

Tourists on the Edge

Understanding and Encouraging Sustainable Tourist Behaviour in Greenland

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TOURISTS ON THE EDGE

Elizabeth Cooper

TOURISTS ON THE EDGE

UNDERSTANDING AND ENCOURAGING SUSTAINABLE TOURIST
BEHAVIOUR IN GREENLAND

Department of Management, Society and Communication

PhD Series 44.2023

CBS COPENHAGEN BUSINESS SCHOOL
HANDELSHØJSKOLEN

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Tourists on the Edge: Understanding and Encouraging Sustainable Tourist Behaviour in Greenland

Elizabeth Cooper

Department of Management, Society & Communication

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Foreword | *An Affair with Place*

*Think of the long trip home.
Should we have stayed at home and thought of here?
Where should we be today?
Is it right to be watching strangers in a play
in this strangest of theatres?
What childishness is it that while there's a breath of life
in our bodies, we are determined to rush
to see the sun the other way around?
The tiniest green hummingbird in the world?
To stare at some inexplicable old stonework,
inexplicable and impenetrable,
at any view,
instantly seen and always, always delightful?
Oh, must we dream our dreams
and have them, too?*

(from *Questions of Travel*, by Elizabeth Bishop)

The early years of academia for me have been a lot about identity. When I started as a PhD fellow at CBS, my new colleagues would ask me what my “background” was. This question puzzled me, initially because I didn’t know it referred to my educational background (so it seemed a very vague thing to ask), and then because my journey towards the PhD was far from straightforward and confined to one discipline. These days, as I near the finish line, my colleagues ask me where I “position” myself and who I want to “speak” to.

Over the past few years, I have felt most at home at tourism conferences: vibrant gatherings of people from all corners of the world who are passionate about encounters between people and places. Here, I have found that identity is also a talking point, with delegates

representing many different backgrounds and disciplines. But despite our diverse identities, I have noticed there is one thing that all tourism scholars share: a love of place. A love which, for most of us, probably more accurately verges on an obsession.

I am slightly ashamed to admit that I have spread my affection for place pretty thinly over my life so far. My affair with Greenland started in 2017, when I was hired as an intern at Visit Greenland Nuuk. For a wild three months, I bore witness to many of Greenland's spectacular talents, but also some of her darker sides too. Awestruck, intoxicated, and wanting more, over the following few years I could always find a good reason to call her back.

Flying to Greenland from Denmark, your first glimpse of the world's largest island will be its eastern coast, and then you'll glide all the way over its ice cap for about an hour and a half before landing in the west. If the sky is clear or the clouds are above you, you will enjoy an uninterrupted view of the ice cap extending to the horizon and beyond. The first time you see it, you will dismiss it as that generic cloud-blanket, all too typical of the view from an aeroplane window. But if you let your eyes linger and adjust, you will begin to see glinting reflections of light, hinting at a hard surface below - and dark creases, which remind you of the cracks that form on top of a cake when the oven is too hot. At some point, you will realise that those cake-like cracks are kilometre-deep crevasses in the ice.

The scale of everything for these ninety minutes is so vast, and there is nothing familiar to use for scale, like houses or roads, that the ice cap will look strangely close. You will feel a mysterious urge to reach out of the plane window and run your fingers along the cool, glassy ice. Then, seconds before landing, you will finally spot a few houses and the airport, and you will realise that for the last hour and a half you have been subject to an extreme visual illusion. Nothing is as close as you thought it was; everything is much, much bigger. And suddenly,

this place is formidable and overwhelming. Nature's colossal playground, where she experiments with weather that can kill and makes it so that you cannot even trust your own eyes. As the wheels touch the tarmac and the mountains swallow your view, you will think of the long trip home. You will think to yourself, *I should have stayed at home and thought of here.*

As tourists, our affairs with place are at best ambiguous and riddled with tensions, and at worst exploitative and immoral, doing more damage than good. This project is an attempt to tease out some of the good – to explore whether these encounters are also shaped by care, affection, or respect. In typically irritating academic fashion, I fear I have produced more questions than answers, but if I'm lucky I have taken us one step further down the right path.

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As with all great love affairs, it is hard to imagine a reality in which Greenland and I did not come together. But there have been several forks in the road at which other people's actions were crucial to calling this reality into being. I would like to thank *Carina Ren, Martin Trandberg Jensen, Sarah Woodall, Anders La Cour Vahl, Tanny Por, Julia Pars, Mads Skifte* and *Lill Rastad Bjørst* for laying the path ahead of me and guiding me down it. Thanks are also due to *Innovation Fund Denmark* and *Visit Greenland* for believing in and funding my idea.

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before thinking it through. I don't know where I would be had you not stepped into the picture, but it definitely would not be here, now.

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have helped my project to grow into something more rigorous and convincing than it otherwise would have been.

To the MSC PhD community: It has been said that we are the best PhD community in the world (J. Kollerup, personal communication, 2023). Although I know it's bad academic practice to make conclusions from such a small sample size, I'm willing to bet this is true. Thank you for being my rock throughout this process, and for keeping me sane and laughing. Please keep up the culture so that it can continue to benefit those coming after us.

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breakfasts, beers, lunchtime swims and general idiotic antics are some of my happiest memories in Copenhagen. Thank you for continuing to support me and show an interest in my work, even when I became a 'satellite colleague'. But mostly, thanks for simply being good friends and good people.

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To my husband, Jesper Nymand: It is a cruel fact of life that those we love the most see the worst of us. At work I rarely appear stressed, overwhelmed or downhearted; you're the one who deals with my tears and the end of my tether. Thank you for handling me with grace, patience and empathy. Your repeated assertion that everything will be fine has often been a source of irritation for me. But as usual (and for once I'm happy to admit it), it turns out you were right.

To my friends - all of you, everywhere: Thank you for asking, thank you for listening, and thank you for being the best damn distraction a girl could ask for. You say I'm the smart one, but all the most important things I know, I learned from you.

Abstract

Tourism is a phenomenon that can provide numerous benefits, such as economic development, nature preservation, and intercultural understanding. However, the way we practice leisure travel is currently unsustainable. As well as generating carbon emissions that exacerbate the global climate crisis, tourism practices can degrade destination environments and perpetuate unequal power dynamics between different societies and cultures. Peripheral and developing nations like Greenland often rely on tourism for export revenue, job creation and social mobility. However, their peripheral or ‘frontier’ quality can contribute to a tourist imaginary that frames such places as empty landscapes for unregulated adventure. This is problematic because these destinations also tend to house fragile natural environments and marginalised local communities. This PhD thesis uses Greenland as a case study of a tourism destination ‘on the edge’, where tourism is an important industry, yet simultaneously triggers tensions on environmental, social, cultural and economic levels.

The destination-level tensions created by tourism can partly be addressed by changing the in-destination behaviour of tourists. This is the focus of the current PhD thesis, which has an overarching aim of understanding and encouraging sustainable tourist behaviour. It does this through three independent but interlinked papers, each of which focuses on a distinct component of a theoretical framework for sustainable behaviour change. Paper 1 is concerned with understanding the context of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, by taking an inductive approach towards exploring the varied interpretations of sustainable tourism among local industry stakeholders. Paper 2 shifts to the tourist perspective, employing a mixed-methods research design to uncover some of the psychological antecedents of (un)sustainable tourist behaviour. Paper 3, informed by findings from Papers 1 and 2, designs and tests a behavioural intervention to encourage a specific

sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, and uses a survey experiment to reveal the psychological mechanisms driving this intervention.

The thesis produces five overarching theoretical contributions that speak to different streams of literature within tourism and consumer behaviour. Firstly, the thesis nuances current thought around how sustainable tourism is conceptualised, exposing some of the pitfalls connected with existing framings and suggesting more appropriate ones. Secondly, the thesis contributes knowledge on the role of emotions as psychological antecedents of sustainable tourist behaviour, providing insights into how the constructs of gratitude and entitlement influence (un)sustainable tourist behaviour. The finding that the same psychological antecedent can have opposing influences on different types of sustainable behaviour leads to the third contribution: support for the use of the tourism context to advance knowledge on consumer behaviour, specifically sustainable consumer behaviour in hedonic contexts. The fourth contribution addresses literature on behaviour change, by revealing new and sometimes contradictory relationships between behavioural interventions and their determinants. Finally, the thesis demonstrates the relevance of a novel type of case in tourism – the extraordinary destination – which can be used to advance knowledge on the ‘WEIRD’ tourist segment and the future of extreme travel, while also addressing the urgent matter of the vulnerability of these types of destinations. On a practical level, the thesis provides concrete recommendations for destination managers, tourism operators, tourism marketing professionals, and managers of protected natural areas.

Resumé

Turisme er et fænomen, der kan medføre talrige fordele, såsom økonomisk udvikling, naturbevaring og interkulturel forståelse. Dog er måden, vi rejser på, i øjeblikket ikke bæredygtig. Udover at generere kulstofemissioner, der forværrer den globale klimakrise, kan turisme nedbryde destinationsmiljøer og opretholde ulige magtdynamikker mellem forskellige samfund og kulturer. Perifere og udviklingslande som Grønland er ofte afhængige af turisme som kilde til eksportindtægt, jobskabelse og social mobilitet. Dog kan deres perifere eller 'grænse'-karakter bidrage til en turistforestilling, der skildrer sådanne steder som tomme landskaber for uregulerede eventyr. Dette er problematisk, fordi disse destinationer også har tendens til at huse skrøbelige naturområder og marginaliserede lokale samfund. Denne ph.d.-afhandling bruger Grønland som et case-studie af en turistdestination 'på kanten', hvor turisme er en vigtig industri, men samtidig udløser spændinger på miljømæssige, sociale, kulturelle og økonomiske niveauer.

De spændinger, der opstår på destinationsniveau som følge af turisme, kan delvist tackles ved at ændre turisternes adfærd på destinationen. Dette er fokus i denne ph.d.-afhandling, der har det overordnede mål at forstå og fremme bæredygtig turistadfærd. Dette opnås gennem tre uafhængige, men sammenkoblede artikler, der hver fokuserer på en forskellig komponent af en teoretisk ramme for bæredygtig adfærdsændring. Artikel 1 omhandler at forstå konteksten af bæredygtig adfærd inden for turisme i Grønland ved at anvende en induktiv tilgang til at udforske de varierede fortolkninger af bæredygtig turisme blandt lokale aktører i industrien. Artikel 2 skifter fokus til turistperspektivet ved at bruge både kvalitative og kvantitative metoder til at afdække nogle af de psykologiske forudsætninger for (u)bæredygtig turistadfærd. Artikel 3, der anvender resultater fra artikel 1 og 2, udvikler og tester en adfærdsintervention med det formål at fremme en specifik bæredygtig turistadfærd i Grønland. Den anvender

også et spørgeskemaeksperiment til at afsløre de psykologiske mekanismer, der driver denne intervention.

Afhandlingen producerer fem overordnede teoretiske bidrag, der taler til forskellige strømninger inden for turisme- og forbrugeradfærdslitteraturen. For det første nuancerer afhandlingen den nuværende forestilling om, hvordan bæredygtig turisme konceptualiseres. Den afslører nogle af de faldgruber, der er forbundet med de eksisterende rammer, og foreslår mere passende alternativer. For det andet bidrager afhandlingen med viden om følelsers rolle som psykologiske forudsætninger for bæredygtig turistadfærd og giver indblik i, hvordan følelser som taknemmelighed og berettigelse påvirker (u)bæredygtig turistadfærd. Konklusionen, at den samme psykologiske forudsætning kan have modsatrettede påvirkninger på forskellige typer af bæredygtig adfærd, fører til den tredje bidrag: støtte til brugen af turismekonteksten til at fremme viden om forbrugeradfærd, især bæredygtig forbrugeradfærd i hedonistiske sammenhænge. Det fjerde bidrag adresserer litteraturen om adfærdsændring ved at afsløre nye og til tider modsætningsfulde forhold mellem adfærdsinterventioner og deres determinanter. Endelig viser afhandlingen relevansen af en ny type turisme-case - den ekstraordinære destination - som kan bruges til at fremme viden om det 'WEIRD' turistsegment og fremtiden inden for 'ekstrem' rejse, samtidig med at den adresserer det presserende spørgsmål om sårbarheden af denne type destinationer. På et praktisk niveau giver afhandlingen konkrete anbefalinger til destinationsledere, turismeaktører, turismemarkedsføringsprofessionelle og ledere af beskyttede naturområder.

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Chapter 1 | Introduction

1.1 | A good place to start?

Perhaps the most popular opening line for an academic publication on sustainability in tourism is a statistic about the industry's contribution to CO₂ emissions. Our colleagues tell us that air travel accounts for 2.4% of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Gössling & Dolnicar, 2023), that tourism as a whole accounts for 4.9% of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Chen & Cheng, 2023), that tourism is responsible for 8%, 10%, or 14% of all greenhouse gas emissions (Jamal & Higham, 2021; Liu et al., 2020; Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2017). Evidently, we disagree on the exact severity of the environmental impacts of tourism, or perhaps we measure them differently, but as tourism scholars we are all familiar with more or less the same figures. I am sure there are others who, like me, are guilty of skipping over these introductions, telling myself that I am already aware of how serious the environmental impacts are. These statistics, although extreme enough to shock, unfortunately do not shock us anymore.

In tourism academia we are also partial to describing the influence of tourism through statistics about human movement. Tourism is “the largest human movement in history” (Qin & Hsu, 2022, p. 1); more than 10% of the global population engages in it (Budeanu, 2007); yearly tourism arrivals have now hit 1, 1.3, or 1.4 billion, and are forecast to reach 1.8 billion in 2030 (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2016; Xu et al., 2020; Chandran et al., 2021; Tkaczynski et al., 2020). More figures that many of us surely are guilty of skimming over. These numbers tend to frame the phenomenon of tourism as an unstoppable influx, a menace to the natural environment, and a practice that must be restrained.

In another stream of tourism literature, specifically that which deals with tourism as a means of development, papers often open with

impressive statistics about tourism's economic impact. Tourism has been declared the "world's largest industry" (Lew, 2011, p. 148), accounting for 9%, 10%, or 11% of global GDP (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2016; World Tourism Organisation, 2016; Jha, 2021), and 6%, 7%, or even 12% of global exports (World Tourism Organisation, 2016; Lenzen et al., 2018; Mak, 2006). In the sustainable tourism development literature, tourism is depicted as a less resource-intensive method of lifting underprivileged communities out of poverty, of providing educational and mobility opportunities and of promoting intercultural understanding. This perspective highlights positive impacts of tourism that are just as dramatic as the negative ones.

However one measures them, the impacts of tourism are significant, and no matter how many times we brush over them when we read the latest tourism research, they continue to grow and change. The current PhD thesis is concerned with understanding these impacts, mitigating the negative ones and encouraging the positive ones, with the ultimate aim of making an incremental contribution towards reshaping the tourism sector in a more sustainable direction. This requires a perspective on tourism that is somewhat balanced, in the sense that it acknowledges the many different realms with which tourism is connected. MacCannell (2013) describes how tourism "spreads itself rhizomatically through every intellectual, economic, cultural, and geopolitical domain" (p. vxii). This 'rhizomatic' or multifaceted quality can make tourism a complicated phenomenon to grapple with, but it is also the thing that has always fascinated me about this shape-shifting practice, with its many different forms and faces.

1.2 | A broad perspective on a specific problem

Although this thesis takes a broad perspective on tourism in terms of the domains with which it is intertwined, its scope is refined with respect to when, where and by whom tourism impacts are created. There is also a normative angle to the project, in that a judgment is

made on the kinds of impacts that are positive, desirable, or sustainable, and the kinds of impacts that are negative, undesirable, or unsustainable. Exploring how to make this judgment is an important part of the thesis in itself, and is deliberated on throughout.

This project is concerned with impacts created by tourists on the individual level: in other words, on (un)sustainable tourist behaviour. While supply-side and policy changes are also necessary, recent research has argued that behavioural changes on the individual consumer level can make significant contributions to the sustainable transformation of tourism (Han, 2021; Demeter et al., 2023b; Greene et al., 2023).

