activity related to the tourism sector, with 38,6% having a member of their household working in the tourism sector, and

66.4% of respondents declared that either part or totality of their income was derived from tourism. Of the 300 responses to this question, it was determined that 77.6% were employed and only 2.4% were unemployed. Further, 6.4% were students, 11.5% were retired and 2% were maintaining a household.

3.5 Data Analysis

Once collected, data from the questionnaires were entered into the IBM SPSS Statistics 25 software for analysis. The tourism impacts were divided by positive and negative impacts, allowing each to be presented independently and also in relation to the other. The same rationale was used to analyse satisfaction with the four life domains (material, community, emotional, and health & safety) and overall life satisfaction. Each item analysed was characterised with a mean and standard deviation. Overall means were also provided. Each scale was validated using the Cronbach Alpha. Pearson R correlations and their significance were used to assess the degree of correlation between positive or negative perceptions on tourism impacts, and life satisfaction.

4. Results

4.1 Perceptions about Economic Impacts

The overall means for perceptions about economic impacts show a slight difference between the positive impacts (3.68) and the negative impacts (3.65) (Table 2). This indicates that residents perceive high positive impacts and high negative impacts, with only marginally more positive impacts. An adequate level of internal consistency was verified in both scales given the Cronbach's alpha values, close or higher than 0.8 (0.845, for positive impacts and 0.791, for negative impacts).

Table 2. Perceptions Regarding Economic Impacts of Tourism

Type of Impacts	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
Positive economic impacts			0.845	3.68
Tourism is the main economic activity	3.72	1.005		
Tourism increases employment opportunities	4.20	0.727		
Tourism creates more business for local people	4.07	0.822		
Tourism creates more business for foreign people	3.59	0.941		
Tourism contributes to create new services & businesses	4.02	0.694		
Tourism contributes to develop local economic activities	4.13	0.668		
Tourism is likely to attract more investment	3.95	0.827		
The money spent by tourists stays in the municipality	3.11	0.863		
More roads and urbanisation were constructed due to tourism	3.05	1.008		
Tourism promotes the restoration of historic buildings	3.34	1.066		
Tourism improves shopping, restaurant and entertainment opportunities	3.31	1.005		
Negative economic impacts			0.791	3.65
Tourism increases the cost of living	4.26	0.843		
Goods and services are more expensive because of tourism	3.97	0.955		
Cultural attractions and events are more expensive because of tourism	3.61	0.989		
Most of the local business are for tourists	2.92	0.986		
Tourism contributes to reduce the traditional trade	2.68	1.028		
Tourism generates employment instability due to seasonality	3.76	1.038		
My municipality is economically over-dependent on tourism	3.66	0.995		
Tourism increases the price of housing and land	4.39	0.736		

Source: Own Elaboration

Regarding negative impacts, respondents showed mixed views – indicated by a high standard deviation - on whether cultural attractions and events were more expensive due to tourism, on whether tourism generated instability in employment due to the high incidence of seasonal work and whether the municipality was overly economically dependent on tourism. As table 2 evidences, there was a strong agreement that tourism increased the cost of living in the municipality ($M=4.26$), and a moderate agreement that goods and services became more expensive due to tourism ($M=3.97$).

Regarding negative impacts, respondents showed mixed views – indicated by a high standard deviation - on whether cultural attractions and events were more expensive due to tourism, on whether tourism generated instability in employment due to the high incidence of seasonal work and whether the municipality was overly economically dependent on tourism. As table 2 evidences, there was a strong agreement that tourism increased the cost of living in the municipality ($M=4.26$), and a moderate agreement that goods and services became more expensive due to tourism ($M=3.97$).

4.2 Perceptions about Socio-cultural Impacts

The overall mean for positive impacts (3.26) and overall mean for negative impacts (2.82) indicate more positive perceptions regarding socio-economic impacts of tourism than negative (Table 3). Regarding the socio-cultural impacts, the scales report an adequate level of internal consistency given the Cronbach's alpha values, close or higher than 0.8 (0.789, for positive impacts and 0.899, for negative impacts).

Table 3 shows that residents in Faro somewhat agreed that tourism stimulates cultural activities, festivals and traditions ($M=3.59$), that it promotes cultural exchange between residents and tourists ($M=3.64$), and that it contributes to the recognition, prestige and image of their municipality ($M=3.76$). Residents in Faro also showed agreement with the idea that residents are hospitable and receive tourists with politeness ($M=3.77$).

Table 3. Perceptions Regarding Socio-Cultural Impacts of Tourism

Type of Impacts	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
Positive socio-cultural impacts			0.789	3.255
Tourism improves public services	2.54	0.970		
Tourism stimulates cultural activities, festivals and traditions	3.59	0.904		
Tourism contributes to the preservation of the local culture	3.32	0.975		
Tourism promotes cultural exchange between residents and tourists	3.64	0.895		
Tourism changes the consumption habits of residents	2.96	1.014		
Tourism contributes to raising the standard of living of residents	2.92	1.015		
Tourism contributes to increase security	2.84	0.991		
Tourism contributes to the recognition, prestige, and image of my municipality	3.76	0.800		
Residents in my municipality are hospitable and receive tourists with politeness	3.77	0.944		
Negative socio-cultural impacts			0.899	2.818
Tourism increases drugs and alcohol consumption	3.33	0.990		
Tourism increases prostitution and moral degradation	2.88	1.001		
Tourism increases sexually transmitted diseases	2.94	0.928		
Tourism causes more crime and vandalism	2.86	0.966		
Tourism generates loss or change of traditions and cultural identity	2.77	0.936		
Tourism causes loss of tolerance and respect for other cultures	2.45	0.897		
Tourism increases stress and disturbs quietness	3.04	1.066		
The increasing number of tourists is likely to result in conflicts with residents	2.72	0.973		
Residents change their behaviour in an attempt to mimic tourists	2.55	0.930		
Residents are likely to suffer from living in this tourism destination	2.87	1.042		
My municipality is overcrowded because of tourism	2.75	1.062		

Source: Own Elaboration

The overall average (3.26) reflects the positive perceptions of residents about several aspects: whether tourism encourages cultural activities, festivals and traditions ($M=3.59$); whether tourism promotes cultural exchange between residents and tourists ($M=3.64$); if tourism contributes to the recognition, prestige and image of my municipality ($M=3.76$) and if residents in the municipality are hospitable and receive educated tourists ($M=3.77$). Conversely, residents did not feel that tourism improved public services ($M=2.54$) or increased security ($M=2.84$).

Regarding negative impacts, findings indicate that most residents perceived that tourism did not cause a loss or change of traditions and cultural identity ($M=2.77$). The most significant negative socio-cultural impacts mentioned by residents were an increase in drug and alcohol consumption ($M=3.33$), followed by an increase in stress and disruptions to the quietness ($M=3.04$).

4.3 Perceptions about Environmental Impacts

The overall mean for positive impacts being 2.85 is considerably lower than the mean for negative impacts of 3.26, this indicates that residents perceive greater negative environmental impacts due to tourism (Table 4). Both scales report a high level of internal consistency given the Cronbach's alpha values, higher than 0.85 (0.878, for positive impacts and 0.864, for negative impacts).

As shown in table 4 perceptions towards positive environmental impacts have high variance. They are low overall, showing that residents in Faro disagree regarding tourism impacts being the impetus to creating more gardens and parks ($M=2.46$), improving the protection of the environment ($M=2.61$), protecting natural heritage and natural resources ($M=2.92$), improving cleanliness of public spaces ($M=2.93$), and influencing ecological awareness amongst residents ($M=2.85$).

Table 4. Perceptions Regarding Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Positive environmental impacts	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
There are more public gardens and parks because of tourism	2.46	0.972	0.878	2.851
Tourism improves the protection of the environment	2.61	0.915		
Tourism improves the protection of natural heritage and resources	2.92	0.971		
Tourism improves public infrastructures	3.01	1.051		
Tourism improves road signage systems	3.18	0.987		
Tourism improves the cleanliness of public spaces	2.93	0.979		
Tourism positively influences ecological awareness amongst residents	2.85	0.924		
Negative environmental impacts			0.864	3.263
Tourism increases pollution, noise, garbage, etc	3.38	0.998		
Tourism deteriorates the natural environment	2.94	0.912		
Tourism contributes to occupy the natural areas	3.45	0.969		
Tourism prevents the access of residents to natural spaces	2.93	1.077		
Tourism contributes to decharacterise the landscape	3.15	1.099		
Tourism generates traffic congestion, accidents and parking problems	3.72	1.041		

Source: Own Elaboration

Moreover, residents have varied perceptions towards the negative impacts of tourism, with a high incidence of agreement that tourism increases pollution, noise, garbage, etc. ($M=3.38$), that tourism contributes to occupy the natural areas ($M=3.45$), and that tourism mischaracterises and deteriorates the natural landscape ($M=3.15$), and generates traffic congestion, accidents and parking problems ($M=3.72$).