Tourists make decisions before, during and after their trips that can result in (un)sustainable behaviour. The current thesis is interested specifically in the ‘during’ phase: that is, the behaviours of tourists once they have arrived in the destination, and before they leave. These kinds of behaviours (referred to in this thesis as “in-destination sustainable behaviours”) can have important impacts on the local environment and communities at tourism destinations (Chandran et al., 2021; Esfandiar et al., 2022). Although in-destination behaviours can be considered low-impact in comparison to more environmentally significant tourist behaviours (such as avoiding air travel [Stern, 2000; Gössling & Dolnicar, 2023]), they are critical for destinations that have particularly fragile nature or that stand to gain the most (economically or socially) from tourism activities (Bradford & McIntyre, 2007; Webler & Jakubowski, 2016; Anderson et al., 2023).

There is also a transformative element to this thesis research, in that my position as a researcher is not completely removed from the phenomenon of interest. Rather, in the third paper of the thesis, I make an active attempt to steer tourism practices at my study site in a direction that is determined (also through the research conducted in this project) to be more sustainable. This connects to the normative aspect of the project mentioned previously, as the norms adopted dictate the

objectives of the transformation. Krippendorf (1987) elegantly encapsulates why intervention is necessary in creating a ‘better’ tourism landscape:

“The free market does not behave better in tourism than anywhere else: it has not solved problems of growth, wasteful exploitation, destruction of the environment and the exploitation of the weak, nor has it alleviated the appalling difference between the starving poor and the feasting rich or taken into account the interests of future generations. To believe in self-regulating mechanisms would be naive and dangerous.”

(Krippendorf, 1987, p. 110)

Krippendorf published *The Holiday Makers* in 1987, but his sentiments are largely still relevant today. Although tourism managers, operators and tourists are generally aware of the negative impacts of tourism and the necessity for change (Dolnicar, 2020; Greene et al., 2023), we still see reduced engagement in sustainable behaviours in tourism contexts (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2017; Juvan & Dolnicar, 2017). Where there is improvement, changes are not radical enough to counter the industry’s negative impacts (Budeanu, 2007). Entrusting responsibility for change to the free market, as Krippendorf predicts, has already been proven to incite change too slowly. More radical and proactive modifications to tourism operations are required to achieve transformation to a tourism industry that is truly sustainable (Pearce, 2019; Dolnicar, 2020; Greene et al., 2023).

1.3 | *Locating 'the edge'*

The final way in which the scope of this thesis is refined is in terms of its geographical context. The research is set in Greenland, a remote island nation located in the Arctic, and existing in a semi-autonomous relationship with its former coloniser, Denmark. Although it is the least densely populated nation on Earth, almost 90% of its 57,000 inhabitants are Indigenous (Greenlandic Inuit).

As a tourism destination, Greenland is still emerging, but tourism is already its second biggest export. Greenland offers an array of fascinating pull factors, including calving glaciers, rare wildlife and unusual natural phenomena such as the northern lights and the midnight sun. Another of Greenland's major pull factors is the polar ice cap that covers around 80% of its land mass. This is one of only two polar ice caps in the world; these ice caps store the water that is partly responsible for causing global sea levels to rise. It is clear that Greenland's natural environment is extremely fragile, and that its deterioration has consequences not just on a local level, but on a global level as well.

On a societal level, Greenland suffers from stark inequality, tumultuous postcolonial relations with Denmark, and various social issues that mean that tourism management is not always a governmental priority. Despite the opportunities for education, revenue and social mobility offered by tourism, development in the industry is often hindered by scarce human and financial resources. For these reasons, consumer-level changes towards sustainable tourism are especially relevant.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, tourist arrivals to Greenland fell to almost zero. Because of the nation's remoteness, limited health infrastructure and ageing population, it was necessary to implement restrictions to avoid viral outbreaks as much as possible. Within the tourism industry, there were worries that it would take years, even

decades, for tourism numbers to return to their 2019 levels (personal communication, 2020), when annual tourist arrivals were averaging around 100,000. However, in 2022, the first unrestricted tourist season since the COVID-19 pandemic began, arrival numbers were already higher than in 2019 (Visit Greenland, 2022). Tourism was back immediately, and with even more force than before. Tourist demand for Greenland is certainly not waning, and there do not appear to be any deliberate regulatory or policy efforts to cap tourism numbers. On the contrary, with two new international airports planned to open in 2024, a sharp growth in tourism arrivals is inevitable. Whether one sees tourism as purely an environmental menace, or as a pathway to a better life, the issue currently at hand is not whether or not it should exist, but how we can make it better.

1.4 | Thesis structure

In the following chapter (Chapter 2), I outline the theoretical framework and research questions of the current thesis, explaining how each of the three papers contributes to achieving the project's overarching aim. I also consider the different approaches to theory generation employed by the thesis. In Chapter 3, I discuss the broad methodological approaches of each of the three thesis papers, my overarching research philosophy, and I make the case for Greenland as an example of a novel type of tourism case. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 present the individual papers of the thesis. In Chapter 7, I discuss the overarching contributions of the three papers, with a focus on how they combine to generate new knowledge and contribute to ongoing discussions in tourism academia. Chapter 8 offers a conclusion, considerations of the thesis' limitations, and avenues for future research.

Chapter 2 | Theoretical Framework

The overarching research aim of this thesis is to understand and encourage sustainable behaviour among tourists in Greenland. The project's ultimate goal of behaviour change is refined by certain criteria: (1) behaviour should be changed in a sustainable direction, (2) the consumption context is tourism, and (3) the geographic context is Greenland. The relevance of each of these refining criteria will be expanded on throughout this chapter and the next. The current chapter takes departure in a framework for sustainable behaviour change that roughly structures the thesis research as a whole as well as its theoretical background. The chapter closes by considering the different approaches to theory generation taken by the individual papers of the thesis.

2.1 | A framework for sustainable behaviour change

Existing academic frameworks for sustainable behaviour change tend to follow a similar pattern. They suggest that researchers should (1) identify the behaviours to be changed (Steg & Vlek, 2009; van Valkengoed et al., 2022) or the behaviours that are causing the most harm (Dolnicar, 2020), (2) identify the factors (Steg & Vlek, 2009), reasons (Dolnicar, 2020) or psychological determinants (van Valkengoed et al., 2022) behind these behaviours, and (3) identify and test interventions that can effectively target these behaviours (Steg & Vlek, 2009; Dolnicar, 2020; van Valkengoed et al., 2022). Van der Linden (2014), in the context of communication interventions related to climate change, presents a visual illustration of these guidelines that emphasises the importance of understanding context. In Figure 2.1 (below), I have adapted van der Linden's (2014) model to apply more generally to sustainable behaviour change and to incorporate the guidelines proposed by Steg & Vlek (2009), Dolnicar (2020) and van

Valkengoed et al. (2022). Van der Linden’s original (2014) model can be seen in Appendix 1.

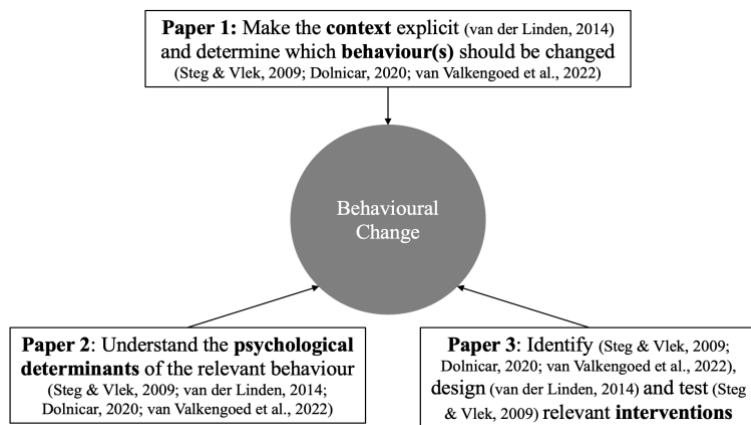


Figure 2.1. | A framework for behaviour change, by paper.

Adapted from van der Linden (2014) and incorporating Steg & Vlek (2009), Dolnicar (2020) and van Valkengoed et al. (2022). Van der Linden’s original (2014) model can be seen in Appendix 1.

The main difference between van der Linden’s (2014) model and the frameworks suggested by Steg & Vlek (2009), Dolnicar (2020) and van Valkengoed et al. (2022) is that, where van der Linden (2014) highlights understanding context as a first step towards behaviour change, the other authors focus on selecting relevant behaviours. As I intend to reveal throughout this thesis, the context of this research has important implications for the nature and success of sustainable behaviour change within it. For example, I will argue that the context in which behaviour change occurs has implications for which kinds of behaviours are considered sustainable. As a result, I prefer to frame the selection of target behaviours as part of understanding the context in which behaviour change is being promoted. In Figure 2.1, therefore, the selection of target behaviours falls under the ‘Context’ section. This is

also the primary reason that I choose van der Linden's (2014) framework as a basis for the theoretical structure of my thesis.

In structuring a paper-based PhD thesis inspired by the model in Figure 2.1, I designed each of the three papers to correspond to one section of the model. This leads naturally to the development of three research questions that highlight a path towards achieving the thesis' overall aim, and that represent the overarching research questions for each of my three papers:

1. What is the **context** of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, and which **behaviours** should be targeted for change?
2. What are the **psychological determinants** of the sustainable behaviours I have targeted for change?
3. Which **behavioural interventions** are effective in promoting the targeted sustainable tourist behaviours in Greenland?

In the following sections (2.2 – 2.4), I introduce the theoretical background for each of these overarching research questions and describe how the individual papers of the thesis address them.

2.2 | *The context of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland*

The context of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland is intertwined with the concept of sustainability in general, the practice of tourism, and the geographic, political and social context of the Arctic, where Greenland is located. In this section, I outline the approach taken to sustainable tourist behaviour in this thesis, drawing on each of these three aspects to justify my standpoint.

2.2.1 | *Sustainability, in tourism, in the Arctic*

The concept of sustainability is open to various interpretations, even within the tourism literature alone (Sandell, 2006; Chen, 2015; Balslev

Clausen and Gyimóthy, 2016; Wu & Tsai, 2016). One way to make sense of these varied interpretations is to consider the different subfields of the tourism literature from which they stem. In the literature that focuses on sustainable tourist behaviour, sustainability is overwhelmingly understood with a focus only on its environmental pillar (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Kastenholz et al., 2018; Souza-Neto et al., 2022; Olya et al., 2023; Schönherr, 2023). Indeed, this literature often uses the term ‘sustainable tourist behaviour’ as a synonym for ‘pro-environmental tourist behaviour’ (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2017; Han, 2021). In the scarce sustainable tourist behaviour literature that addresses other aspects of sustainability (such as culturally sustainable behaviours), the focus tends also to be only on the specific pillar of sustainability in question (e.g. McKercher, 2002; Hennessy et al., 2014).

Although this precise approach is conducive to producing practically implementable results, it has been criticised for neglecting the interdependencies of sustainability’s various dimensions (Kastenholz et al., 2018). Recent literature in this field calls for research on sustainable tourist behaviour that combines environmentally, socially, economically and culturally sustainable tourist behaviours (Souza-Neto et al., 2022; Olya et al., 2023; Schönherr, 2023). Indeed, it has long been accepted that tourism is a practice that impacts not just the environment, but also economies, cultures, societies, and many other aspects of humanity as well (Krippendorf, 1987; MacCannell, 2013).

Greenland is located in the Arctic, making it geographically peripheral, but it is also an example of a peripheral destination in many other senses of the word. This renders another subfield of tourism literature relevant to this thesis: research on sustainable tourism in Arctic or peripheral contexts. This literature tends to take departure in the sustainable development literature, rather than in literature on pro-environmental behaviour change (as research on sustainable tourist behaviour tends to do). Historically, conceptualisations of sustainability

in the Arctic have evolved from being concerned with human impacts on the environment, to focusing on humans and the environment as part of broader socio-ecological systems, to most recently incorporating local, traditional, and Indigenous knowledge, which rarely sees humans and nature as separate entities (Graybill & Petrov, 2020). Definitions of sustainable development in the Arctic often approach sustainability more holistically, sometimes even putting social issues at the forefront: “[sustainable development is] development that improves the health, wellbeing and security of Arctic communities and residents while conserving ecosystem structures, functions, and resources” (ibid., p. 12).

These two different approaches to conceptualising sustainability make pragmatic sense when one considers their divergent understandings of tourism as a practice and their different research aims. While the sustainable tourist behaviour literature often views tourism as a practice that creates negative environmental impacts that should be reduced (e.g. Miller et al., 2010; Juvan & Dolnicar, 2016; León & Araña, 2020), literature on sustainable tourism development in peripheral places overwhelmingly considers tourism a potential pathway towards economic development that is less harmful than other more resource-intensive industries, such as mining (Müller & Jansson, 2006; Wennecke et al., 2019). Although I believe in the importance of research that produces practical results, I argue that a holistic approach to conceptualising sustainability in Arctic and peripheral places cannot be ignored. These contexts (being peripheral) often exist in unequal power relationships with other more powerful nations or institutions, which can lead to social and cultural marginalisation and a lack of economic resilience (Weaver, 1998; Wu & Tsai, 2016; Cheer et al., 2022). This makes it particularly important to consistently consider the social, cultural and economic aspects of sustainability in such places.

2.2.2 | *Conceptualising sustainable tourist behaviour in this thesis*

This thesis research is set in a peripheral, Arctic location that has relevance for how sustainability is approached (as explained above), yet it simultaneously has a concrete practical aim to fulfil in terms of behaviour change. Therefore, the thesis is located somewhat at the intersection of the two subfields of tourism literature presented above. For this reason, it is important that I thoroughly consider how to conceptualise sustainable tourism and sustainable tourist behaviour in the context of the thesis, and why. Paper 1 is devoted towards this aim, and sets out to answer the first research question that emerged from Figure 2.1 (above):

1. What is the **context** of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, and which behaviours should be targeted for change?

Paper 1 takes inspiration primarily from the literature on sustainable tourism development in peripheral areas, adopting an inductive approach to investigate conceptualisations of sustainable tourism among local tourism stakeholders in Greenland, and applying core-periphery dynamics as a theoretical lens. The conceptual fluidity and holistic nature of sustainable tourism that is hinted at in the literature is confirmed by my data, making the identification of specific target behaviours complicated. However, I work with this data further as preliminary data for Paper 2, in which my co-authors and I present a novel typology of sustainable tourist behaviour, including specific questionnaire items for measuring the types of behaviour. In Paper 3 of the thesis, I select one of these behaviours (a pro-environmental one) and attempt to increase tourists' engagement in it using a behavioural intervention. In this paper, it could be argued that my conceptualisation of sustainable tourist behaviour has transformed from being holistic and broad to being very specific (and related only to the environmental pillar). I am of course not suggesting with Paper 3 that sustainable

tourist behaviour can be characterised by a single behaviour or by pro-environmental behaviour only, and ideally I would test multiple behavioural interventions to encourage a range of different sustainable tourist behaviours in the field. However, field-testing a behavioural intervention is extremely labour-intensive and expensive, and it was impossible for me to do this multiple times within the scope of my PhD thesis. The choice of a pro-environmental behaviour as the target behaviour in Paper 3 is justified by findings from Papers 1 and 2. The specific findings that inform later papers will be expanded on in Chapter 7 (section 7.1).

As demonstrated in this section, the conceptualisation of sustainable tourist behaviour becomes more specific and concrete throughout the current thesis, beginning as fluid and holistic in Paper 1, becoming more concrete but remaining holistic in Paper 2, and finally in Paper 3 becoming very specific. These different approaches are appropriate for the different subfields of tourism literature that the papers take departure in and address, and for the methods that each paper employs. Although the individual papers stand alone, I hope that the thesis as a whole goes some way towards demonstrating how these two subfields of tourism literature can learn from each other and contribute to reconciling differences in conceptualisations of sustainable tourist behaviour. For example, literature on sustainable tourism development in peripheries can benefit from being more practical and concrete in terms of outlining pathways towards sustainable tourism, while literature on sustainable behaviour change in tourism can benefit from acknowledging contextual restraints and the various trade-offs required between different types of sustainable tourist behaviour.

2.3 | *The psychological determinants of sustainable tourist behaviour*

Part 2 of the framework presented in Figure 2.1 (above) suggests that, after understanding the study context and determining which behaviours are to be changed, researchers should focus on understanding the psychological determinants of the target behaviours (van der Linden, 2014; Dolnicar, 2020; van Valkengoed et al., 2022). In this section, I provide a brief introduction to two psychological determinants of (un)sustainable tourist behaviour that have relevance for this thesis, namely hedonism and emotions. I then turn my attention to how these constructs are applied to the thesis research.

It would be impossible within the scope of one PhD thesis to identify and empirically analyse all of the psychological determinants of sustainable tourist behaviours in Greenland. This is partly because, from a consumption perspective, a holiday is a product made up of numerous intangible elements (Budeanu, 2007) and the value gained from it is mostly immaterial (Nikolova, 2020). As a result, consumer decision-making in the tourism context involves numerous psychological antecedents, which are largely located in the realm of the emotional, psychological, and symbolic (MacCannell, 2013; Bowen, 2022; Lin et al., 2022). The complexity and intangibility of the consumer experience in tourism has led some scholars to argue that generic models of consumer decision-making do not capture the unique characteristics of tourism and are therefore inappropriate for the tourism context (Cohen et al., 2014; Bowen, 2022). According to these authors, tourist-specific models must be developed and tested in order to best understand and predict the behaviours and psychological responses of tourists (MacCannell, 2013; Cohen et al., 2014; Bowen, 2022).

2.3.1 | *Hedonism*

One of the reasons that tourism scholars argue for tourism-specific models of consumer decision-making is because the tourism experience

is strongly characterised by hedonism. It is widely accepted in the tourism literature that tourism (from a tourist perspective) is predominantly a hedonic activity (Cohen et al., 2014; Pearce, 2019; Demeter et al., 2023a; Lin et al., 2022; Nowak et al., 2023). Various aspects of the tourism experience are argued to contribute to this, such as the perception of holidays as a break or escape from everyday life (Stanford, 2008; Xu et al., 2020; Nowak et al., 2023), the abundance of holiday activities related to sensory pleasure, like eating and drinking (Demeter et al., 2023a), and the phenomenon of present bias, which encourages people to weigh short-term gains higher than long-term ones (Phelps & Pollak, 1968; Nikolova, 2020).

These aspects arguably have implications for the behaviour of tourists, especially when it comes to sustainability. Most commonly, hedonic elements of tourism have been found to hinder sustainable behaviour among tourists (Stanford, 2008; MacCannell, 2013; Demeter et al., 2023b; Nowak et al., 2023), allowing them to excuse themselves from their everyday responsibilities, social norms and moral conduct, and behave in a more egoistic manner than they do at home (Stanford, 2008; Uriely et al., 2011; Nikolova, 2020; Xu et al., 2020; Nowak et al., 2023). Various studies have shown that engagement in sustainable behaviour reduces when on holiday, in comparison to engagement in sustainable behaviour in everyday life (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2017; Juvan & Dolnicar, 2017; Xu et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2022). There is also evidence to suggest that ‘tourist spaces’ are perceived differently to home spaces, in that they are considered to be separate and removed (Uriely et al., 2011; MacCannell, 2013). In the environmental context specifically, Cohen and colleagues (2014) found that tourism spaces (compared to domestic spaces) are subject to less stringent, or even considered exempt from, climate concern. The exceptionally hedonic qualities of tourism and their suggested connection to sustainable tourist behaviour support investigating sustainable tourist behaviour specifically in a tourism context.

2.3.2 | *Emotions*

The previous decade has seen an increased focus on emotions in the tourism literature, following Buda and colleagues' (2014) call for "an emotional and affectual turn in tourism studies" (p. 106). Relevant literature has gradually come to an agreement that emotions play an important role in tourism encounters, and also that they can directly influence other elements of the tourism encounter (Buda et al., 2014), such as tourist behaviour (Cohen et al., 2014; Nawijn & Biran, 2019). Despite increasing acceptance of their importance, scholars still cite insufficient attention to the role of emotions in tourism encounters (Gezhi & Xiang, 2022; Xiong et al., 2023), and an overemphasis on tourist loyalty and satisfaction (Nawijn & Biran, 2019; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022). Gradually, scholarly attention is being directed towards the influence of emotions on sustainable tourist behaviours, with studies finding that tourist emotions can have direct and significant relationships with them (Nawijn & Biran, 2019; Kao & Du, 2020; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022; Xiong et al., 2023). However, we know little about which specific felt emotions are related to which sustainable behaviours, what triggers them, and in which contexts they apply (Cohen et al., 2014; Nawijn & Biran, 2019). Deepening this knowledge will represent an important contribution to understanding and promoting more sustainable tourist behaviour (Buda et al., 2014; Cohen et al., 2014; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022; Xiong et al., 2023).

2.3.3 | *Psychological determinants of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland*

In this section I have argued that tourism as a context presents unique hedonic characteristics which make it worthy of specific examination. Indeed, existing literature suggests that it is partly the hedonic nature of tourism that creates obstacles for sustainable tourist behaviour. Tourism scholars call for more studies of tourist behaviour that develop models specifically for tourism (Cohen et al., 2014; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022;

Xiong et al., 2023), while sustainable behaviour change literature calls for models of sustainable behaviour that account for context (Stern, 2000). I have argued that the emotional nature of tourism is understudied and has implications for sustainable tourist behaviour, and that there is room for more knowledge about how individual felt emotions are triggered in the tourism context, and the implications they have for sustainable tourist behaviour.

Paper 2 of this thesis presents a glimpse into the psyche of the tourist, shifting the perspective from industry stakeholders to the viewpoint of the visitor. Preliminary qualitative data collected for Paper 2 suggested that the emotional constructs of gratitude and entitlement may have significance for tourists' engagement in sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland. Building on this, my co-authors and I develop and test a conceptual model that incorporates these novel constructs as potential psychological determinants of sustainable tourist behaviour. In doing so, we partly answer the second research question emerging from Figure 2.1 (above).

2. What are the **psychological determinants** of the sustainable behaviours I have targeted for change?

In this way, Paper 2 responds to the aforementioned calls in the literature for more research on specific felt emotions in tourism and how they relate to sustainable tourist behaviour, and for more tourism-specific models explaining emotions and sustainable behaviour. It also represents an important step towards achieving the overarching aim of the current thesis.

2.4 | *Behavioural interventions for sustainable tourism*

Part 3 of the framework presented in Figure 2.1 (above) asks for researchers to identify and design behavioural interventions, based on a prior understanding of the context of behaviour change, the target

behaviours, and the psychological determinants of these behaviours (van der Linden, 2014; Dolnicar, 2020; van Valkengoed et al., 2022). Although it is not explicitly mentioned in the frameworks presented by these authors, empirical field-testing of the proposed behavioural interventions is also strongly recommended (Dolnicar, 2020; van Valkengoed et al., 2022). Therefore, the final stage of the current thesis takes departure in literature on behavioural interventions, with a focus mostly on behavioural interventions in the context of sustainable tourism.

2.4.1 | *Behavioural interventions*

A behavioural intervention is a strategy implemented in a social setting that is designed to encourage individual behaviour change at scale. Behavioural interventions can be roughly divided into two categories: ‘hard’ interventions (such as sanctions, policy changes and prohibitive infrastructure), and ‘soft’ interventions (which maintain freedom of choice and may or may not involve cognitive processing). In 2008, Thaler and Sunstein popularised soft behavioural interventions with their book *Nudge*, in which they advocated for the potential of nudges for behavioural change. According to Thaler and Sunstein (2008), nudges are behavioural interventions that maintain consumers’ freedom of choice, yet indicate a desirable option: thereby ‘nudging’ consumers towards a particular choice. Their definition aligns more or less with the definition of soft interventions mentioned above, as it encompasses interventions that require cognitive processing (such as information disclosure) as well as interventions that work more subconsciously (such as changing defaults) (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008).

In the tourism literature, there is some disagreement around what constitutes a nudge, with some scholars maintaining that a nudge denotes only those interventions that target subconscious psychological processes (Demeter et al., 2023b; Greene et al., 2023). This definition excludes any interventions that require cognitive processing (ibid.). To

avoid confusion, I refrain from using the term ‘nudge’ in this thesis; rather, I use ‘behavioural interventions’ to refer to all types of behavioural interventions. Where necessary, I will clarify when I am referring to hard interventions and soft interventions.

2.4.2 | State of the art: Behavioural interventions for sustainable tourism

Behavioural interventions for sustainability have gained increasing attention in tourism literature in recent years (Nowak et al., 2023), and there is evidence that they can be effective. Studies generally agree that tourism’s hedonic quality creates a particular condition around behavioural interventions that should not be breached in the tourism context: behavioural interventions in tourism should not dramatically reduce pleasure for tourists (Eijgelaar & de Kinderen, 2014; Dolnicar, 2020; Nowak et al., 2023). For this reason, interventions that involve penalties, sanctions and policing have proven ineffective in tourism contexts (Greene et al., 2023). Some other interventions such as norm-nudges have even been shown to backfire in tourism contexts, leading to an increase in unsustainable behaviour as tourists presumably found them too intrusive (Nowak et al., 2023). It is partly for this reason that soft behavioural interventions are often preferred in tourism contexts over harder measures such as taxes, policy changes and regulations.

A shortcoming in the literature, which is common to consumer behaviour literature in general, is the overuse of behavioural intentions as a dependent variable, as a substitute for actual behaviour. A systematic literature review conducted by Lin and colleagues (2022), which focused only on pro-environmental behaviour studies in tourism and hospitality, found that almost 93% of studies used pro-environmental behavioural intention as their dependent variable. It is widely accepted that behavioural intention is vulnerable to social desirability bias (Fisher, 1993; Kaiser et al., 1999; Zhu et al., 2023), so using it as a proxy casts considerable doubt on the reliability of results.

Naturally, the predominance of behavioural intention studies means that there are comparatively very few examples of behavioural interventions being tested in the field (Sun et al., 2020), despite the fact that this method is generally accepted (1) to provide the most reliable measure of behaviour, (2) to be the only way to make valid conclusions about causal effects (Viglia & Dolnicar, 2020; Lin et al., 2022), and (3) to generate the most valid practical implications (Fong et al., 2016). A recent review of experimental studies in tourism conducted by Sun and colleagues (2020) even shows that the use of experimental design in tourism research has been decreasing since 2015.

Conducting field experiments is logistically very labour-intensive, costly, and often requires close and reliable collaborations with industry, so it is unsurprising that there are relatively few to be found in the literature. This also partly explains why, where field experiments have been conducted, they tend to target a handful of behaviours that are relatively easy to measure. These include the reuse of hotel towels (e.g. Reese et al., 2014; Han & Hyun, 2018; Moscardo, 2019), waiving of hotel room cleans (e.g. Dolnicar et al., 2019; Cvelbar et al., 2021; Zinn et al., 2023), water conservation, particularly in hotel showers (e.g. Tiefenbeck et al., 2019; Pereira et al., 2019), and reducing food waste, particularly in hotel buffets (e.g. Hansen et al., 2015; Dolnicar et al., 2020; Chang, 2022). Part of the reason that these behaviours are easy to measure is because they happen in relatively closed environments that are easier to control than most other tourism contexts. In a hotel, for example, it is much easier to communicate with guests in a way that controls for extraneous variables than it would be on a walking tour, where things like weather, unexpected events, and interactions with people other than experimental participants are more likely to affect behavioural outcomes. It follows, therefore, that most of the field experiments conducted so far in the tourism context have been carried out in closed environments such as hotel restaurants and hotel rooms (Souza-Neto et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2022; Greene et al., 2023).

A criticism often directed towards behavioural intervention studies in tourism is that they rarely advance theory (Souza-Neto et al., 2022). Although it is questionable whether it is necessary or even feasible to advance theory with every test of a behavioural intervention, it is always recommended for scholars to reflect on how their findings challenge or confirm existing behavioural and psychological theories.

A final relevant criticism of the literature on behavioural interventions in tourism is that current studies overwhelmingly focus on developed countries and regions (Bowen, 2022; Souza-Neto et al., 2022; Greene et al., 2023). Testing interventions in diverse geographical contexts is arguably important because cultural differences (for example, individualistic vs. collectivist orientations) can affect behavioural responses (Filimonau et al., 2018).

2.4.3 | Behavioural interventions for sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland

In this section I have argued, firstly, that soft behavioural interventions can represent a promising avenue for creating sustainable behaviour change in tourism contexts, where consumers are especially sensitive to restrictions on their behaviour. Despite the evidence for their effectiveness, there are several key criticisms directed at behavioural intervention studies in tourism, namely (1) that there is too much focus on behavioural intentions rather than actual behaviour, (2) too few field experiments are conducted, (3) target behaviours and (4) research contexts are not diverse enough, (5) efforts to advance theory are insufficient, and (6) research neglects developing nation contexts. Paper 3 of this thesis aims to contribute to filling these gaps by (1) testing a behavioural intervention that measures actual behaviour objectively, (2) conducting a field experiment, (3) targeting an understudied behaviour (off-trail walking), (4) being set in an understudied environment that is difficult to control (a natural area in which tourists roam free), (5) conducting a follow-up survey experiment in order to advance

psychological theory, and (6) setting the experiment in a developing nation (Greenland). This study also addresses the final stage of the framework presented in Figure 2.1 (above), and the research question that emerges from this:

3. Which **behavioural interventions** are effective in promoting the targeted sustainable tourist behaviours in Greenland?

As already touched upon in section 2.2.2, the focus on sustainable tourist behaviour in this thesis becomes more concrete and specific as the thesis moves through the three stages of the framework (Figure 2.1), and through the three papers that make up the thesis. This is conducive to more practical and implementable results, but it also means that each paper naturally lends itself to a different research approach and has a different relationship to theory. In the following section, the final section of this chapter, I will consider the varied types of theorising represented in the three papers that make up the thesis. Then, in Chapter 3, I will address the different research approaches adopted by each paper.

2.5 | Types of theorising

Just as each of the three papers of this thesis corresponds to a different element of the framework for behaviour change presented in Figure 2.1, each paper draws to different extents on theory and on the thesis' central phenomenon (sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland). These different extents can be understood and compared by considering different types of theorising or theory generation. Eileen Fischer (2015) identifies three types of theorising, which she labels emergent, enabled, and enfolded (Figueiredo et al., 2017).

Emergent theorising uses a grounded and inductive approach to, for example, identify and map a neglected construct, its implications, and

its relationships with other constructs (Fischer, 2015). This type of theorising typically does not use existing theory as a starting point, but more commonly takes departure in the research questions and the empirical data. Later, the researcher enters a dialogue with existing theory, based on the findings that have emerged from the inductive data analysis (Figueiredo et al., 2017). Paper 1 of the current thesis is an example of emergent theorising, as it employs an inductive research approach, aiming to use empirical data to construct a common conceptualisation of sustainable tourism in the context of Greenland. The theory applied to the findings (core-periphery dynamics) acts as a lens that enables a deeper and more nuanced understanding of the debates present in the data, rather than representing a “grand theory” (ibid., p. 301) that would risk detracting attention from the rich data. Emergent theorising is also apparent in Paper 2 of this thesis, as the conceptual model tested is based on preliminary empirical data from which some of the constructs inductively emerge.

While emergent theorising takes departure in the phenomenon under investigation (in the case of this thesis, sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland), enabled theorising applies a reasonably well-developed and more broadly applicable theory to better explain the particular phenomenon of interest (Fischer, 2015). Paper 2 of this thesis could be considered an example of enabled theorising, since the model tested is reminiscent of well-established theories of tourist behaviour (by, for example, incorporating motivations as antecedents [Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994]). However, the model also includes some antecedents that emerge inductively in a process closer to emergent theorising (e.g. the emotional constructs of entitlement and gratitude).

Enfolded theorising typically takes departure in a ‘grand’ or well-established theory, and “enriches” or “updates” it in light of the dynamics revealed by the study in question (Fischer, 2015, p. 26). Fischer recognises similarities between emergent theorising and enfolded theorising; she points out that, although both types of

theorising can begin with a theory and use empirical data to amend it, emergent theory tends to suggest amendments to concepts, while enfolded theory tends to suggest amendments to grand theories that explain phenomena more broadly (Figueiredo et al., 2017). Paper 3 of the current thesis takes departure in the well-established (and widely applicable) theory that commitment leads to behaviour change (Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966; Wang & Katzev, 1990; Baca-Motes et al., 2013; Lokhorst et al., 2015; Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020; Roll et al., 2020), and amends that theory with new data about how this process occurs.