4.4 Perceptions about Residents' Quality of Life

4.4.1 Satisfaction with the live domains of quality of life

Regarding the material life domain, residents indicated an 'unsatisfied' response overall ($M=2.43$), demonstrating dissatisfaction and poor perceptions of material domain quality of life (table 5). The real

estate taxes ($M=1.94$) showed the highest level of dissatisfaction, with a low standard deviation of 0.846 which indicates some unanimity and low diversity in these responses. The benefits received from the government ($M=2.09$) and the cost of basic necessities in the municipality ($M=2.41$) presented low means, also indicating dissatisfaction with these items. Responses between unsatisfied and neutral were shown with regards to cost of living ($M=2.44$), the cost of basic necessities ($M=2.41$), income at current job ($M=2.55$), the economic security at the current job ($M=2.89$), and the family income ($M=2.67$). The items composing the scale used to measure satisfaction with material life domain report a high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.860$).

Table 5. Satisfaction with Material Life Domain Quality of Life

Items Analysed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
The cost of living in my municipality	2.44 2.41	0.935	0.860	2.43
The cost of necessities in my municipality	1.94 2.55	0.922		
The real estate taxes in my municipality	2.89 2.67	0.846		
The income at my current jobs	2.09	0.963		
The economic security of my current job		1.053		
The family income		0.933		
The benefits I receive from the government		0.927		

Source: Own Elaboration

As for community life domain, table 6 evidences, residents showed moderate perceptions of satisfaction toward the people who live in the community ($M=3.32$) and overall municipality life ($M=3.27$) both of these items had low standard deviations which indicates a low variance of answers and, therefore, agreement by residents on their perceptions of these factors. The remaining items show dissatisfied perceptions of the environmental conditions of the municipality ($M=2.74$), the conditions of the public transport in the municipality ($M=2.46$), the services and facilities received in the municipality ($M=2.69$) and the way culture is preserved in the municipality ($M=2.99$). An overall mean of 2.91 indicates a majority of dissatisfied perceptions regarding community domain quality of life. This scale presents a high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.850$).

Table 6. Satisfaction with Community Life Domain Quality of Life

Items Analysed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
The environmental conditions of my municipality	2.74	0.973	0.850	2.91
The conditions of the public transportation in my municipality	2.46	1.016		
The services and facilities I receive in my municipality	2.69	0.941		
The people who live in my municipality	3.32	0.771		
The way culture is preserved in my municipality	2.99	0.881		
The overall municipality life	3.27	0.901		

Source: Own Elaboration

Residents showed moderate satisfaction regarding spare time ($M=3.36$) and leisure life ($M=3.38$), although high standard deviations of 1.027 and 1.020 respectively indicate diverse responses (table 7). Leisure activities in the municipality showed neutral responses ($M=3.06$). Religious services in the municipality ($M=3.14$), and spiritual life in the municipality ($M=3.11$) had an average response of 'neutral' with low standard deviations (0.692 and 0.698, respectively) that indicate high unanimity in responses. The overall mean of 3.21 indicates residents generally have neutral perceptions regarding emotional life domain satisfaction. The scale reports a high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.825$).

Table 7. Satisfaction with Emotional Life Domain Quality of Life

Items Analysed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
The spare time	3.36	1.027	0.825	3.21
The leisure life	3.38	1.020		
The leisure activities in my municipality	3.06	0.922		
The religious services in my municipality	3.14	0.692		
The spiritual life in my municipality	3.11	0.678		

Source: Own Elaboration

Related to the health and safety life domain, residents showed some satisfaction with environmental quality (M=3.26), air quality (M=3.31) and water quality (M=3.36) in their community (table 8). Neutral views were generally held regarding safety and security (M=3.02), environmental cleanliness (M=2.95), traffic congestion (M=2.75) and crime rates (M=2.98). More negative views were reported regarding the municipal health facilities (M=2.38) and the health service quality (M=2.36). An overall mean of 2.93 indicates neutral perceptions, leaning towards positive views. The scale reports a high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha=0.861).

Table 8. Satisfaction with Health and Safety Life Domain Quality of Life

Items Analysed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
The health facilities in my municipality	2.38	1.017	0.861	2.93
The health service quality in my municipality	2.36	1.024		
The air quality in my municipality	3.31	0.835		
The water quality in my municipality	3.36	0.912		
The environmental quality in my municipality	3.26	0.891		
The environmental cleanliness in my municipality	2.95	0.986		
The safety and security in my municipality	3.02	0.971		
The traffic congestion in my municipality	2.75	1.022		
The crime rate in my municipality	2.98	0.925		

Source: Own Elaboration

4.4.2 Overall satisfaction with quality of life

Respondents indicated satisfaction with their life (3.74) and perceived themselves as generally happy people (3.82) – these responses were supported by low standard deviations that indicate high agreement from residents (Table 9). Further, residents responded with 'neutral' to the items, 'so far, I have gotten the important things I want in life' (M=3.20), 'in most ways my life is close to the ideal' (M=3.02), and 'the conditions of my life are excellent' (M=3.01). The only factor that provided a negative response (M=2.85) was 'if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing' – this response had a standard deviation of 0.978 – the highest of the items (although not high), indicating that this item had the most diverse answers. The overall mean (3.27) shows residents in general are moderately satisfied with their life. The scale reports a very good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha=0.875).

Table 9. Overall Life Satisfaction

Item Analysed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Overall Mean
I am satisfied with my life as a whole	3.74	0.758	0.875	3.27
The conditions of my life are excellent	3.01	0.928		
In most ways my life is close to the ideal	3.02	0.922		
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life	3.20	0.903		
If I could live my live over, I would change almost nothing	2.85	0.978		
In general, I am a happy person	3.82	0.802		

Source: Own Elaboration

4.5 Impacts of Tourism and Perceptions Toward Quality of Life

The matrix below (table 10) reflects Pearson R correlations among the dimensions of perceptions on tourism impacts (economic, socio-cultural and environmental) and the dimensions of quality of life (material, community, emotional, health and safety, and overall life satisfaction). These correlations are analysed in relation to the research question: which aspects of tourism impacts are related to resident's quality of life in the capital of Algarve, Faro?

As reported in table 10, overall, the correlations are low to moderate. Their highest value is 0.456 between perceptions about positive environmental impacts and satisfaction with the health and safety life domain. Results also show that all correlations are significant at 1% or 5%. This means that hypotheses of the absence of correlations between the pairs of variables in the target population, should be rejected. In other words, and with respect to our research question, results allow us to conclude that all aspects of tourism impacts are related to resident's quality of life in the city of Faro.

Another significant finding is that all correlations between positive impacts and the dimensions of quality of life are positive. This implies that residents' positive perceptions about tourism impacts are positively correlated to higher levels of satisfaction with the quality of life. Regarding the positive economic impacts, the higher correlations are with the health and safety life domain (0.374) and community life domain (0.363). The same pattern was reported in what concerns the positive socio-cultural impacts, and the positive environmental impacts. They are stronger correlated to the same life domains: health and safety life domain (0.421 and 0.456, respectively) and community life domain (0.337 and 0.431, respectively). However, the highest correlation with perceptions about positive impacts regarding the overall life domain involves the economic impacts (0.255).

Of further significance is that all correlations between negative impacts and the dimensions of quality of life are negative. This implies that residents strongly perceive the negative impacts of tourism, at the three levels – economic, socio-cultural and environmental – and are less satisfied with quality of life, considering its several domains: material, community, emotional, health and safety, and overall life satisfaction. This implies that residents' negative perceptions about tourism impacts are negatively correlated to lower satisfaction levels with quality of life. Regarding the negative economic impacts, the highest correlations were in the material life domain (-0.237) and health and safety domain (-0.175). With the negative socio-cultural impact, the highest correlations were for the health and safety domain (-0.282), followed by the emotional domain (-0.233). The negative environmental impacts had the highest correlation with the health and safety domain (-0.262) followed by the material life domain (-0.232). Interestingly, health and safety domain were negatively correlated in all three impacts – economic, socio-cultural and environmental – with the highest negative correlation in socio-cultural and environmental levels. This indicates that negative perceptions about environmental and socio-cultural impacts negatively correlate to negative perceptions of quality of life in the health and safety domain. Regarding the overall life domain, the highest correlation was regarding socio-cultural impacts (-0.151).

Table 10. Correlation Matrix of Tourism Impacts (Positive and Negative) and the Life Domains

Tourism Impacts	Life Domains				
	Material	Community	Emotional	Health & Safety	Overall
Positive Economic Impacts	0.153*	0.363**	0.244**	0.374**	0.255**
Negative Economic Impacts	-0.237**	-0.140*	-0.172**	-0.175**	-0.126*
Positive Socio-Cultural Impacts	0.281**	0.337**	0.197**	0.421**	0.198**
Negative Socio-Cultural Impacts	-0.126*	-0.197**	-0.233**	-0.282**	-0.151*
Positive Environmental Impacts	0.290**	0.431**	0.246**	0.456**	0.130*
Negative Environmental Impacts	-0.232**	-0.225**	-0.185**	-0.262**	-0.130**

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Source: Own Elaboration

5. Discussion

This study, integrated into the RESTUR project (RESTUR, 2019), is the first to research residents' perceptions in Faro, in the Algarve, Portugal. The research utilised data gathered from 300 Faro residents in 2020 to answer the research question of which aspects of tourism are related to residents' quality of life in the Algarve capital, Faro. The following analysis details the results and links these and the previous literature to determine commonalities and differences that support findings, therefore responding to the third research aim.

5.1 Residents' Perceptions about Tourism Impacts

The measurement of residents' perceptions of tourism impacts demonstrated a variety of views in response to data collected from the RESTUR survey questionnaire questions.

Perceptions toward economic impacts were perceived to have high positive, and high negative impacts in Faro, with only marginally more positive impacts than negative. This presented as views of increased employment opportunities, more business creation, a contribution to new services and businesses and towards developing local economic activities for local people, yet this was countered by only marginally fewer views that tourism generated unemployment due to seasonality. Overall, views on the negative impact of tourism on the cost of living in the Faro municipality were highest, indicating the strong positive perceptions were contrasted by these strong negative perceptions. Overall, findings on economic impacts demonstrate residents experience mixed views and a sense of duality in their perceptions towards these economic impacts. These findings are aligned to Telfer and Sharpley's (2015) idea that tourism destinations engage in an exchange between the benefits (positive perceptions) and negative social and environmental impacts of tourism. The findings are also similar to those of Tovar et al. (2020) who determined that residents of Gran Canaria experienced a duality between the positive economic impacts of employment, and the negative economic impacts of that employment being seasonal, and Gonzalez et al. (2018) who concluded that residents were appreciative of the positive and negative impacts of tourism on the economy, which created overall positive perceptions of tourism, despite their awareness of the negative impacts. Yet, the findings differ to those of Bahia, Brazil where researchers determined that residents were grateful for the economic effects of tourism for providing their assets (Winter & Adu-Ampong, 2021). So, our study reinforces that idea that the findings are different or similar in different locations, indicating that residents' perceptions are reliant on contextual factors related to the destination, and are therefore not consistent when generalised – as determined by Garcia et al. (2015).

Perceptions toward socio-cultural impacts demonstrated overall high positive perceptions, especially towards tourism's contribution toward residents' hospitality in receiving tourists with politeness, and the recognition, prestige, and image of the municipality -much like the residents of Gran Canaria who felt that

cruise ship tourism positively benefitted the image and prestige of the destination (Tovar et al., 2020). This is contrasted by destinations, such as Bahia, Brazil where perceptions of prestige are of little significance when economic impacts are of high importance (Winter & Adu-Ampong, 2021). This was complemented by positive views of tourism stimulating cultural activities, festivals and traditions, and promoting cultural exchange between residents and tourists. Negative perceptions were mostly related to a loss of cultural identity and tradition, a degradation of society through increased drug and alcohol consumption and increased stress and disruptions to the municipality's quietness. Noise pollution is similarly reported in Venice, Italy due to travellers wheeling suitcases along cobbled streets (Yeomans & Slater, 2021) and in Gran Canaria due to cruise ship tourism (Tovar et al., 2020). These residents also cited that tourists made the beach water seem more polluted. Once again, it is hard to draw generalities from these findings as the outcome – noise pollution is the same, yet the source, context and predetermining factors are entirely different.

Perceptions toward environmental impacts showed that residents viewed high negative impacts, mostly associated to an increase in noise, pollution, garbage and so on, as well as tourism's impact on deteriorating the natural landscape, occupying natural areas and generating traffic congestion and related problems such as accidents and parking insufficiency. Saenz-de-Miera and Rosselló (2012) concluded that an increase in tourists lowered speeds and increased traffic congestions, which created a negative image of the destination and reduced tourism to the area. While the effect – congestion – is the same in both destinations, the outcome of the impact is different, necessitating research that is location specific to gain more holistic views of tourism impacts.

5.2 Perceptions about Resident's Quality of Life

The material life domain was determined to have an overall response of 'unsatisfied', indicating that residents in Faro manifest concern about material life, especially regarding the cost of real estate taxes and the cost of living (i.e. the cost of basic necessities), income, and economic security at their place of employ, as well as family income as a whole. Lai et al. (2020) found that residents experienced negative tourism impacts related to living costs, housing costs and basic necessity costs, and only modest positive effects on quality of life due to tourism impacts on income, job security and government benefits. Garcia et al. (2015) determined quality of life was enhanced by improved infrastructure and facilities and this resulted from positive economic impacts of employment generation and therefore income generation. The authors also determined that negative impacts resulted from seasonality and the low-quality jobs tourism provided. They also found duality in the negative perceptions of low wages and low-quality employment, countered by the positive impacts of income (from employment). Rao and Saksena (2021) found a similar negative perception in Ranthambore Tiger Reserve in India with economic factors such as high prices and unfair distribution of economic gains, yet here the residents perceived economic activity to be monopolised by large private companies and their perceptions were shaped by the politics of the region. Once again, similar impacts and effects on residents' perceptions occur, yet the context of their impact can be different, with different overall outcomes. Each location has its own environment of causation and this affects the perceptions of residents, as well as the impact of tourism that precedes this.

Community life domain had overall 'unsatisfied' responses accompanied by only moderate perceptions of satisfaction regarding overall municipality life and the people who live in the municipality. Negative perceptions were motivated by tourism impacts on the municipality's environmental conditions, the conditions of public transport, received services and facilities, and the preservation of culture in the municipality. Residents are attached to their local environment and as Garcia et al. (2015) found, residents were grateful for their infrastructure and preserving their natural resources in a tourism context.

The results about the Emotional life domain revealed that residents held neutral perceptions in this domain, neither feeling particularly positive or negative overall towards aspects such as spare time, leisure activities, religious services, spiritual life and leisure life. This is contrasted by the experience of residents in Bama, China who felt strong negative association to tourism due to the negative effects on their environment (Huang et al., 2021). In Bama the residents felt 'worry, helplessness and disappointment' regarding the pollution of the Panyang river at their tourism location. Although these residents

felt strong negative emotions regarding tourism impacts, they were optimistic and hopeful that tourism would bring positive economic impacts in the future and thereby improve their living conditions. The case of China, suggests that emotional life perceptions are location-specific and strong negative perceptions in one domain (in this instance the emotional life domain) may be suppressed by residents in hope of better impacts in other life domains.

Health & Safety domain revealed mostly neutral views toward safety and security, environmental cleanliness, traffic congestion and crime rates, with some leaning towards positive views such as environmental, air and water quality. Negative views were associated with health facilities and their service quality. These negative views align with the findings of Agovino et al. (2021) who determined that residents experienced a deterioration of health services during tourism season. Findings that align don't necessarily imply that a generalisation can be made, rather the context of the location must be considered and further research applied. Further to this, residents' perceptions of health and safety domains can change according to the context of how the world changes and these unpredictable aspects require frameworks that are adaptable. For instance, Joo et al. (2021) studied the effect of the Covid-19 pandemic on residents' perceptions of safety vs. risk regarding domestic tourists and the virus. Ordinarily residents may have had positive perceptions of domestic tourists, yet findings indicated that under the threat of a pandemic, domestic tourists were now viewed as a risk.

An analysis of overall satisfaction with quality of life revealed that people in Faro are generally happy and had similar moderate responses of being 'satisfied' with their life. The only factor that showed an overall negative mean was the question of 'If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.'

5.2.1 Correlations among residents' perceptions on tourism impacts and quality of life

Correlation results showed that all aspects of tourism impacts are related to resident's quality of life in the city of Faro. As Faro may experience tourism differently to other locations, the understanding of the city and its tourism environment in terms of impacts on residents has value to the region and tourism related industries and services and necessitates research that is location specific to Faro.

Data indicates that the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts all had high correlations with the health and safety domain indicating that these three categories of impacts strongly influence residents' perceptions regarding the health and safety domain. Two impacts - namely negative economic and negative environmental - had high correlations with the material domain. This implies negative perceptions regarding environmental and socio-cultural impacts are correlated to negative perceptions on quality of life in the material domain. Regarding the overall life domain, the highest correlation was with socio-cultural impacts, indicating socio-cultural impacts had the most impact on residents' overall perceptions of quality of life.