Table 2.1 (below) presents each paper of the current thesis alongside its relevant type of theorising and its research approach (inductive, abductive or deductive). There are clear similarities to be drawn between Fischer's three types of theorising (which draw to different extents on the phenomenon of interest and on existing theory) and these research approaches (which draw to different extents on observations of the phenomenon and on existing theory). Emergent theorising shares many characteristics with an inductive research approach, enabled theorising with an abductive approach, and enfolded theorising with a deductive approach. I find it important to highlight the type of theorising relevant to each paper in order to emphasise that all three papers contribute to theory generation, albeit in different ways. The methodological research approaches mentioned in Table 2.1 will be explained in more detail in Chapter 3.

	Research question	Type of theorising	Research approach
Paper 1	What is the context of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, and which behaviours should be targeted for change?	Emergent	Inductive
Paper 2	What are the psychological determinants of the sustainable behaviours I have targeted for change?	Enabled / Emergent	Abductive
Paper 3	Which behavioural interventions are effective in promoting the targeted sustainable tourist behaviours in Greenland?	Enfolded	Deductive

Table 2.1 | Theory generation and research approach for each paper.

In terms of theory generation, the papers of this thesis can be seen to build upon each other to a certain extent. For example, part of the theoretical contribution of Paper 1 is an amendment to the concept of sustainable tourism; this is then drawn upon as part of the theoretical foundation of both Papers 2 and 3. The ways in which the findings of the individual papers feed into later papers will be elaborated on in Chapter 7 (section 7.1). By employing a variety of different approaches to theorising, I hope that this thesis generates contributions that are both empirically meaningful and theoretically robust.

Chapter 3 | Methodology

3.1 | *Research approach*

The papers that make up this thesis employ a variety of methods, which were inspired by their different aims, research questions and research approaches (inductive, abductive or deductive). The specific methods used are introduced and justified in the Methods sections of the papers themselves. The focus of this chapter will be on discussing the broader research approaches of each paper, and how they are combined in an overarching research philosophy that aligns with the objective of the thesis.

3.1.1 | *Paper One*

Overarching aim: to explore how sustainable tourism is conceptualised and discussed among local tourism stakeholders in Greenland

Research approaches: Inductive, Constructivist, Qualitative

This paper is heavily exploratory, aiming to gain a deeper understanding of the varied perspectives on a concept that does not have a clear definition. The focus is on a specific context, and on improving the understanding of the field in which I base my thesis research. Drawing heavily from the case context was important because (as described in more detail in the paper) Greenland is a nation that exists within stark power dynamics that often result in perspectives being marginalised. An inductive approach was deemed appropriate because it allowed for local perspectives to be highlighted, but also for multiple and contradictory perspectives to come forth. Inductivism aligns well with constructivism, an epistemology that maintains that reality or knowledge is constructed within the mind of the individual, through interactions with their social context (Cresswell & Cresswell,

2014). Since it serves as a foundational piece of research for the thesis as a whole, I found it important that Paper 1 adopted a research approach that allowed for inclusivity and multiplicity; an inductive, constructivist and qualitative approach was therefore most appropriate.

Naturally, the research approach chosen has implications for the types of findings and conclusions that are revealed. As explained in Paper 1, one of the initial hopes with this piece of research was to use the data to reach agreement around how sustainable tourism in Greenland should be defined. However, this was deemed futile, due to the variety, complexity and contradictory nature of the perspectives revealed. Inductive, constructivist and qualitative approaches by nature open themselves up to complexity and multiplicity, because they allow for depth, nuance and contradictory perspectives. If I had selected, for example, a deductive approach, in which I took a definition of sustainable tourism from the literature and compared its elements in a quantitative manner to certain keywords in my data, I would perhaps have found it easier to fulfil the aim of generating a definitive and comparable definition of sustainable tourism in Greenland. However, because of the significance of highlighting local perspectives, it was more important to generate as inclusive an understanding as possible of the topic in its case context, and thereby to let the field and the data drive the research. I also consider the complexity, contradictions and debates enabled by my chosen approach to be interesting findings in themselves.

3.1.2 | *Paper Two*

Overarching aim: to learn more about the psychological drivers and mechanisms that influence tourists' sustainable behaviour in Greenland
Research approaches: Abductive, Postpositivist, Qualitative & Quantitative

This paper consists of a preliminary study, which is inductive and qualitative, and a main study, which is deductive and quantitative. To meet the overarching aim of the paper, which involves testing relationships between psychological constructs and sustainable tourist behaviour, it was necessary to conduct a survey on a large sample of tourists to Greenland. However, when I began developing my research plan, I was in doubt as to whether existing constructs in the literature were appropriate for my context. As I will argue in section 3.3, Greenland can be seen as an example of an ‘extraordinary’ case in tourism that deserves specific academic attention. For this reason, I chose to conduct a qualitative, exploratory, preliminary study which would help me to select and develop the most relevant psychological constructs in explaining sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland. The conceptual model that I eventually developed included some constructs taken from existing literature (such as tourist motivations), as well as some constructs that were developed inductively through qualitative analysis of the data from my preliminary study (the emotional constructs of entitlement and gratitude). For this reason, I consider Paper 2 to be abductive.

There is a potential incompatibility here, in that quantitative survey studies tend to be more positivist, because they reduce complex constructs into numeric measures. However, there were subjectivities inherent in the first stages of the research process that mean that this is not a positivist study. For example, in my preliminary data I identified the constructs of gratitude and entitlement, which I expected to have a relationship with sustainable tourist behaviour, and which I also saw had not received much attention in the tourism literature to date. It could be that other researchers would have found it more relevant to focus on other constructs that came forth from the preliminary data, or that they would have chosen similar constructs but labelled them differently, or developed the items to measure them in a different way. In other words, the same preliminary data could have led to a

multiplicity of different conceptual models, each of which would likely have produced some explanation of sustainable tourist behaviour. Taking this into account, the epistemological approach of this paper is closest to postpositivism, which, although it strives towards generating objective conclusions, acknowledges the subjectivity of the researcher and its influence on the conclusions drawn (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2014).

I find it important to mention one specific example of where the research approaches of Papers 1 and 2 potentially contradict each other. Paper 1's inductive and constructivist approach leads to the conclusion that sustainable tourism in the context of Greenland cannot be satisfactorily defined, is fluid and understood differently from different perspectives. In Paper 2, however, my co-authors and I proceed to outline a list of tourist behaviours in Greenland that are deemed to be 'sustainable'. It is questionable how we can introduce a definitive list of sustainable tourist behaviours when I have previously argued that it is futile to present a fixed definition of sustainable tourism. Indeed, developing the list was not without its challenges, and there were some behaviours that we decided to omit because they could be considered sustainable from one perspective and unsustainable from another. 'Going flightseeing', for example, is an environmentally unsustainable behaviour, but if it is done with a local operator, it could be argued to be a socially and economically sustainable behaviour. The list of sustainable tourist behaviours presented in Paper 2 is not intended to be exhaustive. However, as will be expanded on later in this section, there is a normative angle to my thesis research that requires drawing conclusions that contribute to a 'better' tourism landscape. To make progress towards improving tourist behaviour, I had to make some decisions around what types of behaviour are desirable. Although we have attempted to make them as closed to controversy as possible, the behavioural items presented in Paper 2 may still attract some questions around how sustainable tourist behaviour should be defined. However,

we are convinced that most local stakeholders in Greenland would agree that the behaviours in the list are all desirable and would contribute to an improved tourism landscape if they were adhered to.

3.1.3 | *Paper Three*

Overarching aim: to develop and test a behavioural intervention to encourage sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, and to explain the psychological mechanism driving the behavioural change

Research approaches: Deductive, Postpositivist, Quantitative

Similarly to Paper 2, Paper 3 combines two studies. However, rather than one study acting as a preliminary study to inform the design of the second, in Paper 3, one study provides the practical contribution while one provides the theoretical contribution. The studies in Paper 3 are both experimental; a field experiment tests the effect of an intervention on actual tourist behaviour, and a survey experiment tests the effect of the same intervention on self-reported psychological constructs. Paper 3 is mainly deductive, since, in both the field experiment and the survey experiment, hypotheses generated using existing theory are tested in a specific environment. The only element of inductivism present in Paper 3 is in the development of the intervention itself, which was designed abductively, using both existing literature and local knowledge about the context of the field experiment.

A quantitative approach was necessary to fulfil the aims of this paper, since causal relationships (i.e. isolating the effect of an intervention on a behaviour) can only be identified through experimentation (Viglia & Dolnicar, 2020; Lin et al., 2022), and to compare a control group with a treatment group in a valid way, one needs to use data that is directly comparable (i.e. quantitative data). Highly linked to the experimental focus of this study, the philosophical approach taken is closest to postpositivism, which entails objective measurement in a real-world setting, the reduction of ideas into a

testable format or dataset, and the verification or testing of theory (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2014).

3.2 | Pragmatism as an overarching research philosophy

I have made the perhaps slightly unusual decision of presenting my overarching research philosophy at the end of this section, because I wanted to first emphasise the dilemma presented when the research approaches of my three papers are considered in combination with each other. Although there is nothing inherently incompatible about inductive, abductive, and deductive approaches, and certainly not with qualitative and quantitative methods, the philosophical approaches of constructivism and postpositivism traditionally denote different philosophical worldviews (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2014). Namely, constructivists believe in multiple, subjective realities, and hold that the world cannot be studied in an objective way, while postpositivists strive to reduce subjectivity in their research in order to explain social phenomena as objectively as possible (ibid.). A constructivist approach opens up for complexity and pluralism, while a postpositivist approach attempts to find ways to systematically measure and test social phenomena by reducing complex constructs into simple (usually quantitative) datasets (ibid.).

Despite their differences, I argue that these two approaches are not incompatible. Indeed, the postpositivist worldview does not explicitly deny the existence of subjectivities; rather, it tries to reduce them in order to make its conclusions as generally applicable as possible. The chosen research approach, therefore, should depend on what social phenomenon the researcher is trying to explain, and on what question they are trying to answer. It would be misguided, for example, to try to understand what people mean when they talk about sustainable tourism by trying to generate a rule that systematically governs this. Similarly, it would be suboptimal to attempt to measure the effect of a behavioural intervention by conducting semi-structured interviews.

A belief in pluralism and in the benefit of selecting the research approach that most effectively fulfils the research aim suggests that my thesis as a whole has a pragmatist approach. Pragmatism has been depicted perhaps most simply as a ‘mediating philosophy’, offering a middle-ground for thinkers who do not subscribe wholly either to “empiricist” (referring to positivist) or “rationalist” (referring to constructivist/interpretivist) approaches (James, 1907). But beyond just offering a middle-ground, pragmatism is focused on problem-solving and on the practical consequences of research: on effectively explaining and predicting phenomena rather than trying to describe them objectively (ibid.). For a pragmatist, concepts and theories are tools for problem solving and action, and, following this metaphor, the pragmatist approach is concerned with selecting the most appropriate tool for the job. It follows that not all research approaches, theories and concepts are equally suitable for answering every question (Baert, 2004).

The dilemma described in section 3.1.2, around the list of sustainable tourist behaviours that seems somehow to contradict arguments made in Paper 1, is perhaps an apt illustration of a pragmatist philosophy at work. Although an inductive, constructivist approach was an appropriate method for exploring in-depth understandings of a complex phenomenon (in Paper 1), it did not provide results that were as practically implementable as I had hoped. Since my project has an overarching objective of encouraging more sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, moving into Papers 2 and 3, it was necessary to make some more definitive but informed decisions that would allow my research to generate practical results.

My thesis research in general is inherently normative, because it is committed to encouraging certain tourist behaviours that are deemed ‘sustainable’. The ‘sustainable’ label implies a moral element to the behaviours: that they are better for the planet, for the wellbeing of disadvantaged peoples or for future generations. Similarly, one of my

theoretical foundations, specifically behavioural interventions, entails making decisions around which behaviours are socially desirable or should be encouraged on a large scale (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008). Although pragmatism is concerned with the usefulness and effectiveness of research findings, it is not necessarily inherently normative, as what is useful is not equivalent to what is moral, or 'right'. Therefore, I find it important to emphasise that my specific interpretation of pragmatism involves not just generating findings that are useful and effective, but also progressing towards a tourism landscape that is envisioned to be morally superior to the current one. The term *normative pragmatism* refers to a philosophical approach embraced by Wittgenstein (1953) and Brandom (2019) among others, but I do not align my work with this approach specifically. Rather, my approach could be considered 'pragmatism with an agenda'; in other words, there is an assumption that the practical conclusions I draw through my research are the 'right' things to encourage.

John Dewey, who is widely accepted to be one of the 'founding fathers' of pragmatism (Baert, 2004; Neville, 2018; Brandom, 2019), is arguably one of the pragmatists who has paid most attention to the ethical or normative aspects of the philosophy. He viewed pragmatism as "an instrument of social improvement" (Glaude, 2008). He also considered moral values and norms to be concepts that are refined, improved, and advanced through scientific inquiry (ibid.). In other words, norms are not static but they evolve and adapt over time and through further research. This concept is echoed in Paper 1 of this thesis, which attempted to deepen global understandings of sustainable tourism by incorporating perspectives from a peripheral and marginalised destination. The knowledge generated in Paper 1, especially surrounding what behaviours are considered sustainable in the context of Greenland (which in some places contradicts global definitions), can be seen as contributing to a refinement of global norms around sustainable tourism.

There is much more that can be said on the topic of pragmatism, on its various types and subtypes, its advocates and critics, and on how it connects to my research. However, I hope that this brief introduction to pragmatism has managed to convey that I strive to be a researcher who approaches problems in a pragmatic and applicable way, and with the ultimate aim of finding ways to manage tourism more morally and ethically. Additionally, I aim to be a researcher who can apply a wide range of research methods, driven by the belief that the most appropriate method depends on the question I want to answer or the problem I want to solve.

3.3 | *Greenland: An extraordinary case?*

3.3.1 | “*Let it be out of this world*”

In his poem *N’importe où hors du monde* [Anywhere out of this world], the poet Charles Baudelaire explores the frustration of feeling constantly pulled to move but never satisfied with new places. In an attempt to quell his restless soul, the poem’s narrator engages in conversation with it, repeatedly suggesting new places to move to. His soul, apparently unimpressed, remains silent. Eventually, the narrator, concluding that his soul can only be happy in a state of pain, proposes somewhere “analogous to Death”:

Let's install ourselves at the pole. There the sun grazes the earth obliquely, and the slow alternatives of light and night suppress variety and augment monotony, this half of nothingness. There we could take long baths of shadow, while, to give us diversion, the aurora borealis would send us from time to time their pink sheaves, like reflections of fireworks from Hell.

(Baudelaire, 1962. Translation by MacCannell, 2013)

The soul, finally aroused into a response, cries out, “Anywhere! Anywhere! Only let it be out of this world” (ibid.).

The phrase ‘out of this world’ is used in colloquial English to refer to something extraordinary, spectacular or extremely rare or impressive. Combining this definition with the literal meaning of the phrase, one is left with the impression that the more alien a place is, the more impressive it is. Baudelaire’s poem is a clear criticism of humanity’s unrelenting perception that life would be better in another’s circumstances. However, seen through the lens of leisure travel, it evokes the traveller’s need to poke at boundaries, to go further, and even to places where pleasure is apparently hard to come by. In this case, the North Pole is the most ‘out of this world’ location our narrator can conceive of. It is implicitly extraordinary and spectacular, but more explicitly described as a frontier: an outer limit, an edge, the end of habitation, and perhaps somewhere one should stop. Something about this contradictory combination of characteristics has always been attractive to many (Butler, 1996; Cohen, 2004; Laing & Crouch, 2005).

3.3.2 | *The extraordinary case*

In order to develop theoretical contributions of this thesis that are applicable to more than one destination, I frame Greenland as an example of an ‘extraordinary’ destination, or an extraordinary case. Seawright and Gerring (2008) identify seven types of case study: typical, diverse, extreme, deviant, influential, most-similar, and most-different. In this section I will argue that Greenland can be considered an example of both an extreme and an influential case, and that findings from destinations like Greenland (particularly regarding sustainable behaviour) can have increasingly important implications for tourism theory and practice. I label this merging of the extreme and influential case the ‘extraordinary case’, to reflect both the unusual quality but also the potential influence of these cases for sustainable behaviour.

The extreme case type, according to Seawright and Gerring (2008), represents a case whose value on a variable of interest is extreme, or far from the average. A case in this category is valuable because it is rare or unusual (Seawright & Gerring, 2008). Although my case selection is not based on one specific variable, it is fair to say that Greenland is an unusual example of a tourism destination. If, for example, the number of annual visitors were the variable of interest, Greenland would place at the lower extreme on a global scale, as it welcomes only about 100,000 visitors annually (Visit Greenland, 2022). Selecting a single extreme case for within-case analysis is justified if the case's position and interest as an extreme case is well-established (Seawright & Gerring, 2008). If so, the analysis of a single extreme case study is exploratory and interested in probing the factors that make this case unusual or compelling (*ibid.*).

An influential case is proposed to have a considerable influence on a variable of interest (Seawright & Gerring, 2008). Influential cases are justified as single case studies because they can have noticeable implications for the population of cases as a whole, in that they can significantly influence overall trends and theories (*ibid.*). According to Seawright & Gerring (2008), the influential case study may be selected with a view to confirming or denying that the case in question does indeed have a dramatic influence on the dependent variable. As will be elaborated on in section 3.3.4, there is literature to suggest that extraordinary destinations such as Greenland have a notable influence on sustainable tourist behaviour, both in a positive and negative direction. My argumentation, then, that Greenland is an example of an influential case (in terms of sustainable tourist behaviour) is based on a proposed influential relationship of which there is already some evidence, but of which the evidence is inconclusive in terms of the relationship's direction.

Seawright and Gerring (2008) note that the identification of influential cases often leads to the development of new theories or

novel subsets of influential cases which play an influential role on a larger scale. Indeed, on a global scale, Greenland can certainly be considered an extreme and non-representative case of a tourism destination. However, if this thesis concludes that Greenland also has interest as an influential (and therefore an extraordinary) case, then it may perhaps represent a subset of extraordinary destinations which together have important implications for sustainable behaviour in tourism. Zooming in on this subset, Greenland would no longer be an extreme case but a typical and representative case of an extraordinary destination, and in this sense, a single case study of sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland deepens our understanding of extraordinary destinations and their implications for sustainable tourist behaviour.

Although in this section I have discussed my case study selection in terms of variables and have even suggested a linear relationship between destination extraordinariness and sustainable tourist behaviour, it is important to note that in this thesis I do not intend to confirm or deny such a relationship. Indeed, this would be impossible since I focus only on a single 'extraordinary destination'. As will be demonstrated in the remainder of this section, my proposed classification of Greenland as one example from a set of extraordinary destinations is based on many more variables than purely its tourism arrivals and its proposed influence on sustainable tourist behaviour. The 'extraordinary' classification is also an effort to unite various relevant streams of the tourism literature that classify similar destinations or travellers in different ways (such as last chance tourism, frontier travel, and extraordinary experiences). Exploring the category of the extraordinary destination and its potential impact on sustainable tourist behaviour can help to highlight the relevance of different streams of tourism research to each other, unite them under one category and thereby gather our knowledge about them in a more efficient and impactful way.

3.3.3 | *Extraordinariness in tourism research*

The concept of extraordinariness is not new to tourism research, but to my knowledge the argument for ‘extraordinary destinations’ as a category with common characteristics and shared significance for sustainable tourist behaviour has not been made before. This section will briefly outline how extraordinariness has been understood in the tourism literature to date, and how overlapping concepts such as frontier travel (Butler, 1996; Laing & Crouch, 2005) relate to the ‘extraordinary destination’ classification, in order to position it properly in the literature.

Extraordinariness was first introduced in tourism scholarship as an opposition to the ordinary (Urry, 1990; Rojek & Urry, 1997). According to Urry (1990), the extraordinary simply denotes something other than everyday life; thus, ‘extraordinary’ is equated to ‘out of the ordinary’ (Rojek & Urry, 1997; Urry & Larsen, 2011). When defining the extraordinary destination, I refer not just to a place that is distinct from everyday life (which would simply be any tourism space), but a place that is extraordinary even in comparison to other tourism destinations.

Along similar lines, literature on extraordinary experience recognises extraordinariness as something extreme even in comparison to other tourism experiences. In perhaps the most well-known piece on extraordinary experience in tourism, Arnould and Price (1993) draw on Abrahams (1986), defining an extraordinary experience as an intense, hedonic, emotional experience elicited by an unusual event. In their analysis of a white-water rafting experience, Arnould and Price (1993) identify three dimensions of extraordinary experiences: a deep connection with nature, a connection with fellow travellers, and personal growth and renewal. Similarly, other authors have defined extraordinary experiences as emotionally charged and potentially life-altering (Jefferies & Lepp, 2012), as intense and novel (Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017), as triggering strong emotional reactions including

change (Lundberg et al., 2022), and as intense and transformative (Goolaup & Nunkoo, 2023).

Another relevant stream of literature focuses on frontier regions and frontier travellers. Frontier regions were introduced by Butler (1996), who presents them largely as examples of peripheral destinations. He argues that frontier regions are relatively inaccessible, undeveloped, sparsely populated, lacking in tourism infrastructure, and politically peripheral (Butler, 1996). These characteristics make these areas attractive destinations for tourists who long to play the role of the explorer or pioneer, or who aim to ‘collect’ as many rare destinations as possible (ibid.). Although it is unclear how Butler (1996) distinguishes between peripheral and frontier regions, a handful of scholars inspired by Cohen (2004) and Laing and Crouch (2005) have further developed the frontier concept by identifying a tourism segment labelled ‘frontier travellers’. These tourists venture to the ‘fringes’ of the world: the peaks of the highest mountains, the depths of the oceans, the centre of remote deserts, and the poles (Laing & Crouch, 2005). It has been argued that they are motivated to follow in the footsteps of famous explorers of the past (ibid.), and that their travel experiences blur the boundary between tourism and exploration (Cohen, 2004). This type of travel is often extremely expensive and risky and requires extensive planning and preparation (Laing & Crouch, 2005).

Greenland is a young tourism destination, but its visitors are mostly not trailblazing enough to fit Laing and Crouch’s (2005) definition of the frontier traveller. Going to Greenland does not have to entail an expedition: it is possible to visit safely and with relatively minimal planning. Tourism infrastructure in Greenland is emerging, sparse, and can be unreliable, but it does exist. While frontier tourists walk “in the shadow of explorers of old” (Laing & Crouch, 2011, p. 1530), tourists to Greenland can be framed as walking in the shadow of frontier tourists. This notion connects neatly to the concept of the extraordinary destination because it can be argued that Laing and Crouch’s (2005)

frontier travellers are too trailblazing to be visiting *destinations*, per se; indeed, the places they visit are not yet established as destinations when they go there. It is arguably only after they have been visited by frontier tourists that these places *become* destinations, and become open to being visited by those ‘secondary’ frontier tourists - the same segment that goes to Greenland.

The concept of extraordinary destinations combines these relevant streams of literature thus: extraordinary destinations always enable extraordinary experiences. Extraordinary destinations were added to the tourist ‘map’ by frontier tourists, and are now visited by the tourists who follow in their footsteps. In other words, extraordinary destinations are about as adventurous as one can get while still having a tourism infrastructure of some sort. I describe the four main characteristics of extraordinary destinations below:

(1) *Distance from origin country*

Extraordinary destinations are alien, as suggested by the phrase ‘out of this world’. This alien quality is partially constructed by the destination’s placement sufficiently far away from the tourist’s home country. Larsen and Guiver (2014) argue that tourists connect physical distance with cultural dissimilarity and novelty, so that the further one travels, the more extraordinary an experience one can expect to have.

(2) *(In the shadow of) the frontier*

Connected to the notion of distance from home is the concept of ‘the frontier’. The frontier refers to a boundary or an outer limit: “the edge of the tourist world” (MacCannell, 2013, p. 168). It is of course subjective, as it depends on where one’s world begins, but since the frontier is arguably a Western cultural construct (Frost, 2021), it can be assumed that the tourist’s world has its end in non-Western, developing, or completely uninhabited nations. Arnould et al. (1998) have argued that ‘wilderness’, rather than being recognised as a

specific geographical place, is a complex concept that is constructed in opposition to civilised life. The frontier, then, can be seen to represent the boundary between civilisation and wilderness (Arnould et al., 1998; Gyimóthy & Mykletun, 2004). Some have argued that the tourist's frontier is constantly in flux; as a frontier is reached (or conquered), it becomes less alien, and the frontier shrinks further away in the mind of the tourist (Laing & Crouch, 2005; MacCannell, 2013).

Although the frontier is certainly subjective and culturally constructed, there is evidence to suggest that it may not be as fluid as MacCannell (2013) and Laing and Crouch (2005) suggest. In studies conducted among residents of the US and France with diverse ages and income levels, Quoidbach and colleagues (2015) found that when respondents were asked freely to name ordinary and extraordinary travel destinations, they consistently made similar choices in each category. This suggests that, at least within the same nation-state, perceptions of what constitutes an extraordinary destination might be shared across social strata. The authors also found, in a secondary experimental study, that an increase in how well-travelled a participant is does not lead to diminished pleasure in visiting 'extraordinary' destinations (Quoidbach et al., 2015). This suggests that, even for the most well-travelled individuals, an extraordinary destination is likely to retain its extraordinary qualities over time and even through repeated visits.

(3) *Destinations for a social elite*

In its beginnings, tourism was a practice for the industrialised countries' social elite, or for Veblen's (1899) 'leisure class'. The advent of mass tourism and growth of low-budget options have made tourism accessible to members of more diverse social classes, at least within the Global North. Extraordinary places, tending to be remote and difficult to access, are usually expensive to visit and thereby encompass an element of exclusivity. Only the richest, most well-travelled and most

adventurous members of Western society have the means or the reason to go there.

These destinations are for the luxury market, although they often do not offer luxury in a tangible sense, in terms of high-spec accommodation or five-star service (MacCannell, 2013). Rather, they offer luxury as extraordinariness, according to the original definition of the term (ibid.). I argue, therefore, that extraordinary places are destinations for the social elite: that perhaps the ‘mainstreaming’ of tourism is part of the catalyst that pushes the social elite to the frontier, as they are continually in search of places that they can ‘conspicuously consume’ (Veblen, 1899).

(4) *Something spectacular*

The literature reviewed in this section (on extraordinary experiences and frontier travellers) has hinted at the notion of ‘something spectacular’; an extraordinary experience, for example, should involve unusual events (Abrahams, 1986; Arnould and Price, 1993). However, since this literature focuses primarily on the internal tourist experience or on profiling a specific tourist segment, it gives less attention to the external features (or the pull factors) of a destination that offers extraordinary experiences or attracts frontier travellers. The characteristics described above are reminiscent of the characteristics of peripheral destinations, which is also how Greenland is framed in Paper 1 of this thesis. Although many extraordinary places are peripheral, I argue that not all peripheral places are extraordinary, because extraordinary destinations also provide something spectacular. An extraordinary destination must offer an unusual, spectacular or rare pull factor for tourists to do or see; it is not extraordinary simply in its quality of being alien, far away, or expensive.

3.3.4 | *Extraordinary destinations and sustainable tourist behaviour*

Although there is no literature that specifically links the concept of extraordinary destinations with sustainable tourist behaviour, it can be

interpreted from various similar streams of research that this type of destination has relevance for sustainable tourist behaviour. This literature also suggests that the nature of this relationship is currently unclear and often contradictory.

It is generally accepted in the extraordinary experience literature that extraordinary experiences provoke particularly intense emotions (Arnould & Price, 1993; Farber & Hall, 2007; Lundberg et al., 2022), and even that they entail personal transformation (Arnould & Price, 1993; Celsi et al., 1993; Goolap & Mossberg, 2017). These intensely emotional and transcendent characteristics can lead to extraordinary experiences having greater impacts than ordinary ones (Lundberg et al., 2022), where some of these impacts relate to behaviour changes. Frontier travel has also been linked to the realm of the emotional (Laing & Crouch, 2005) and to personal transformation through the concept of ambassadorship. This notion runs through much of the literature on tourist behaviour and remote places, especially that on Antarctica (Maher et al., 2001; Vila et al., 2016; Alexander et al., 2019). Ambassadorship refers to the suggestion that visitors to Antarctica later become ‘ambassadors’ for the continent in that they raise awareness of its fragility and encourage pro-environmental behaviours in others (ibid.). However, this literature remains uncertain on the extent to which ambassadorship exists, and especially around whether the positive effects of ambassadorship can outweigh the negative environmental impacts of tourism to Antarctica (Powell et al., 2008; Eijgelaar et al., 2010; Alexander et al., 2019).

Literature on climate icons follows a similar narrative. A climate icon is a tangible entity that is affected by climate change (O’Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009). Examples of climate icons are polar bears, glaciers (O’Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009) and vulnerable landscapes such as the Great Barrier Reef (Curnock et al., 2019). In extraordinary places, a climate icon often plays the role of ‘something spectacular’. With its many glaciers, polar ice cap, vulnerable fauna such as polar

bears and whales, and geological features such as permafrost, Greenland represents an impressive collection of climate icons. O'Neill and Nicholson-Cole (2009) found that while Arctic-related climate icons are especially powerful in comparison to other climate icons, they can also be counterproductive for sustainable behaviour change in that they can invoke a sense of powerlessness. Other studies have found evidence that exposure to climate icons can arouse more serious concern about climate change and trigger protective intentions (O'Neill & Hulme, 2009; Curnock et al., 2019; O'Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009; Westoby & McNamara, 2019). Although the potential for increased awareness and concern generated by climate icons is widely accepted, there are doubts around how long this concern lasts (Westoby & McNamara, 2019), and whether or not it translates into actual sustainable behaviour (O'Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009).

The literature on 'last chance tourism' makes connections between tourist behaviour and destinations that house climate icons. Last chance tourism refers to tourists travelling to a destination to see a sight, landscape or species that they perceive to be disappearing (Eijgelaar et al., 2010; Hindley & Font, 2018; Groulx et al., 2019). Various scholars have pointed out the paradoxical nature of last chance tourism, in that by travelling long distances to witness a landscape feature that is threatened by climate change, last chance tourists are contributing to its demise (Piggott-McKellar & McNamara, 2017; Dawson et al., 2011; Lemelin et al., 2010; Hindley & Font, 2018). As the feature continues to deteriorate, its appeal as a last chance attraction increases, which can lead to increased visitor numbers and even more deterioration (ibid.). Butler (1996) also recognised this phenomenon when writing about frontier travel: "the development ethic has ironically increased the appeal of frontier regions to many potential visitors, as they desire to see an area before it becomes transformed" (Butler, 1996, p. 217). The 'transformation' of a destination can also refer to its modernisation,

rather than disappearance; in this case, the loss is not of a landscape, but of a historical or 'authentic' society or culture.

In existing studies that have examined sustainable tourist behaviour in connection to last chance tourism, both positive and negative relationships have been found. Supporting a negative relationship, Piggott-McKellar and McNamara (2017) argued that last chance tourism usually entails long-haul travel and thereby more negative environmental impacts, and found also that tourists to the Great Barrier Reef exhibited low concern about their impacts on it. Dawson and colleagues (2011) suggested that, in the case of last chance tourism, tourists' self-interest can take precedence over conservation. Supporting a positive relationship, Denley and colleagues (2020) found that tourists with pro-environmental values are more likely to engage in last chance tourism, and Hehir and colleagues (2023) found that last chance tourism experiences are more likely to encourage charitable donations than other types of tourism experiences.

In this section I have argued that, although existing literature is inconclusive on the nature of the relationship between extraordinary destinations and sustainable tourist behaviour, there is a connection between the two. Extraordinary experiences trigger intense emotions and can lead to personal transformation. Frontier travel can also lead to personal transformation and the transformation of others through ambassadorship. Witnessing climate icons can trigger feelings of powerlessness or lead to increased concern for fragile landscapes and fauna. Last chance tourism can have both positive and negative implications for sustainable tourist behaviour. It is clear that much more research is needed in order to determine with more certainty the nuances of the relationship between extraordinary destinations and sustainable tourist behaviour. Additionally, all of the studies referenced above relate either to attitudes, behavioural intentions, or to (un)sustainable behaviours engaged in during travel to the destination, or once the tourist arrives home. We currently know even less about the

impact that visits to extraordinary destinations have on in-destination sustainable tourist behaviours.