6. Conclusion

This study contributes to advance the knowledge of the tourism-resident connection in a city that is the capital of an important and well recognized tourism destination, the Algarve. The findings indicate a relationship between tourism impacts and residents' perceptions of quality of life in Faro. This relation had not been explored yet, even in the RESTUR project. By understanding the importance of tourism in improving residents' quality of life in the city, tourism planners should improve the tourism offer in order to also address the local residents' needs and wishes - and this could improve their quality of life. This includes, for example, more green zones, investments in better health infrastructures, and increased cultural events.

This study is not free of limitations. As some data was collected before the first pandemic lockdown, it is likely results were affected by the pandemic, and this issue was not addressed in this study. These findings could also benefit from further research regarding the context of residents in different income groups or age categories, and those who are not related to the tourism industry or reliant on it for income. Further research into other areas of the Algarve can offer a holistic picture of the region which could provide a template for analysis of factors of differentiation or commonalities regarding how tourism impacts the region.

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The Determinants of Constructive Deviant Behaviour of Frontline Tourism Employees: An Exploration with Perceived Supervisory Support and Intrinsic Motivation

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ABSTRACT

This study examined whether the employees' internal motivation mediated the relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviance. The population of this study consisted of front-line employees who work at four and five-star hotels in Bolu, Turkey. The study employed simple random sampling, one of the probability sampling methods, and data were collected by survey method. 170 questionnaires were distributed, and the number of valid questionnaires was 154. The analysis of surveys revealed that intrinsic motivation plays a partial mediating role in the relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviance and has a positive significant effect on innovative constructive deviant behaviors. In addition, it was found that positive relationship between supervisory support and challenging constructive deviant behaviours and negative relationship between supervisory support and innovative constructive deviant behaviours. No relationship has been found between supervisory support and interpersonal constructive deviant behaviour. In this context, it should be taken into account that employees should feel the support of managers in order to be more flexible and willing to deal with various situations. The study makes a theoretical contribution to the literature by presenting findings about the antecedents of the tendency of front-line workers in the hospitality industry to exhibit constructive deviant behaviors.

KEYWORDS

Perceived Supervisory Support, Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviours, Intrinsic Motivation, Front-line Tourism Employees.

ARTICLE HISTORY

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1. Introduction

Attaining the highest possible benefit from employees is key to organizational success. The literature on organizational behavior also stresses the need for the employees to exert extra-role efforts that exceed the job requirements (Parker, Mullarkey & Jackson, 1994; Parker, Wall & Jackson, 1997). However, many organizations have been designed in a way to strictly supervise business processes in order to promote desirable business behaviors. Despite helping to create organizational routines, strict supervisions, in terms of creative task performance, hinder employees from defining their roles broadly and impair their tendency to undertake proactive roles (Galperin, 2002).

In social sciences, deviance represents revolting from customary or approved behavioral norms (Goode & Ben-Yehuda, 2009). Constructive deviant behaviors in the social sciences refer to 'the behaviors that deviate from the norms of a reference group in an honorable ways' (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004, p. 841). Such behaviors have been understood to make positive changes and promote novelties within organizations, hence the greater attention the topic has started to attract in recent years (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019).

In the hospitality sector, service quality, customer satisfaction, good customer-employee relations are key to a business' competitiveness. To these ends, particularly the front-line employees must comply with a certain set of standards when they interact with customers; however, they sometimes choose to violate such set procedures and standards to be able to meet expectations (Mertens, Recker, Kohlborn & Kummer, 2016). Nevertheless, each and every sector and profession have employees who are capable of finding better solutions engaging in deviant behaviors with good intentions although they have the same resources, challenges, and concerns as other employees (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019).

Behaviors that deviate from the norms and the rules are mostly associated with negative outcomes and perceived as a threat; however, as is pointed out by some researchers (Galperin, 2002; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Vadera, Pratt & Mishra, 2013), such behavior may also have positive outcomes. In this regard, in addition to the potential negativities intrinsic to its nature, constructive deviance can also be regarded as the basis of customer satisfaction (Gong, Ya Wang & Lee, 2020), creativity, and innovation in that creative and innovative processes usually require employees to compromise on existing norms and *status quo* (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019). Deviant behaviors break norms, but they are also functional, especially when they are conceptualized as innovative ways leading to better organizational practices (Pascale, Sternin & Sternin, 2010).

Since constructive deviant behaviors are relatively a recent topic of interest, we have limited insight into the motivational processes underlying them (Michel & Hargis, 2017). In addition, some of the researchers dealing with the nature and causes of workplace behaviors that deviate from the routines suggest that such factors as supervisory support and intrinsic motivation may be the precursors of constructive deviance (Vadera et al., 2013). However, no empirical study has been found to address how supervisory support and intrinsic motivation for constructive deviant behavior affect employees' behavioral responses. This study aimed to fill this research gap. In this study, we discussed behaviors that deviate from organizational norms, but have positive intentions and benefits the reference group. To be more specific, in this study, whether perceived managerial support is related to employees' tendencies to exhibit constructive deviant behaviors and the role of intrinsic motivation in this relationship were discussed, and in this way, it was aimed to contribute to the empirical knowledge on the subject. The literature review failed to come up with a single study that examines all the relationships between the variables dealt with in this study. In addition, by considering each dimension of constructive deviant behavior separately as the dependent variables of the study, we aimed to give depth to the subject by evaluating whether the basic antecedent and psychological mechanisms are related to the three types of constructive deviance in different ways. This study also has practical implications for management practices. Managers must be reliable and make their employees feel supported in order to transform the energy of the employees to the benefit of the organization. This kind of a climate may lead employees to work harder for their organizations and to exhibit behaviors that will benefit the organization at the expense of violating norms and rules. On the other hand, since the attitudes and behaviors of managers significantly affect the way employees do their work, managers' behaviors that encourage employees to take risks and use initiative may encourage employees to engage in constructive deviant behaviors.

The paper is structured into different sections. Section 2 includes the theoretical background and hypothesis. Section 3 explains the methodology. Section 4 presents the analyses. The final section is the conclusion, and we respond to the objectives set out in the study in it.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

There are two unintegrated-to-each-other approaches to deviant behaviors, in the literature: The first approach argues that violation of rules by the employees leads to undesirable consequences and concentrates on the negative sides of deviant behaviors. The other approach, on the other hand, points out that deviant behaviors may generate positive outputs for the organizations and regards such demeanor as advantageous acts (Ridic & Aidoo, 2016).

The concept of constructive deviant behavior represents voluntary acts through which the employees deliberately violate the organizational norms and rules but nevertheless that contribute to the wellbeing of either the organization or the employees or both (Galperin, 2002). Such behaviors that deviate from the norms of the reference group, exhibited deliberately and voluntarily (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004), and performed with good intentions (Galperin & Burke, 2006) are deemed to be of importance in terms of organizational competitive advantage (Li & Li-Yun, 2015). Constructive deviant behaviors that positively influence the organization have good intentions, conform to the hyper norms, and never cause harm to other employees and the organization as a whole (Mayanja, Ntayi & Munene, 2020).

As to the conceptualization of constructive deviant behaviors, some researchers focus on the outcomes of behaviors (Pascale & Sternin, 2005), whereas others on whether such behaviors are exceptional or not (Galperin, 2002; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). In this regard, Vadera et al. (2013) argue that in order to consider a behavior constructive it must have a positive impact on and benefit the organization, the reference group, and the organizational members, whereas for Seidman and McCauley (2008), the behavior needs to leave a strategic impact on either the performance or the achievement.

The literature suggests that there is a positive correlation between constructive deviant behaviors and the good and interests of the organization or the customers (Gong et al., 2020). Such behavior, despite its problematic nature, can contribute to the effectiveness of work, improve service quality, and boost performance (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019). In addition, constructive deviant behaviors, which can also be regarded as an internal source of creativity for learning and change (Mayanja et al., 2020), are capable of contributing to the wellbeing of organizations by way of developing innovative processes, products, and services (Kitchell, 1997) and thus considered a source of positive organizational change (Galperin, 2012).