3.3.5 | *The relevance of the extraordinary case*

I have argued throughout this section that Greenland is an example of an extraordinary case in tourism, or an extraordinary destination. This type of case, I propose, is a combination of the extreme and influential case, because, on a global level, extraordinary destinations are extreme examples of tourist destinations, yet it is claimed that they can have significant influence on sustainable tourist behaviour, both in a positive and negative direction. Another reason that extraordinary destinations are important to examine is because they are pioneering destinations for the expansion of tourism. If extraordinary destinations emerge following visits from frontier travellers, as previously argued, then they are places that were recently inaccessible for tourists but that now have an emerging tourism infrastructure. This could have serious implications in three main ways. Firstly, these types of destinations tend to be very fragile (especially if they are home to climate icons or are last chance destinations). Secondly, the impacts of tourism activities in these places are likely to be largely unknown, as they are only beginning to witness their first wave of tourism. Thirdly, it is possible that this first wave of tourism is ‘paving the way’ for larger numbers of visitors, or even for mass tourism (Brown, 2004). As Laing and Crouch (2011) put it:

“The lack of research on frontier tourism might also be due to a perception that, as these individuals are exceptional cases positioned on the fringes of the mainstream tourism industry, they are of limited interest. A study of outliers in a population however can often yield valuable information about future directions and trends.”

(Laing & Crouch, 2011, p. 1517)

If we can reveal effective ways to encourage sustainable tourist behaviour in extraordinary destinations, before the masses arrive, then we have an opportunity to transform tourism for the better before negative impacts emerge on a large scale. On an academic level, the extraordinary case is relevant in the context of sustainable tourist behaviour because it helps us to understand the psychology of trailblazers, trendsetters or the social elite, and the extent to which they can have a positive impact on the trails they blaze.

Chapter 4 | Paper One

**Making sense of sustainable tourism on the periphery: perspectives
from Greenland**

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Abstract

This exploratory study presents Greenland as a case of a peripheral destination that complicates and contradicts global definitions of sustainable tourism. Using empirical data that consists of 39 semi-structured interviews, the author employs an inductive approach to discuss the conceptualisation of sustainable tourism according to local stakeholders in Greenland. The key points of conflict surrounding sustainable tourism in Greenland are identified and discussed, with a focus on how local stakeholders contradict each other, and on how the debates prevalent at the local scale can inform tourism development in other peripheral places. The paper contributes to academic literature by offering a deeper understanding of how core-periphery dynamics can influence perceptions of and priorities for sustainable tourism in peripheral places. It benefits the industry by exposing the main debates around the issue of sustainable tourism in Greenland, which can be used to inform the nation's tourism development.

Keywords

Sustainability, sustainable tourism, Arctic tourism, peripherality, stakeholder perspectives, Greenland, peripheral Global North, Global South, Indigenous tourism, core-periphery

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4.1 | *Introduction*

Although sustainability in leisure travel is widely acknowledged as a global priority, it may not be understood in the same way across the world. The academic literature on sustainable tourism is extensive, but there is an insufficient contribution from peripheral locations, particularly regarding how sustainable tourism is made sense of and conceptualised. These perspectives are important because they can challenge how we think about sustainable tourism. This paper presents an exploratory study which aims to contribute to an emerging body of literature, by examining how sustainable tourism is understood by local stakeholders in Greenland.

The remote island nation of Greenland is largely uninhabitable, lacking in infrastructure, and struggles with a tumultuous colonial history and various social issues and inequalities. Greenland can be considered peripheral in many, perhaps even all, senses of the word. this peripheral status induces numerous complexities and contradictions regarding sustainable tourism: for example, that eating meat in Greenland is actually more sustainable than eating vegetarian, due to the nation's largely uncultivable land and geographic distance from trading partners. This simple example demonstrates how the context of Greenland can turn commonly accepted understandings of sustainability on their heads, and potentially challenge 'core' understandings of sustainable tourism. Through an inductive, qualitative analysis of local stakeholder perspectives on sustainable tourism in Greenland, this paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. How is sustainable tourism conceptualised and discussed by local stakeholders in Greenland?
2. How do these findings challenge core understandings of sustainable tourism, and how can they be used to inform tourism development in peripheral destinations?

The paper proceeds with an introduction to the study context and a review of relevant literature. Following this, the methods are explained and findings analysed, and the discussion answers the research questions.

4.2 | Study context: Greenland as peripheral

The term ‘peripheral’, in tourism literature, often refers to destinations which are located in the Global South, are physically isolated or difficult to access, or which are locked in an unequal relationship with a ‘core’ state (Hill et al., 2020). Peripheral nations often are or have been colonised, and suffer from inequality and marginalisation (Weaver, 1998; Wu & Tsai, 2016). Müller and Jansson (2006) point out that the literature tends to focus on peripheries in the developing world, rather than nations in the developed world or at higher latitudes that might also be considered peripheral. Hall (2007) proposes a broader definition of peripheral destinations which incorporates peripheral regions in the Global North. These locations are argued to be characterised by predominantly resource-based economies and limited transport infrastructure (Hall, 2007). Cheer et al. (2016) present islands as examples of peripheral destinations, although, of course, not all islands are peripheral, and not all peripheral destinations are islands.

It is clear that Greenland as a destination fulfils many (if not all) of the criteria that are commonly accepted in the literature to be characteristics of peripheral destinations. An autonomous island territory within the Kingdom of Denmark, it certainly exists in a core-periphery relationship with a more powerful nation (Weaver, 1998; Cheer et al., 2022). Greenland’s population of just over 56,000 people is almost 90% Indigenous (Greenlandic Inuit). Despite being the nation’s second biggest export, tourism’s contribution to the economy pales in comparison to that of the fishing industry, which accounts for 95% of export revenue. Average tourist arrivals are low, at around 100,000 per year, although two new international airports are due to

open in 2024, which it is hoped will make Greenland more accessible and affordable (Visit Greenland, 2020). Even before the COVID-19 pandemic dramatically highlighted these, Greenland suffered from various contextual challenges which affected its tourism development: “distance from markets, limited economic diversity, lack of expertise, difficulty of attracting investment, high seasonality and highly sensitive environments” (Ren et al., 2016, p. 1-2; Lindberg et al., 2019). Although its relatively unexploited natural landscape is often a pull factor (Kaae, 2006; Wu & Tsai, 2016), Greenland’s Arctic location further compounds these obstacles, due to the region’s harsh environment and unpredictable weather conditions (Kaae, 2006; Chen, 2015; James et al., 2020). In this sense, Greenland can be seen as a classic example of a destination in the northern periphery, and the findings of this paper can have implications for peripheral destinations across the globe.

4.3 | *Review of the literature*

This paper uses the term ‘sustainable tourism’ because this term is most widely used in Greenland in discourse around transforming tourism for the better, so was most familiar to research participants. It is not the intention of the paper to suggest that sustainable tourism should be considered a blanket goal for peripheral destinations, above other, related forms of ‘better’ tourism, such as ‘regenerative’ or ‘just’ tourism. How individual destinations refer to any improved tourism landscape is arguably just as context-dependent as it will be claimed by this paper that understandings of this vision are. The literature review begins with a brief introduction to issues surrounding tourism practice in peripheries, and then reviews literature which specifically analyses *sustainable* tourism practice in peripheries. Following this, literature on understandings of sustainable tourism from ‘core’ sources will be reviewed, followed by literature on understandings of sustainable tourism from the perspectives of peripheral locations. This is to expose

any potential conflicts between the empirical data collected for this paper and the core perspectives acknowledged in the literature.

4.3.1 | Tourism practice in peripheries

Despite the numerous obstacles to tourism development in peripheral destinations that have previously been identified, in Greenland and in other peripheral places tourism is often hailed as an opportunity for economic growth (Visit Greenland, 2020; Müller & Jansson, 2006) and political independence (Wennecke et al., 2019). However, some authors argue that the development of tourism in peripheral locations can lead to existing core-periphery relationships being reinforced, since local stakeholders in the destination often lack control over tourism and thus become dependent on external agents, who often claim large shares of the economic revenue themselves (Müller & Jansson, 2006; Cheer et al., 2016). Diagne (2004) also points out that it is these external agents, or the “metropolitan core areas” (p. 474) that generate the tourists who travel to peripheral places, and that this requires peripheral destinations to adopt the values of the core and to adapt their offerings accordingly. Müller and Jansson (2006) notice that, where community members are involved in tourism development, visions often collide. It is these conflicts of visions that this paper builds upon, specifically regarding sustainable tourism. What are the visions and conceptualisations of sustainable tourism that are imposed on the peripheral destination of Greenland from outside, and what are the visions and conceptualisations held by local stakeholders? How do stakeholders express and mobilise their understandings, and how is this likely to affect tourism development in Greenland?

4.3.2 | Sustainable tourism practice in peripheries

Some literature has explored the notion that contextual features of peripheral destinations can render the development of sustainable tourism in these locations particularly challenging, or even impossible

(Cheer et al., 2016; Lasso & Dahles, 2021). In the case of Greenland, Pasgaard and colleagues (2021) analyse the contradictions present in the practice of sustainable tourism at the local scale, and conclude that sustainable tourism - as defined by the WTO in 2005 - may not be an option at all in Greenland, given the nuances and trade-offs uncovered by their case study. In another case study of south Greenland, Heikkinen and colleagues (2020) emphasise numerous locally-defined challenges and vulnerabilities that make sustainable tourism development in this area questionable.

There is general agreement in this literature that sustainable tourism solutions in peripheral locations should be planned in a context-specific way. However, several scholars argue that the meanings local stakeholders ascribe to phenomena should be investigated before any meaningful solution-oriented work can be initiated (Balslev Clausen & Gyimóthy, 2016; Cheng et al., 2022). It is for this reason that this paper focuses on understanding the various conceptualisations of sustainable tourism in Greenland, in the hope that this can inform the context-specific transformative tourism solutions that other authors have already called for. In order to understand whether and in what way conceptualisations of sustainable tourism in Greenland conflict with core understandings of sustainable tourism, the following section will review how sustainable tourism is understood according to core or global definitions.

4.3.3 | Core understandings of sustainable tourism

The sustainable tourism literature is extensive; this author's own review of relevant literature found at least 20 overarching definitions of sustainable tourism (see Appendix A for an overview of the definitions). Many overarching definitions of sustainable tourism can be considered to some extent variations on each other, in that they outline a form of tourism which can be maintained indefinitely while preserving or promoting other aspects of the destination (Appendix A).

Where the confusion arises, however, is in which aspects should be preserved or promoted. The most popular aspects, according to the 20 definitions in this review, are the economic, environmental and social aspects. This aligns with the widely employed ‘3-pillar’ model of sustainability.

4.3.4 | *Peripheral understandings of sustainable tourism*

There exist some case studies from other locations which expose tensions around understandings of sustainable tourism and thereby problematise core definitions of the term. Balslev Clausen and Gyimóthy (2016), for example, found two incompatible perspectives on sustainable tourism development among the local community in Álamos, Mexico. Chen (2015) and Wu and Tsai (2016) observed contradictory perspectives on sustainable tourism in their case studies in Arctic Norway and Taiwan, respectively. Sandell (2006) analysed the case of a proposed national park in Sweden that was abandoned, the author argues, due to a clash of cultural perspectives on conservation. Returning to Greenland, Pasgaard and colleagues (2021) argue that there is a disconnect between global and local perceptions of sustainable tourism, and call for the “localising” of sustainable tourism: a process which rescales understandings of sustainable tourism to embrace context-specific destination elements (Pasgaard et al., 2021, p. 10). Heikkinen and colleagues (2020) also highlight the importance of a “context-sensitive perspective” (p. 223) to the development of sustainable tourism in South Greenland. The current study builds on this emerging body of literature by adopting an inductive and context-specific approach to the conceptualisation of sustainable tourism in Greenland, and making room for varied and potentially conflicting perspectives among local community stakeholders, and between perspectives emanating from the core and perspectives emanating from the peripheral locality.

Indeed, the significance of place and context (whether spatial, historical, economic, political, social, cultural, or otherwise) is a prominent theme in the peripherality literature reviewed for this study, and is simultaneously what justifies conducting a place-based case study into the phenomenon of sustainable tourism and how it is perceived and expressed. The current paper aims to offer a “deeper engagement with the specificities of place” (Carson, 2018, p. 740), but also to generate learnings on contestations around sustainable tourism that have implications for other peripheral places.

4.4 | Methods

Data was collected in summer 2020 in the cities of Nuuk and Sisimiut. 39 semi-structured, qualitative interviews were conducted (37 in person and 2 via video call, each lasting 30 – 60 minutes).

Based on the literature review, it was expected that local stakeholder perspectives would transpire to be complex and fragmented. Therefore, an inductive, constructivist approach was chosen, to allow for fresh insights and complex perspectives to come forth (Carr et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2022). This approach avoided the assumption that members of the same stakeholder ‘group’ (e.g. ‘tourists’, ‘residents’, and ‘businesses’) hold homogenous perspectives. A ‘group-based’ approach arguably oversimplifies the study context, since individual stakeholders often belong to numerous ‘groups’ (Poudel et al., 2016), especially in small communities, of which many peripheral destinations are examples. Some studies on sustainable tourism have even found that one individual stakeholder can hold multiple contrasting perspectives on the topic (ibid.; Lindberg et al., 2019). The current study’s inductive, constructivist approach is also relevant in light of the surprising lack of research exploring how sustainable tourism is understood ‘on the ground’, taking departure in local perspectives, as opposed to discussing the concept on a broad, conceptual level.

Greenland's tourism industry is small and tight-knit, and the author's existing contacts made recruiting a representative number of interviewees straightforward. Participants consisted of: 4 national tourism representatives; 3 municipal representatives (defined as people working directly for the municipality); 4 municipal workers (defined as people working for an organisation that is owned or partly owned by the government); 11 local tour operators/accommodation providers; 5 local guides; 2 port agents; 2 local business owners (defined as people running a private business not directly related to tourism); 1 international tour operator; 1 manager from an international advocacy organisation; 1 previous tourist to Greenland and 5 local residents. Local residents were recruited by snowball sampling and door knocking, all other interviewees by email. Participants were selected based on relevance but also with a view to covering every type of local tourism stakeholder and every size of local tourism business found in Greenland. Every stakeholder who showed an interest was interviewed, and informed consent was obtained from each participant. In such a tight-knit community, ethical issues arise regarding anonymity (James et al., 2020). For this reason, participants are not only anonymised, but they are also not numbered, so that two quotations cannot be connected to the same stakeholder, as these linkages could contribute to interviewees being recognised locally.

Each interview took departure in the same predetermined interview guide, which consisted of a few broad and open questions, such as 'What does sustainable tourism mean to you?' and 'What do you think is most important for sustainable tourism development in Greenland?'. As is the nature of semi-structured interviews, new questions emerged throughout the interview, based on each participant's unique responses. Interviews continued until theoretical saturation was reached (Cheng et al., 2022). Thirty interviews were voice recorded and transcribed; 9 participants felt uncomfortable being recorded, so detailed notes were made during and directly after these interviews. Most interviews were

conducted in English; where participants did not feel confident in English, interviews were conducted in Danish. The same interviewees who preferred Danish also declined to be audio recorded, so there are no translations in the quoted data. One interviewee spoke only Greenlandic; in this case, a local interpreter was brought along to translate.

Notes and transcripts were coded using NVivo software. The analysis instrument was developed based on thematic analysis and inspired by Research Question 1: *How is sustainable tourism conceptualised and discussed by local stakeholders in Greenland?* The data was coded in two rounds, with the first coding round designed to reveal how sustainable tourism is *conceptualised* by participants, and the second how sustainable tourism is *discussed*.

The *conceptualisation* of sustainable tourism was analysed by coding the data in two stages. In the first stage, *aspects* of sustainable tourism were drawn out. These were things identified by participants as elements of sustainable tourism as a construct. All *aspects* were then coded again according to the scales of *global* or *local*. These scales were inspired by the literature review, which found that stakeholders often frame sustainable tourism in this way (Niavis et al., 2019). *Global aspects* can apply generally across all destinations (for example, *balance*). *Local aspects* have particular significance to the development of sustainable tourism in the context of Greenland (for example, *fragile nature*). Some aspects were coded as both *global* and *local*. For example, *employment of local people in the tourism industry* can be considered a *global* aspect, since it is relevant everywhere. However, this aspect was identified by interviewees as having specific significance for Greenland, since some saw the number of foreign workers in the industry as a problem. Therefore, this was also coded as a *local* aspect.

The *discussion* around sustainable tourism in Greenland was analysed in a second round of thematic coding, in which the themes

drawn out were points of conflict or debate around how sustainable tourism in Greenland should be understood and developed.

After drafting the paper, it was sent to key interviewees (particularly those who identify as Greenlandic Inuit), and meetings were held with these participants in which the author's interpretations of the interview data were discussed and validated. These meetings did not alter the author's interpretation of the data.

4.5 | *Findings*

The coding process produced 68 aspects of sustainable tourism, illustrating the concept's complexity, even when analysed within one destination. See Appendix B for a table of all aspects identified. Many participants explicitly referred to this complexity during interviews. One municipal representative explained, "Sustainability is a bad word. You can put everything into the word sustainability". This interviewee implies not only that sustainability is an empty signifier, but also that this is a negative thing - that perhaps this ambiguity could be used for manipulative ends. Interviewees discussed sustainable tourism using both *global* and *local* aspects, but it was more common for them to refer to local aspects. This aligns with the findings from the literature review. The following section will examine the themes most frequently occurring in the interview data, and discuss them in relation to core understandings of sustainable tourism. The four most common themes were balance, nature and culture, economy and equality, and health security and resilience.

4.5.1 | *Balance*

In the sustainable tourism literature, 'balance' is a recurring theme, with the term often directly used in definitions (Swarbrooke, 1999; WTO [World Tourism Organisation], 2005). Within 3-pillar models of sustainable tourism, it is often suggested that the distinct pillars can be

‘balanced’ against each other—not necessarily at equal ‘heights’, but at least lent equal importance (ibid.). The notion of balance was also used to describe sustainable tourism by some interviewees in this study. In most cases, it was expressed in relation to numbers:

“Sustainability is about having the right number of people working in the right number of businesses and earning the right amount of money so they can sustain themselves, and so on. So I think, if I should put a sticker on it, it would be very much about balance.”

(Interview with municipal representative)

The suggestion that there is an optimal number of people engaged in the tourism industry aligns somewhat with James and colleagues’ (2020) finding that stakeholders commonly conceptualised sustainable tourism in terms of carrying capacity. Although carrying capacity was specifically mentioned by some interviewees in this study, some also noted that it concentrates purely on environmental and sometimes social impacts, but fails to account for economic and social gains:

“When you get a lot of people, you get a bigger impact on nature. But if you have less tourists, there is less impact on nature but there is less of the economic side for the locals. So it’s a very difficult balance.”

(Interview with municipal representative)

It can, therefore, be argued that balance is more complex and far-reaching than carrying capacity, but also that it is achieved differently in different contexts. This municipal representative leaves a question mark over whether it is possible to achieve balance at all. This can be seen to challenge core understandings of sustainable tourism, which consistently present a ‘balanced’ sustainable tourism landscape as

something positive and achievable. For this local stakeholder, it seems rather that a balanced sustainable tourism landscape represents a trade-off situation, in which one or more groups of stakeholders lose out.

4.5.2 | *Nature and culture*

This topic permeated all interview conversations and sparked considerable debate among participants. Many interviewees saw Greenland as intrinsically connected to the concept of sustainability through its nature and culture:

“I think [sustainability] is actually pretty fundamental for us in Greenland. We have this collective behaviour that we should use the resources in a way that benefits us all. You cannot own property, you cannot own land, everything belongs to us all ... I think it’s very much a part of our culture to have that kind of mindset.”

(Interview with municipal representative)

“We’ve all grown up with the same mythologies about how to keep nature clean and how you’re not supposed to pollute the sea. Our entire culture relies on it.”

(Interview with local guide)

These participants describe powerful and inevitable links between Greenland, its nature, its people, and its culture and myths. They argue that it is inherent in local culture to treat nature in a sustainable way, reflecting a typical Indigenous worldview. However, this connection becomes problematic when compared to core understandings of sustainable tourism, which remain inconsistent in terms of culture’s place in conceptualisations of sustainable tourism. Culture appears

more frequently in more recent definitions of sustainable tourism (Appendix A), suggesting that it is increasingly accepted as an important aspect of the concept. However, there remains disagreement on how it fits in. The data collected for this study suggests that it might be most appropriate to connect culture to the environmental pillar; however, in global definitions, culture appears either as its own dimension, or as part of the social pillar.

The local perspectives revealed in this study were not entirely free of confusion either. Some local stakeholders did not agree that sustainability and the protection of nature should be seen as an inherent part of Greenlandic culture:

“[Older generations of Greenlandic people] have never been educated in taking care of nature like this generation. I went out on the boat with my fiancée and her grandmother and they were having some chocolate. And then the paper from the chocolate was done. And the grandmother, she threw it out in the ocean. I was shocked. I was like, what the fuck just happened? Did she do that?”

(Interview with local tour operator)

This is of course a simplistic and dogmatic perspective, but it nevertheless serves to illustrate the stark contradictions within local stakeholder perspectives regarding sustainability and local culture. While some interviewees use Indigenous forms of governance (like the collective ownership of land) to argue that Greenlanders feel a joint responsibility which is conducive to a sustainable society, for others this form of governance is antithetical to sustainability, as it results in a feeling of entitlement to resources.

Another way in which the interview data seems to contradict core understandings of sustainable tourism concerns the agency of culture as

an aspect of sustainable tourism. Global definitions that feature culture tend to advocate the ‘protection’ of it, framing culture passively (Butler, 1993; Swarbrooke, 1999; Buckley, 2012). However, interviewees in this study often framed it in a different way:

“We’re trying to connect [sustainability] to heritage. An easy example is the way that [Greenlanders] used to use all parts of the animals [they] caught, and to take that concept and transfer it. So what do you do today with the food you eat or the clothes you wear? Where do they come from and how much do you throw out? ... So children can understand that there’s a lot of value in their past, and that some of the things that Greenland has historically been really good at are things that are now valued today.”

(Interview with municipal worker)

This interviewee connects sustainability with Greenlandic cultural heritage by framing culture not only as something that is actively transmitted (rather than passively protected), but as something that others can learn from, and that can add value outside of Greenland. As a result, it is arguably relevant to frame culture or heritage as a key aspect of sustainable tourism in this context, and to avoid discourse that suggests that it is a ‘resource’ to be preserved and protected.

4.5.3 | *Economy and equality*

There was widespread disagreement among interviewees on how economic sustainability should be understood. Some argued that an economically sustainable tourism industry is one that distributes growth fairly across social strata:

“We want our business to grow, of course, but we also want our business to deliver back to the local society ... For example, we don’t operate tours ... If we did, we would earn more money, but it’s not sustainable. We do accommodation and then we partner up with people who do the other stuff... Sustainable tourism is that we keep the money local and we try to spread the money out in the city and not just keep it in the few hands that are very rich.”

(Interview with local accommodation provider)

However, for some participants, ‘spreading money out’ was perceived as a problem:

“The way to get to the decision makers at the cruise ships is very long. And that’s where I see sustainability as a big problem, because a lot of money gets lost between the cruise ships and us as operators - it goes through one, maybe even two companies before it reaches us.”

(Interview with local tour operator)

For this operator, it seems the growth of her own business is the primary concern when it comes to economic sustainability. Other participants had yet another understanding of economically sustainable tourism, which was expressed by one using a contextual aspect of Greenland as a metaphor:

“Tourism can be an extremely important industry for Greenland, but we need it to grow from within ... Everything grows slowly in the Arctic anyway. So why not let the tourism industry grow slowly also, from within?”

(Interview with local tour operator)

Most interviewees advocated economic growth of the tourism sector in some form, although it is clear from this short analysis that the ‘sustainable growth’ logics within tourism in Greenland are complex. Both the *extent* of economic growth (or how widely wealth is distributed) and the *speed* of economic growth are objects of debate. There is yet another dimension to the economic growth debate in Greenland, and this is the political aspect of independence from Denmark. For some, including the operator above, economic growth is tied up with ambitions for future independence; in this way, the economic ‘pillar’ of sustainable tourism in Greenland is intertwined with political issues. This is notable in that the political aspect of sustainable tourism does not play a consistent role in core understandings of the concept.

4.5.4 | *Health security and resilience*

Because interviews were conducted in summer 2020, when Greenland saw a drop in international arrivals of 85% (Statistics Greenland, 2020), the topic of the COVID-19 pandemic was unavoidable. Health security was widely identified as a priority for the development of sustainable tourism. This challenges core understandings of sustainable tourism, since health security does not appear in existing global definitions. This theme demonstrates the influence of temporal context on understandings of sustainable tourism, revealing that different aspects are prioritised at different times. However, there is also an element of spatial context at play here, in that health security is a particular

concern for Greenland (and perhaps for other peripheral destinations) because of the nation's limited healthcare capacity and emergency response infrastructure, and its distance from origin markets. This topic also raised deeper concerns about how sustainability should be conceptualised in tourism:

“[The corona crisis] gives an opportunity to reflect on the kind of company that you are and to realise where your business model is not sustainable. and when I say ‘not sustainable’, I probably actually mean fragile, because this crisis has obviously put you in a situation where your company is threatened.”

(Interview with national tourism representative)

This interviewee interprets an unsustainable tourism business as a ‘fragile’ tourism business, or, in other words, sustainability as resilience. This further problematises core understandings of sustainable tourism, which do not easily allow for concepts such as resilience and fragility.

4.6 Discussion

4.6.1 | Research question one

The literature reviewed on core or global understandings of sustainable tourism generally aligned with the 3-pillar model of sustainability as a way to conceptualise sustainable tourism (Appendix A). The findings of this paper have thrown this 3-pillar model into question somewhat, since perspectives on sustainable tourism have emerged that challenge the model or emphasise elements of the concept that do not correspond to it. Interview participants noted the vague quality of sustainable tourism, the potential for exploitation of the term, and often argued that a search for ‘balance’ is idealistic and futile. There was a consistent

perception that sustainable tourism on the ground involves trade-offs, which result in some goals being down-prioritised. These perspectives align with some of the peripheries literature, which argues that contextual features of peripheral destinations can render sustainable tourism development (according to core understandings) impossible (Cheer et al., 2016; Lasso & Dahles, 2021), and that sustainable tourism solutions should be planned in a context-specific way (Heikkinen et al., 2020; Pasgaard et al., 2021). Indeed, contextual aspects of Greenland (both spatial and temporal) featured heavily in participants' understandings of sustainable tourism in this study. The first part of research question one asks how sustainable tourism is conceptualised by local stakeholders in Greenland. Given the fluidity and complexity described above, it would be misguided to try to outline a definitive conceptualisation of sustainable tourism in the context of Greenland, although Appendix B presents all the elements that were mentioned by participants as factoring into the concept.

The second part of research question one (asking how sustainable tourism is discussed by local stakeholders in Greenland) has partly been answered in the findings section, which analysed in detail the contradictions present in conversations on the topic. Some of the points raised here can be further developed through comparison with existing literature. For example, resilience, or fragility, stood out in the data as a key aspect of sustainable tourism. Cheer and colleagues (2016) explain that peripheral islands are often vulnerable as they are dependent on their core counterparts, but simultaneously that their communities can be resilient since they are used to adapting and surviving through adversity. The COVID-19 pandemic certainly rendered Greenland as a tourism destination severely fragile, since most of its tourists come from the wealthy Western core, and economic inequality and the expense of travelling within Greenland mean that most Greenlanders cannot afford to travel domestically. Greenland tourism's level of resilience, on the other hand, is unclear, as its recovery from the

pandemic is still underway. In discussions around nature, culture and sustainable tourism, some participants expressed a classic Indigenous worldview, which has previously been argued to represent a more constructive approach to achieving sustainable tourism (as globally defined) (Carr et al., 2016; Barbieri et al., 2020). However, some interviewees rather saw an Indigenous worldview as leading to an entitled use of resources, a perception which has also previously been noted in the literature (Kaae, 2006). Some literature suggests that co-production between Western knowledge and Indigenous knowledge can illuminate successful paths towards sustainable development (Hill et al., 2020; Lam et al., 2020), but these solutions tend to be based on a clear dichotomy between Western and Indigenous perspectives, and, at least according to the findings of this study, such a straightforward dichotomy cannot be found.

4.6.2 | Research question two

The first part of research question two asks how the study's findings challenge core understandings of sustainable tourism. Although this paper took departure in a basic conflict between core and peripheral understandings of sustainable tourism, this has been revealed to be too simple an approach. The data exposes numerous contrasting perspectives among the local community, some of them quite dramatic. In terms of economic sustainability in particular, some local tour operators prioritise minimising inequality, others prioritise shortening supply chains and maximising their business' revenue, while others prioritise the general growth of the tourism industry in the hope of progress towards political independence. Naturally, these perspectives need contextualising in terms of each speaker's positioning, and it is perhaps unsurprising that it is some of the industry's more dominant, private players whose perception of economic sustainability is primarily profit-based. However, what this does demonstrate is that within the peripheral destination of Greenland, there has been room for some local

stakeholders to dominate the tourism industry, in a similar way to how core-periphery dynamics are depicted in the literature. This raises the question of whether we can identify core-periphery dynamics *within* the periphery: in other words, do some local stakeholders represent core perspectives even though they live, work and own businesses in the periphery? And do they, in turn, further ‘peripherise’ smaller local tourism stakeholders?

However, it is not always with market domination aims that the more powerful stakeholders in Greenland resist the global core. Among the larger public players in tourism, the national and regional DMOs, there are emerging efforts to leverage a Greenlandic interpretation of sustainable tourism, to add uniqueness and visibility to Greenland as a destination. Indeed, Greenland’s capital city of Nuuk recently caused a stir in the Danish media as it became the world’s first capital city to be certified as a sustainable tourism destination (Earthcheck, 2021). Allowances were made for failures to meet some criteria based on contextual features, such as Nuuk’s remoteness and its cold climate (ibid.). Nevertheless, questions were raised in Danish media over how Nuuk can be declared sustainable when it has greenhouse gas emissions that are twice the global average (Dueholm, 2021). Despite the critique, this example demonstrates that there is space within peripheral destinations for certain stakeholders to seize some power and agency, and at least present their own understandings of sustainable tourism. Whether or not this case represents a step towards liberation from Greenland’s existing core-periphery relationship with Denmark is hard to say, since it is the Danish media which has narrated the story to a larger audience on a more influential stage, and their account is underlined with criticism.

The second part of research question two asks how this research can benefit other peripheral destinations. The issues that shape interviewees’ perceptions of sustainable tourism in Greenland are ones to which many other peripheral destinations can inevitably relate; for

example, other (post)colonial nations may struggle with debates about political independence, and other destinations in the Global South might find that inequality polarises stakeholders' perceptions of sustainable tourism. Kulusjärvi (2017) and Scheyvens et al. (2021) recognise similar multiplicities of local perspectives and the marginalisation of less powerful tourism stakeholders, calling for partnerships across stakeholders as a 'pathway' towards sustainable tourism. Coincidentally, perhaps, some of the suggested solutions towards sustainable tourism in peripheral areas are also solutions which are likely to result directly in business growth, such as countering seasonality (Rantala et al., 2019), while for other initiatives, such as sharing wealth across local society, the commercial benefits are less obvious. Focusing on the 'win-win' solutions can indeed highlight promising pathways for the future. However, collaborations are unlikely to remain watertight in scenarios in which powerful players find that sustainability aims do not align with their business aims.

What has begun to emerge in the current study is a complication of the core-periphery model when it comes to conceptualising sustainable tourism in Greenland. In other words, the lack of coherence in conceptualisations of sustainable tourism in Greenland may partly be explained by the complexity of the core-periphery dynamics at play.

Greenland fits the classic core-periphery model in the sense that, as a nation, it is locked in an unequal relationship with Denmark. However, sustainable tourism is scarcely relevant at this scale of core-periphery relations, because Greenland's Self-Government largely ignores tourism in favour of the much more developed fishing industry. Within tourism, Greenland's larger public players have been seen to perform their own core-periphery relationship with Denmark in that they attempt to express a sustainability-based tourism narrative but fail to be taken seriously because of the power and influence of the core's critique. Simultaneously, there are larger private tourism stakeholders who enjoy a core-periphery relationship with Denmark in that they successfully

express a business-focused sustainability narrative and attract custom from the core. The smaller and less powerful private tourism stakeholders are very diverse, with some of them expressing support for the public tourism authorities in their sustainability aims, and some of them attaching their sustainable tourism narratives to the Self-Government's ambitions for independence. Still others are dependent on the larger tourism enterprises who represent their connection to the consumer-producing core, thereby arguably recreating a core-periphery dynamic within the periphery.