Employees, who are inclined to deviate from the norms and explore different ways of doing business to improve competitiveness can be found in every organization (Mayanja et al., 2020). According to Vadera et al. (2013), those who try to behave differently from the routines and normal are the active change agents who help the organization adapt to the changes and new environmental expectations. Such employees owe their success mostly to the fact that they adopt a simplistic and unusual approach when performing a task and sometimes, they stretch the rules and do not conform to the procedures for a faster, better, and cost-effective performance. However, it should be noted that employees with unconventional behaviors that deviate from the routines can be perceived as positive yet atypical (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels & Hall, 2017). The constructive deviance concept is dealt with as regards three dimensions, namely interpersonal, challenging, and innovative constructive behaviors (Galperin, 2002). *Interpersonal constructive deviant behaviors* target individuals and include behaviors such as not complying with the orders of management to improve organizational processes and reporting the wrongdoings and injustices toward colleagues (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009). *Challenging constructive deviant behaviors* refer to the behaviors that do not comply with the existing norms of the organization, such as violating the grievance mechanism and breaking or bending the rules in order to fix customer-related problems and influence the course of the business processes positively. Actors of interpersonal and challenging constructive deviant behaviors are willing to oppose and speak their minds for the sake of improv-

ing the existing system (Galperin, 2002). Finally, *innovative constructive deviant behaviors* are innovative practices, unusual yet value-delivering behaviors to benefit an organization (Galperin, 2002; Galperin & Burke, 2006). Such behaviors aim to try and find innovative ways to perform daily tasks and come up with creative solutions to problems (Robbins & Galperin, 2010), and in some cases, enable organizations to attain their goals even if they are not approved by the managers (Mayanja et al., 2020). Employees who are inclined to exhibit constructive deviant behaviors in order to act innovatively and offer creative solutions are aware of the performance gaps that are not easily recognized by others. They breach important norms and rules because they recognize such gaps and want to solve problems. Innovative constructive deviant behaviors always entail risks and require a proactive standpoint (Yıldız, 2015). It should also be noted that constructive deviant behaviors do not always end up as desired or meet the personal expectations of the relevant employee. In this regard, Dahling, Chau, Mayer, and Gregory (2012) found that employees' rule-breaking behaviors negatively influence the performance reviews they receive from their managers and colleagues, in other words, such behaviors pose a risk for the individual (Li & Li-Yun, 2015).

Although constructive deviant workplace behaviors are considered important with respect to making innovations, organizational change, and customer satisfaction, there are limited studies on the mechanisms that underlie such behaviors (Robbins & Galperin, 2010; Vadera et al., 2013). In addition, the literature suggests a relationship between the tendency to engage in constructive deviant behaviors and the factors including psychological ownership (Vandewalle, Van Dyne & Kostova, 1995; Chung & Kim, 2013), personality traits (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009), role breadth self-efficacy (Galperin, 2002), cultural factors (Galperin, 2002), leader-member exchange (Tziner, Fein, Sharoni, Bar-Hen & Nord, 2010), psychological empowerment (Appelbaum, Iaconi & Matousek, 2007; Mayanja et al., 2020), perceived organizational support (Vadera et al., 2013; Appiah, 2015; Kura, Shamsudin & Chauhan 2016; Yalap & Polatçı, 2019), organizational trust (Kura et al., 2016; Yalap & Polatçı, 2019), supervisor support and openness (Vadera et al., 2013), job autonomy, colleagues, risk-taking (Galperin 2002; Morrison, 2006) and networking skill (Vadera et al., 2013; Yıldız, 2015). Vadera et al. (2013) propose three antecedents that might underlie constructive deviance, namely intrinsic motivation, felt obligation, and psychological empowerment in addition to such factors as Machiavellianism, disposition to ethical or unethical behavior, idealism, extroversion, proactive personality, and self-esteem that might be related to it. On the other hand, constructive deviant behaviors cannot be explained only with personal characteristics but emerge out of the interaction between personal characteristics and environmental conditions (Peterson, 2002; Bodankin & Tziner, 2009). In this context Liu, Zhang and Zhao (2021) investigated the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic, which has erupted all over the world since the beginning of 2020, on emotional exhaustion and deviant workplace behaviors. As mentioned earlier, constructive deviant behaviors of employees in the workplace are important for the survival and development of the organization. This major public health problem has disrupted the previous lifestyle of the people, changed the way employees do work, and caused emotional exhaustion and negative emotions. While employees experience emotional exhaustion, their work motivation decreases and it becomes difficult for them to exhibit behaviors that meet organizational expectations. However, the study of Liu, Zhang and Zhao (2021) showed that the innovative and challenging constructive deviant behavior of employees that has been affected by the epidemic increased generally even if they had experienced emotional exhaustion.

Consequences of constructive deviant behaviors depend on the organizational circumstances and have a complex nature. Engaging in behaviors that are different from routines may have significant consequences for workgroups and the overall organization so that the groups may perform better (Vadera et al., 2013) thanks to the alternative group norms introduced by such behaviors (Dahling & Gutworth, 2017). However, it should be noted that behaviors that benefit a certain workgroup might lead to chaos in another (Vadera et al., 2013), and some constructive deviant behaviors might lead to undesirable results regardless of how good their intentions are (Dahling & Gutworth, 2017). In addition, although they require violating the rules and norms, constructive deviant behaviors have the potential to help the organization attain its goals, benefit the organization (Galperin & Burke, 2006; Robbins & Galperin, 2010), and ensure customer satisfaction as well as they can help improve the organization's competitiveness (Galperin, 2012). The organizations that are capable of handling positive deviance properly are also able to maintain their competitiveness thanks to the innovations such behavior brings about (Mayanja et al., 2020).

2.2 Perceived Supervisory Support

Perceived supervisory support has significant impacts on employees' attitudes and behaviors (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009), and is related to the encouragement and attentiveness supervisors extend to their employees (Babin & Boles, 1996). Due to the frequent supervisor-employee interactions, supervisors are among the factors that potentially shape employees' perception of support. A supportive supervisor can compensate for the deficiencies present in organizational policies and executives' unsupportive decisions (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell & Allen, 2007). On the contrary, the perception of inadequate supervisory support can lead to destructive deviant behaviors of employees, which in turn can negatively impact an organization's performance (Azim et al., 2020). Study by Khan, Mahmood, Kanwal, and Latif (2015) also confirm that supervisor support reduces workplace destructive deviant behaviour. Employees can engage in positive constructive deviant behaviors that may contribute to the competitiveness of organizations only if supervisors provide flexible environments that allow for a certain degree of autonomy, that is decision-making, learning, and trying, and where mistakes are tolerated (Mayanja et al., 2020), and when employees can perceive it. Employees who feel supported by their supervisors feel secure and can be more willing to engage in behaviors departing from the norms for the sake of the organization.

Employees are more responsive when the feedbacks come from the closest ones. Thus, when they receive feedback from and interact with their supervisors (Edmonson & Boyer, 2013) they can have a general insight into whether or not their supervisors support them, care for their well-being, and to what extent the supervisors value their contributions to the organization (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002). This becomes clear when a completed task is appreciated, the extra efforts are acknowledged, approved, and the work is autonomous (Edmonson & Boyer, 2013).

Perceived supervisory support stems from the social exchange that happens between the employee and the supervisor and is based on the social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity. Social exchange theory assumes that all employee-supervisor interactions take place based on a subjective cost-benefit analysis (Edmonson & Boyer, 2013). The norm of reciprocity, on the other hand, represents that the employees will feel obliged to return the positive treatment they receive (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage & Rohdieck, 2004). Accordingly, when a supervisor is kind to their employees, values them, and supports them the employees feel in return the obligation to behave in a way that is deemed valuable for the organization (i.e., in a way to meet the supervisor's aims and objectives) (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001). The social exchange theory can also explain employees' decision to have a work done in ways different from the standard. In this regard, constructive deviant behaviors reflect the quality of existing exchange relationships between the employees and their supervisors (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019) and serve as a way in which the employees can contribute to their organizations in response to the positive exchange relationships they have with the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990). In other words, employees who perceive supervisory support may respond to it by engaging in activities that violate official rules and procedures but at the same time benefit the organization.

2.3 Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation, one of the fundamental subject matters as to organizational behavior, represents the psychological processes that underlie the direction, intensity, and duration of behavior (Michel & Hargis, 2017). Deci and Ryan (2000) addresses motivation as a continuum ranging from the least autonomous (extrinsic motivation) to the most autonomous (intrinsic motivation). When individuals get extrinsically motivated, they perform tasks for external reasons, such as punishment avoidance or reward (Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scott & Livingston, 2009). As a result, such behaviors are more vulnerable to external factors because they are governed by external forces but the task itself (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, differs from extrinsic motivation that represents the willingness to make effort for external factors (Michel & Hargis, 2017). Intrinsically motivated behavior is about intrinsic outcomes such as avoidance of guilt or shame. Individuals who are intrinsically motivated engage in a certain behavior not because they are obliged to but because they deem it of value and importance (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Intrinsic motivation is considered one of the key precursors of performance in complex tasks and has a greater influence on the persistence of effort compared to extrinsic motivation

(Vallerand, 1997). According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), there is a positive relationship between the feeling of intrinsic motivation and the quality of performance (Zapata-Phelon et al., 2009). On the other hand, autonomy is an important precursor of intrinsic motivation (Van Yperen & Hagedoorn, 2003). Studies suggest that intrinsic motivation can result in increased activity, initiative-taking, resiliency, and flexibility so as to benefit task performance (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) and intrinsically motivated individuals will have higher levels of concentration, learning, cognitive flexibility, and creativity compared to those who are motivated extrinsically (Vallerand, 1997). Intrinsic motivation reflects an individual's natural inclination towards making innovations, digging up problems, and improving, exploiting, and exploring one's skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and involves the experience of positive impact (Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), emotions are related to intrinsic motivation, which is one of the basic elements of positive affect.

In this sense, self-determination theory can serve as another basis to understand constructive deviant behaviors. Self-determination theory holds that the type or the quality of motivation is of greater importance than the amount of motivation that is required for attaining such outcomes as effective performance and creative problem solving. Employees with a higher level of perceived autonomy are not only guided by intrinsic motivation but also by extrinsic motivation which they define as the value of an activity and they integrate this into their sense of self. When employees are intrinsically motivated, just as is the case in constructive deviance, they experience willingness or self-affirmation (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019). Examining the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of basic psychological needs with respect to self-determination theory, Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013) argue that especially supportive environments facilitate needs satisfaction, which paves the way for improvement. Forestalling environments, on the other hand, result in disappointment in meeting the needs and lead to defensive negativities such as oppositional challenges (Michel & Hargis, 2017).

2.4 Inter-conceptual Relationships and Hypotheses of the Study

Departing from standard ways despite the rules deliberately for the purpose of benefiting the organization or individuals is always risky since, while pleasing someone, it might be disapproved by another (Mayanja et al., 2020). Such a dilemma makes us inquire of the factors that might have a part in employees' preference for constructive deviant behavior in the workplace. Supervisors' attitudes and behaviors say a lot about what is acceptable and unacceptable within the organization and thus, in many cases, influence employees' behaviors and decisions (Kim, 1999).

Employees' belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being plays an important role in determining the behaviors that will benefit the organization (Robinson & Galperin, 2010). Perceived organizational support encourages employees to help the organization attain its objectives (Liao, Joshi & Chuang, 2004) and potentially urges them to engage in constructive deviant behaviors (Vadera, Pratt & Mishra, 2013). In addition, some researchers agree that employees can differentiate their relationship with first-level supervisors from their relationship with the organization. Such differentiation allows employees to perceive their relationship with each focal point (Maertz et al., 2007) and they can be willing to engage in constructive deviant behaviors when they feel valued and supported by their first-level supervisors, even if they do not feel so in the organizational scale.

The perceived supervisory support-constructive deviance relationship can be attributed to social exchange theory. Social exchange theory highlights the significance of employee motivation and relationships in attaining organizational goals (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). The theory takes as the basis the assumption that the exchange between parties is mutual (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-Lamastro, 1990) and the parties forge and maintain relationships with the expectation of mutual benefit. Eisenberger et al. (2001) argue that, by way of a norm of reciprocity, perceived supervisory support may result in employees' feeling an obligation to help their organization. Accordingly, when employees receive nice and constructive treatment from their supervisors they might feel obliged to respond in a similar way. In this sense, it can be said that employees who perceive supervisory support will exhibit constructive deviant behaviors. In other words, employees who perceive high levels of support can be expected to return the favor to their employees through discretionary behaviors that benefit their supervisors and organizations, even if such behaviors contradict the organizational rules and norms (Kura et al., 2016).

Based on what has been mentioned, perceived supervisory support is thought to be influential on employees' inclination towards constructive deviant behaviors, and the following hypotheses and sub-hypotheses have been proposed pertaining thereto.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant and positive relationship between perceived supervisory support and employees' inclination towards engaging in constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In this regard, a significant and positive relationship is expected between perceived supervisory support and the tendency to engage in innovative (H1a), challenging (H1b) and interpersonal (H1c) constructive deviant behaviors.

One of the aims of this study is to broaden our understanding of how perceived supervisory support affects constructive deviant behaviors. To this end, the study also examines intrinsic motivation's role in the relationship. Personal factors and interpersonal differences play a crucial role in employees' tendency to engage in constructive deviant behaviors (Galperin, 2002). However, as mentioned above, personal characteristic cannot explain such behaviors alone. Constructive deviant behaviors emerge from the interaction between personal characteristics and environmental conditions (Peterson, 2002). This raises the question: is it possible for intrinsic motivation, one of the employee characteristics, to influence the relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviant behaviors. The reason we propose this is because perceived supervisory support is influential on emotions. Vadera et al. (2013) also point out that there might be a relationship between intrinsic motivation and constructive deviance. Employees who feel attracted to their job are willing to exhibit behaviors that are likely to improve the organization (Ridic & Aidoo, 2016). Intrinsic motivation can enable employees to take risk and try new things. On the other hand, since positive affects increase individuals' propensity to consider the stimuli positively (Zapata-Phelan, 2009), an employee who perceives supervisory support (i.e., who feels a positive affect) may consider a task more enjoyable and intrinsically motivating and opt for departing from the routines with the urge to benefit the organization. In this regard, representing an intrinsic desire to act (Ryan & Deci, 2000) intrinsic motivation can act as the full mediator between the perceived supervisory support and positive deviance. When employees want to exert effort because they are interested in the task itself and they perceive supervisory support they might be more inclined to respond by engaging in constructive deviant behaviors. Based on the aforementioned theoretical arguments the following hypothesis has been developed.

Hypothesis 2: Intrinsic motivation has a mediator role in the relationship between perceived supervisory support and propensity to exhibit constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In this context the sub-hypotheses include that the "intrinsic motivation serves as a mediator in the relationship between perceived supervisory support and innovative (H2a), challenging (H2b), and interpersonal (H2c) constructive deviant behaviors".

2.5 The Aim and the Model of the Study

Service sector pushes employees to be more creative, more productive, and more involved in the performance and persistence of the organization not only due to its nature and characteristics but also to be able to ensure customer satisfaction. This may require employees to deviate from the organization's established norms and rules, i.e., engage in constructive deviant behaviors in a way to benefit the reference group or its members. The aim of this study is to find out whether employees' perception that their supervisors support them is influential on their tendency to exhibit constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In addition, the study also investigates whether intrinsic motivation acts as a mediator in the relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviant workplace behavior. Data in this study were collected from front-line service employees working at four- and five-star hotels in Bolu. The context was chosen because the tasks therein required high levels of interactions among individuals, which allowed to test the hypotheses. In addition, the employees were told that they were expected to answer the questions taking into consideration their relationships and interactions with the first-level supervisors.

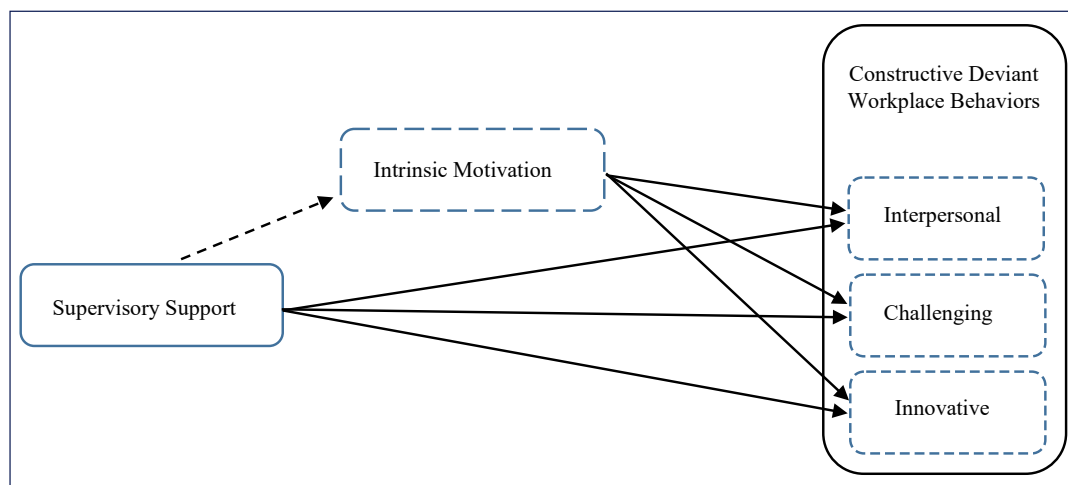
As has been mentioned in the previous section, constructive deviant behaviors potentially affect an organization's performance and well-being. Thus, it is thought that it would be useful to reveal in the study the relationship between constructive deviant workplace behaviors and perceived supervisory support as well as intrinsic motivation that have been claimed to have the potential to affect constructive deviance. The study's variables have been chosen based on constructive deviance, other constructs that are related to constructive deviance, and theoretical and experimental evidence that are related to such constructs. In addition, as far as the literature could be reviewed, no study has been found to have a holistic approach to the relationship between factors such as constructive deviance, perceived supervisory support, and intrinsic motivation. It is aimed to draw attention to the subject and to eliminate some gaps by way of investigating the relationships between the variables discussed. The study is believed to be able to broaden the perspective on constructive deviant behaviors that violate organizational norms and procedures.

3. Methodology

3.1 Study Model

The study model is presented in Figure 1. The model prescribes a relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviation on the one hand and maintains that intrinsic motivation plays a mediating role in this relationship, on the other hand.

Figure 1. Study Model



Source: Own Elaboration

3.2 Data Collection Method and Tools

The study employs field study (survey), one of the quantitative research methods. Front-line workers employed in four-and five-star hotels in Bolu constitute the theoretical population of the study. The study employs simple random sampling, one of the probability sampling methods, and surveys have been used to collect data.

The first part of the questionnaire encompasses questions designed to determine the participants' demographic characteristics (age, gender, marital status, education level, duration of work in the profession), and the second part, employees' propensity to exhibit constructive deviant workplace behavior, intrinsic motivations, and perception of supervisory support. To this end, the 16-item Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors scale developed by Galperin (2002) was used. Internal consistency of that measure was $\alpha = 0,83$. To identify innovative and interpersonal constructive deviant behaviors, the scale includes 5 expressions, and 6 to identify challenging constructive deviant behaviors. The scale (consisting of 11 items) compiled by Giray and Şahin (2012) was used to measure employees' perceptions of supervisory

support. In that study the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the original scale was reported as 0,94. The 9-item scale compiled by Dündar, Özutku and Taspınar (2007) was used to determine the level of intrinsic motivation. It has been reported that the internal consistency of intrinsic motivation scale as 0,83 in their study. All the scales are of the Likert type. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of our study are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Cronbach Alpha Reliability Test

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Intrinsic Motivation	0,898	0,924	0,928	0,763
Interpersonal	0,859	0,958	0,879	0,592
Challenging	0,955	0,972	0,964	0,818
Innovative	0,832	0,850	0,882	0,599
Supervisory Support	0,942	0,953	0,955	0,779

Source: Own Elaboration

The collected data were subjected to a series of preparatory processes before multivariate analysis. First, a missing value analysis was carried out. The rate of missing values in the data set was found to be low. Removing observations with missing data from the data set can lead to a serious reduction in the number of sample and a sufficiently formed sample may turn into an insufficient number of

samples. This will lead to a decrease in the power of the statistical analyzes to be made (Roth, 1994). There are many methods used to assign approximate values instead of lost data. These are simple assignment-based methods such as mean substitution, median of nearby points, linear interpolation. Among these methods, in cases where the amount of missing data is distributed in a small number and completely randomly, and in data sets with relatively low units, the average assignment method gives more consistent results with the full data set (Schafer, 1999; Obsome, 2013). Therefore, the mean value of the relevant series was assigned for the current missing values (Hawthorne & Elliot, 2005). Second, outlier analysis was performed in the data set. Outliers occur due to errors in data entry or when the unit is not a member of the population from which the sample was taken and may corrupt the data set (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, standardized z-scores were used in outlier analysis. A data point that is 4.0 standard deviations far from the mean is considered an outlier (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). The surveys that had been found to be an outlier were excluded from the analysis and the remaining 154 were analyzed. Finally, the normal distribution analysis was performed on the data set based on the skewness and kurtosis values. The literature suggests that when skewness and kurtosis are in the range of ± 2 , this means the data are normally distributed (Cameron, 2004). Some items in the data set were found to exceed this value range and thus applied square root transformation (Ghiselli, Campbell & Zedeck, 1981), after which the values were observed to be distributed normally. Finally, descriptive statistical analyses, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and partial least squares structural modeling (PLS) were adopted to analyze the data.

PLS-SEM is being used in tourism studies frequently (Pinto & Assaker, 2015; Zhang, Yang, Zheng & Zhang, 2016). This method offers a number of advantages. First, PLS' ability to model latent constructs as either formative or reflective (Chin, 1998). Also, PLS makes minimal demands in terms of sample size to validate a model, compared to alternative structural equation modeling techniques. PLS can be used to examine structural models when the multivariate normality of the data cannot be supported (Chin, 1998; Chin & Newsted, 1999). A two-stage data analysis approach was followed in the PLS application. First the reliability and validity of the measurement model, then, the structural model, through which the inter-structural relationships are examined, were tested.

In the analyses, the study used SPSS 21 and SmartPLS 2.0 software Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on SPSS to verify the reliability and validity of the data whereas SmartPLS was used to carry out confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and test the structural model.

4. Results

4.1 Preliminary Analyses

In the analysis of data obtained in the study, first, the demographical information of the participants were examined on a descriptive level and summarized in Table 2. The participants are predominantly aged 26 to 41 ($n=142$). Of the participants, 62 are women and 92 are males. Single and married participants have an equal representation ($n=77$). When the participants are examined in terms of education level, it is seen that the majority hold a university degree ($n=128$), followed by associate degree graduates ($n=12$), despite the significant difference between the two groups. As to the term of employment, the participants who have been working for 1-5 years constitute the majority ($n=67$), followed by those who have been working for 6-10 years ($n=41$) and those for 11-15 years ($n=39$).

Table 2. Characteristics of the Participants

Variable		<i>n</i>	%	<i>Cumulative %</i>
Age	18-25	6	3,90	3,9
	26-33	87	56,49	60,39
	34-41	55	35,71	96,11
	42-49	6	3,90	100,00
	50- above	0	0,00	100,00
	<i>Total</i>	154	100,00	
Gender	Female	62	40,26	40,26
	Male	92	59,74	100,00
	<i>Total</i>	154	100,00	
Marital Status	Married	77	50,00	50,00
	Single	77	50,00	100,00
	<i>Total</i>	154	100,00	
Education Status	Primary school	2	1,30	1,30
	Secondary school	5	3,25	4,55
	High school	0	0,00	4,55
	Graduate	12	7,79	12,34
	Higher education	128	83,12	95,45
	Master/Doctorate	7	4,55	100,00
	<i>Total</i>	154	100,00	
Working duration	Less than 1 year	2	1,30	1,30
	1-5 year	67	43,51	44,81
	6-10 year	41	26,62	71,43
	11-15 year	39	25,32	96,75
	Over 16 years	5	3,25	100,00
	<i>Total</i>	154	100,00	

Source: Own Elaboration

When the scope of the study and characteristics of the participants are evaluated together, it is thought that education and working period may be more determinant than age and gender variables. According

to the results of the research it can be expected that the internal motivation of the employees who are university graduates and who enter the working period relatively early will be higher. In addition, it can be concluded that employees with higher education levels and shorter working period who receive managerial support exhibit a more challenging structure and a more open attitude to innovations in their career. However, the fact that the participants of the research show different demographic characteristics may enable the results to be interpreted differently, considering the limitations in social sciences.

4.2 Hypothesis Tests

Table 3. Scale Items, Reliabilities, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Scale items	Factor Loading	α	CR	AVE
Intrinsic Motivation		0,924	0,898	0,763
1. I am successful at my job	0,825			
2. I can take initiative in my job.	0,901			
3. My colleagues appreciate me for my work.	0,899			
4. I believe my job is worth doing.	0,867			
Perceived Supervisory Support		0,958	0,942	0,779
1. My supervisor defends me against others in the organization when I make a mistake.	0,885			
2. My supervisor is someone I can trust when things get stuck.	0,900			
3. My supervisor is always ready to listen to problems related to my responsibilities.	0,909			
4. My supervisor makes me appreciated by others when I achieve something important in my job.	0,918			
5. My supervisor takes my opinions into consideration.	0,758			
6. My supervisor takes time for me to learn about my goals and aspirations for my job.	0,913			
7. My supervisor appreciates me when I do a job well.				
8. My supervisor guides me on how to improve my performance.	0,885			
Contructive Deviance Behaviour				
Innovative		0,972	0,832	0,602
1. I developed creative solutions to problems.	0,762			
2. I searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures.	0,871			
3. I decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals.	0,687			
4. I departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems.	0,782			
5. I introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group.	0,758			
Challenging		0,850	0,955	0,818
6.I sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform my job.	0,927			
7.I violated company procedures in order to solve a problem.	0,942			
8.I departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem.	0,955			
9.I bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs.	0,770			
10. I departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem.	0,933			
11. I departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products.	0,885			
Interpersonal		0,953	0,859	0,592
12.I reported a wrong-doing co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change.	0,787			
13.I didn't follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures.	0,751			
14.I disagreed with others in my work group in order to improve the current work procedures.	0,735			
15.I disobeyed my supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently.	0,796			
16. I reported a wrong-doing to another person in my company to bring about a positive organizational change.	0,778			

Source: Own Elaboration

CFA was conducted on SmartPLS. First, composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha (α) values were analyzed. As is previously specified in Table 1, Cronbach's alpha is above the recommended value of 0.6 (Nunnally, 1967). The composite reliability values of all constructs range from 0.83 to 0.95, so all were above (better than) the recommended benchmark of 0.70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 3 also shows the factor loadings for each item. Accordingly, factor loadings are greater than 0.50, which suggests satisfactory convergent validity (Thompson & Higgins, 1995; Chin, 1998). In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) values are above 0.50, which means, on an acceptable level (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4. Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations of Model Constructs, and Discriminant Validity

Constructs	Mean	Standard Deviation	1	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	4.53	0,999	0,873				
2. Interpersonal	3,18	0,969	0,036	0,770			
3. Challenging	3,80	0,847	-0,018	0,696	0,894		
4. Innovative	3,68	0,921	0,351	-0,005	-0,067	0,774	
5. Perceived Supervisory Support	3,58	0,886	-0,041	0,241	0,531	-0,184	0,882

Note: The diagonal elements (in bold) represent the square roots of the AVE of each construct. The off-diagonal elements represent the correlations among constructs.

Source: Own Elaboration

The criterion of Fornell-Larcker was used to assess the discriminant validity of data. As seen in Table 4, the square root of AVE for each construct is greater than the levels of correlations involving the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Also, there is no correlation greater than 0.90 between constructs, which means that the multicollinearity problem is not present in the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The analyses show that the measurement model is sufficient in terms of validity and reliability conditions. Using the PLS method, the structural model of the research was analyzed in order to test the research hypotheses. A bootstrapping procedure (with 500 samples) was used to evaluate the significance of the path coefficients (Chin, 1998).

Table 5. Structural Model Test Results

Hypothesized Relationships	Path Coefficient	Standard Deviation	T value	Supported/ Not supported
Intrinsic Motivation -> Interpersonal	0,046	0,145	0,315	Not supported
Intrinsic Motivation -> Challenging	0,004	0,057	0,066	Not supported
Intrinsic Motivation -> Innovative	0,344	0,072	4,814**	Supported
R2: 0.342				
Supervisory Support -> Intrinsic Motivation	-0,041	0,076	0,537	Not supported
Supervisory Support -> Interpersonal	0,243	0,189	1,287	Not supported
Supervisory Support -> Challenging	0,531	0,084	6,302**	Supported
Supervisory Support -> Innovative	-0,170	0,076	2,242*	Supported
R2: 0.269				

*p < .5; ** p < .01

Source: Own Elaboration

In the hypotheses of the research, the mediating role that intrinsic motivation plays in the relationship between supervisory support and constructive deviant behaviors was tested. Results of hypothesis tests

can be found in Table 5. Accordingly, perceived supervisory support is seen to affect constructive deviant behaviors partially and positively. In addition, intrinsic motivation was found to create a positive and significant impact on innovative constructive deviant behaviors (β : 0.34, $p < .001$). The results of the analysis revealed that supervisory support had a positive effect (β : 0.53, $p < .001$) on challenging constructive deviant behaviors and a negative significant effect on innovative constructive deviant behaviors (β : -0.17, $p < .5$). No significant relationship was found between other variables.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

This study addresses the driving forces underlying constructive deviant behaviors. Although all organizations impose various rules and regulations for both the employees and the customers, such rules and regulations are in many cases observed to get violated and some behaviors may help the organization attain its goals even if they contradict the rules. Thus, understanding the reasons behind constructive deviant behaviors is of importance. In this study, the relationship of perceived supervisory support to employees' propensity to exhibit constructive deviant behaviors and the role that intrinsic motivation plays in this process were analyzed based on the data collected from employees working in the hospitality sector.

Supervisors create behavioral models that shape practices that are (re)produced by individuals and groups in the work environment (Lugosi, 2019), and in many cases, employees use them to make decisions about their behavioral choices (Gatling, Shum, Book & Bai, 2017). Various studies (Wang, Mao, Wu & Liu, 2012; Gatling et al., 2017) also show that supervisors' behaviors are influential on deviant behavior (Lugosi, 2019). Positive emotions of employees are significantly related to constructive deviant behaviors in the workplace. Employees actively breaking the previous rules to improve work efficiency is a manifestation of organizational health (Mertens et al., 2016). In this study, it was also observed that perceived supervisory support had a positive impact on challenging constructive deviant behaviors. This result shows that when employees can trust their supervisors, they are more likely to exhibit behavior that does not follow the rules but benefits the organization, which can increase customer satisfaction. On the other hand, the fact that employees engage in behaviors that do not comply with the norms but will create mutual benefits in the course of the processes and that this is supported by the supervisors reveals a need for reviewing existing procedures. The study conducted by Chen, Chen, and Sheldon (2016) proved that perceived organizational support has an important role in reducing destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In addition, there are studies showing that perceived organizational support positively affects constructive deviant workplace behaviors (Kura et al., 2016; Yalap & Polatçı, 2019). Employees can attribute their trust in their organizations to their managers. In this context, it can be said that the result obtained is in parallel with the results of the related studies. In the study, no significant relationship was found between perceived supervisory support and interpersonal constructive deviant behaviors. As to the relationship between perceived supervisory support and innovative constructive deviant behaviors, a negative correlation was found. While the negative relationship between perceived supervisory support and innovative constructive deviant behavior is surprising, Liu, Zhang, and Zhao (2021) note that employees, despite their managers, may prefer to solve problems in unconventional ways from time to time. In addition, face-to-face communication and the necessity of reacting in a short time, which is a feature of the working environment of front-line employees in the accommodation sector, may have had an impact on this result. As stated in the study of Li, He, and Sun (2020), even if employees lack managerial support, positive emotions can motivate employees to break stereotypes, challenge and adapt better to the environment. Another result of the study is that intrinsic motivation plays a partial mediating role in the relationship between perceived supervisory support and constructive deviant behaviors. This means, intrinsic motivation only mediates the relationship between perceived supervisory support and innovative constructive deviance. When employees are happier, their innovation performance is higher and creative (Liu, Zhang & Zhao, 2021). In this reason, even if the employees do not believe their supervisors will support them, they can still exhibit innovative constructive deviant behaviors since they are intrinsically motivated. This indicates that behaviors that depart from usual practices within the organization correlate with employees' degree of intrinsic motivation. When employees are highly motivated in their work, they will implement some be-

haviors in order to improve the existing work procedures, such as making suggestions and negating the opinions of other members of the working group (Galperin, 2012). A possible explanation of this might be that intrinsically motivated employees' tendency to self-affirm predominates their behaviors (Cohen & Ehrlich, 2019). Intrinsically motivated employees are more willing to come up with creative alternatives for routine tasks and practices, act proactively, take risks, and create a change. Thus, intrinsically motivated employees can still engage in behaviors that create value for the organization, are innovative, beneficial but extraordinary even if their supervisors do not encourage them to do so (because they do not want to take risks, they are inclined to maintain status quo, and believe that new processes will not be of help). On the other hand, this result reveals the critical role intrinsic motivation plays in employees' attitudes toward their jobs. In this regard, employees' behaviors that violate the rules but have good intentions and benefit the organizations require reassessment of the organizational rules, policies, and procedures. In addition, supervisors' attitudes in the face of such behaviors should also be reconsidered for the interests of the organization.

The supervisors can be offered some recommendations based on the results of the study. It is important for the supervisors to understand that deviant behaviors, contrary to the common negative connotations, may create opportunities in the hospitality sector (Lugosi, 2019). Especially the front-line employees frequently encounter grievances that impair customer satisfaction and requests. In such cases, some employees, for example, employees who are intrinsically motivated, may play an active role to improve organizational processes or exhibit constructive deviant behaviors to make up for the organizational deficiencies. Supervisors, at this point, should be aware of that deliberate violation of rules and procedures by the employees in order to benefit the organization and improve customer satisfaction or service quality might have positive outcomes and that standardized policies might even augment problems. Encouraging the creativity of the employees by the supervisors, supporting the employees to take the initiative to do their job better, rewarding the employees who contribute to the organization, can help to create the necessary environment for the survival and development of the organization.

Like other studies in social sciences, this study also has certain limitations. Each passing day, more studies are carried out to understand employee behaviors and new concepts are introduced to the literature. Ever-expanding literature on constructive deviant behaviors can be regarded as an important limitation laying the theoretical foundations of hypotheses, which poses a limit to set forth how the results of this study are similar to and different from other studies. Another limitation of the study is about the generalizability of the results. To be able to generalize the results of this study, it is recommended to address the matter in future studies based on a greater number of samples gathered from sectors other than tourism.

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