These considerations are to some extent reminiscent of observations made by Kulusjärvi (2017), that alternative pathways, or in the case of this study, alternative conceptualisations, may exist and even be locally acknowledged, yet remain unable to have a direct influence on destination-scale decision-making. Kulusjärvi goes on to suggest, however, that these alternative perspectives can have an *indirect* impact, in that the lack of participation of some stakeholders weakens dominant processes. In a core-periphery relationship, however, this is unlikely to be the case, since peripheral lack of participation is arguably the norm, and is, therefore, likely to go unnoticed. Indeed, although power dynamics are at play in tourism landscapes everywhere, they are perhaps more “pressing” in peripheral areas (Cheer et al., 2022, p. 497), as the power dynamics seen in these destinations may be more exaggerated or damaging than in core destinations.

4.7 | Conclusion

This paper set out to expose the various conceptualisations of sustainable tourism within a peripheral destination like Greenland. The objective was to compare these conceptualisations to core understandings of sustainable tourism, and explore how these findings can inform tourism development in other peripheral areas. A review of relevant literature argued that peripheral perspectives on sustainable tourism can be complex and context-dependent. This inspired an

inductive, constructivist approach to data collection, which exposed intricate debates around sustainable tourism in Greenland. The findings section explored the various perspectives and debates in detail, and compared them with core definitions, but outlining a definitive conceptualisation of sustainable tourism in Greenland was deemed futile. This supports existing literature which argues that global sustainable tourism goals are unrealistic for some peripheral destinations (Lindberg et al., 2019; Heikkinen et al., 2020; Pasgaard et al., 2021). In terms of informing tourism development in peripheral destinations in general, the study adds depth to our understanding of core-periphery dynamics in peripheral tourism industries, which can help policy-makers and practitioners to better manage tourism and to include marginalised perspectives in making decisions or setting goals towards a more comprehensively beneficial tourism landscape. On an academic level, the paper highlights the importance of taking an inductive approach to investigating local perspectives, and deepens understandings of how core-periphery dynamics can shape the way people perceive phenomena and imagine solutions to problems.

Future research in Greenland should engage international tourism stakeholders and stakeholders outside of tourism, to further explore these core-periphery dynamics and investigate the possibility of finding a common pathway towards a tourism landscape that is optimal for everyone. Similar research should also be conducted in other peripheral destinations to reveal more about the complexities of core-periphery relationships and their impact on sustainable tourism development.

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Appendix A | Review of definitions of sustainable tourism

Year	Author(s)	Definition / Conceptualisation
1991	Inskoop	5 criteria: economic, environmental, social, visitor satisfaction, global justice and equity
1993	Butler	Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area in such a way that it remains viable over an infinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes
1995	World Travel & Tourism Council	4 dimensions: economic, ecological, social, cultural
1996	Coccosis	4 interpretations: sectoral (e.g. economic), ecological, long-term viability, tourism as part of a strategy for broader sustainable development
1996	Bramwell	7 dimensions: environmental, cultural, political, economic, social, managerial, governmental
1997	McMinn	Tourism development should have economic advantages, create social benefits for the local community and not harm the natural environment. These goals should apply to future generations as well as present
1998	World Tourism Organisation	Tourism that meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future
1999	Swarbrooke	Tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community
2000	Sharpley	2 definitions exist: 'tourism-centric' (tourism as an economic activity) & tourism as an element of broader sustainable development. 3 fundamental principles: holism, futurity, equity

2000	Ritchie & Crouch	4 pillars: economic, environmental, socio-cultural, political
2003	Liu	Requires both the sustainable growth of tourism's contribution to the economy and society and the sustainable use of resources and the environment
2005	World Tourism Organisation	Tourism that is based on the principles of sustainable development - i.e. the three pillars: economic, environmental, socio-cultural
2009	Timur & Getz	3 goals: economic, environmental & sociocultural, experiential
2012	Buckley	5 themes: population, peace, prosperity, pollution, protection
2014	Saarinen	3 traditions: activity-based (industry-oriented), resource-based, community-based (limits to growth are socially constructed)
2016	Budeanu et al.	4 themes: community and stakeholder perspectives, business approaches, cultural perspectives, methodological challenges
2017	UNWTO	5 pillars: inclusive and sustainable economic growth, social inclusiveness, employment and poverty reduction, resource efficiency, environmental protection and climate change, cultural values, diversity and heritage, mutual understanding, peace and security
2017	Bramwell et al.	4 themes: social, cultural, economic, political
2018	Pan et al.	4 aspects: environmental, economic, social, cultural
2019	Ruhanen et al.	Preservation of ecosystems and biodiversity, promotion of human welfare and inter- and intra-cultural equity, public participation in tourism-related decision-making and access by all stakeholders to socio-cultural tourism outcomes

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Appendix B | Aspects of sustainable tourism in Greenland – identified in the empirical data

Global Aspects	Local Aspects	Global & Local Aspects
Resilience	Seasonality of tourism	COVID-19: Health security
Benefit locals/Community wellbeing	Protect unique, untouched nature and wildlife	Economic growth
Mutual exchange, trust	Evidence of climate change	Grow the industry slowly
Respect	Developing nation, Recent colonial history	Expert knowledge, guiding
Maintaining culture, traditions, heritage	COVID-19: Tourism industry fragile	Money spent locally
Environmental protection, compensation	Spread tourism across GL	Economic equality/Fair distribution
Balance	Flexibility in employment, skills	Protection of nature
Viability, Time, Long-lasting	Lack of education, training	Diversified economy
Power, Right, Courage to decide	Undeveloped, untouched	Local people educated, trained
COVID-19: Operators forced to think creatively	Fragile nature and communities	Guidelines
Hospitality	Sustainability not concretised/relatable for operators	COVID-19: Survival prioritised, sustainability down-prioritised
Quality, Visitor experience	Able to locally source organic products	Local people employed
Dynamic	Technology not advanced enough	Certification
Openness	COVID-19: Small group numbers preferred	Regulations
Value creation	Locally sourced products	Storytelling, Meaning,

		Knowledge-sharing
Philanthropy	Humanise the destination	Management of expectations
Dialogue, Communication, Interaction	Lack of governmental direction	COVID-19: Local community realises importance of tourism
COVID-19: More connection between people	Safety	
COVID-19: More single-use and waste	Local infrastructure improved	
Pride, Confidence, Identity, Values	Cultural uniqueness	
COVID-19: Operators have more time to consider sustainability	Geography	
Community engagement	Use possibilities in nature	
Responsibility, Consideration	Arctic conditions	
	Lack of regulations	
	Contextual paradoxes	
	Economy - profitable	
	Small, disconnected operators, Lack of collaboration	
	Managing visitor numbers	

Chapter 5 | Paper Two

Gratitude, Entitlement and Sustainable Tourist Behaviour

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Abstract

To encourage sustainable behaviour change in tourism, it is necessary to understand its psychological antecedents. Many of these antecedents, however, are still unknown. This study investigates the role of the emotional constructs of gratitude and entitlement in explaining sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, a remote and fragile destination where individual behaviour change is particularly important. Drawing on qualitative interviews with previous tourists to Greenland and industry experts, our conceptual model proposes that gratitude and entitlement have mediating effects on the relationships between tourist motivations and in-destination sustainable tourist behaviours. Using survey data collected with previous tourists to Greenland, we test our conceptual model using partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). Our results reveal that gratitude, entitlement and tourist motivations relate to sustainable tourist behaviour in different and sometimes opposing ways, depending on the type of sustainable tourist behaviour. This study contributes theoretically by beginning to uncover the role of the emotional constructs of gratitude and entitlement in sustainable tourist behaviour, and by nuancing current conceptualisations of sustainable tourist behaviour. The study proposes a novel typology of sustainable tourist behaviour that can be used by destination managers to market to the tourist segments that are most beneficial to their destination.

Keywords

Entitlement, gratitude, PLS-SEM, sustainable tourist behaviour, motivations, emotions

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5.1 | *Introduction*

Fostering sustainable tourist behaviour is crucial to achieving sustainable tourism practices, but particularly difficult to explain and predict (Budeanu, 2007; Juvan & Dolnicar, 2016). The psychological antecedents to sustainable tourist behaviour are numerous, nuanced, and certainly not all known. It is the aim of the current study to develop and understand antecedents of sustainable tourist behaviour. This is done using a mixed-methods research approach consisting of preliminary qualitative interviews with tourists and industry experts, followed by a large-scale quantitative survey analysed using partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM).

Our preliminary qualitative research suggested that tourists' experiences of gratitude and entitlement may play an intriguing role in explaining their in-destination (un)sustainable behaviour. If these constructs offer insights into the psychological processes underlying sustainable tourist behaviour, they have potential to be operationalised as behavioural interventions to reduce damaging tourist behaviours and encourage positive ones. Since these constructs are hardly covered by existing research in tourism, the present study aims to explore their relationships with sustainable tourist behaviours, and test their mediating effects on relationships between tourist motivations and their self-reported in-destination behaviours. We do this using a quantitative survey that received 1,058 responses from previous visitors to Greenland.

The geographical context of this study is Greenland: a remote tourism destination offering unique and spectacular pull factors, including calving glaciers, rare megafauna, and unusual natural phenomena. However, being located in the Arctic, Greenland has an exceptionally fragile landscape, and many of its small communities struggle with social issues which mean that tourism management is often not prioritised and international leisure arrivals are not always

managed in the most beneficial way. In a context like this, where human resources, financial resources and political attention to tourism are insufficient, understanding the antecedents that can foster behavioural changes on the consumer level is arguably especially important.

5.2 | *Conceptual model development*

5.2.1 | *Emotional experiences of being in Greenland*

Before developing the conceptual model and hypotheses, we conducted 10 exploratory qualitative interviews with previous tourists to Greenland, each interview lasting between 30 and 60 minutes. The aim of this preliminary study was to inspire more specific research questions and highlight relevant survey items. Based on a semi-structured interview guide, interviewees were asked about their motivations for visiting Greenland, their tendencies as a tourist, their sustainability values, their behaviour, activities and emotional experiences while being in Greenland, and their perceptions of Greenland as a destination. Interviews were voice-recorded, transcribed and analysed using Nvivo software to draw out themes relevant to the study aim.

In preliminary interviews, participants tended to discuss their emotional experiences of being in Greenland in two different ways. Some conveyed a sense of entitlement or privilege, or observed this in other tourists (*“They just walked around with their [...] bravado like they came to own the place. They were superior. Everyone was there to entertain and be the spectacle for them”* Interviewee 2). Other interviewees expressed the significance of their trip through a kind of gratitude, either because it was something that had previously seemed unachievable (*“I never thought that it was a place available to go to”* Interviewee 6), or because the experience itself was humbling (*“Any ideas you came with, I somehow think they fall away once you are there*

and you hear the ice breaking, or see an iceberg flip. You really feel that you relinquish all control” Interviewee 7). We name these emotional constructs *entitlement* and *gratitude*, respectively.

A focus on tourist emotions is relevant to sustainable tourist behaviour because emotions have been argued to be a crucial yet neglected variable in tourist decision-making (Buda et al., 2014; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022; Xiong et al., 2023). The tourist experience is largely situated in the realm of the emotional (MacCannell, 2013; Buda et al., 2014), and as a result, emotions can have implications for how tourists behave, especially in terms of sustainable behaviours (Nawijn & Biran, 2019; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022; Xiong et al., 2023). Recently, scholars have called for research to move beyond the overstudied emotions of tourist satisfaction and loyalty, to explore specific emotions which may influence sustainable tourist behaviour (Nawijn & Biran, 2019; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022). Nevertheless, the focus tends to be on emotions that are directly linked to sustainability concerns, such as guilt, sadness or fear about the climate crisis (Juvan and Dolnicar; 2014; León & Araña, 2016; Nawijn & Biran, 2019). Less is known about the impacts of emotions triggered by the tourist experience itself. This knowledge could enable tourism practitioners to design products and experiences in ways that trigger emotions that encourage sustainable behaviour, or reduce emotions that discourage sustainable behaviour.

The emotional experiences of *gratitude* and *entitlement*, which emerged from our preliminary interviews, are examples of specific, felt emotions that can be triggered by the tourism experience itself. Although we do not find these constructs already operationalised in the tourism literature, there is evidence of similar constructs in other fields, which we use to develop them for the tourism context in this study.

5.2.1.1 | *Entitlement*

In psychology, entitlement refers to a feeling of deserving special treatment or more resources, rewards or benefits than others (Campbell et al., 2004; O'Brien et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2017). Although it is rooted in narcissism (Butori, 2010), it is not regarded as a clinical disorder, and is arguably found in everyone to different extents (O'Brien et al., 2011). Boyd and Helms (2005) developed entitlement as a construct in the consumer context. They define consumer entitlement as “the extent to which a customer expects special treatment in retail environments” (Boyd & Helms, 2005, p. 271). Although Boyd and Helms (2005) examined entitlement as a stable trait, it has also been argued to be a state: in other words, by the same person, it can be felt to different degrees in different situations (O'Brien et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2017). Entitlement as a ‘situational state’ is particularly relevant for the tourism context, since holidays often represent the culmination of one’s working year, and an opportunity to let loose and enjoy time off that feels ‘earned’ (Vaske et al., 2015; Pearce, 2019).

Some previous research has hinted at a relationship between entitlement (or similar constructs) and sustainable tourist behaviour, although to our knowledge this relationship has not been systematically tested. Pearce (2019), although he did not operationalise the concept of entitlement, did link it specifically to unsustainable tourist behaviour, using it to characterise tourists who expect to be able to eat food from their home country in all destinations and at all times of the year. Naderi and Strutton (2014) found inverse relationships between narcissism and pro-environmental consumption. According to Canavan (2017), narcissists experience disassociation from cultural and natural landscapes, and lack concern for the natural world or for others’ wellbeing, leading to selfish, unethical and harmful behaviours. In an experimental commons dilemma in which participants made decisions on how to harvest a resource, highly entitled individuals prioritised short-term personal gains over harvesting the resource sustainably

(Campbell et al., 2004). Qualitative research has also speculated on this relationship, arguing that entitled tourists will happily consume resources without considering limits (Miller et al., 2010), or their impact on the environment (Perkins & Brown, 2012). Based on existing literature, we expect that the level of felt entitlement among tourists will be negatively related to sustainable tourist behaviour.

H1: The emotional state of entitlement is negatively related to sustainable tourist behaviour.

5.2.1.2 | *Gratitude*

Similarly to entitlement, gratitude has been conceptualised as both a stable trait and an emotional state (Wood et al., 2008). Existing literature characterising gratitude as a state describes it as an emotional response to receiving kindness from others (Emmons et al., 2003; Tu & Ma, 2022), or as an urge to ‘give back’ to the individual who has provided the perceived benefits (Wetzel et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2018). Along similar lines, the scant research that situates gratitude in tourism conceptualises it as connected to host-guest encounters (Stanford, 2008; Filep et al., 2017; Tu & Ma, 2022). In the context of sustainable tourist behaviour, it is necessary to consider whether gratitude can be felt towards a travel experience or destination, rather than towards a person. Emmons et al. (2003) argue that gratitude can be directed more generally: towards, for example, life, nature, God, and animals. We propose, therefore, that if a tourist feels grateful for benefits received from a travel experience in a particular place, they may feel an urge to engage in reciprocal behaviours that are beneficial to that place. Tu and Ma (2022) found that gratitude mediated the positive relationship between positive contact between residents and tourists and tourists’ environmentally responsible behaviour. Reciprocity has also been linked to responsible tourist behaviour by Stanford (2008), who observed that mutual care between hosts and visitors is leveraged by

tourism stakeholders in New Zealand to encourage responsible tourist behaviour. Based on this literature, we expect that gratitude will be positively related to sustainable tourist behaviour.

H2: The emotional state of gratitude is positively related to sustainable tourist behaviour.

Wetzel et al. (2014) argue that gratitude and entitlement “counterbalance each other’s effects” (p. 5) and, in the domain of tourism specifically, Canavan (2017) frames entitlement in opposition to ‘community’, which encompasses relationships between people and landscapes. These arguments support our expectation that entitlement and gratitude will have opposing effects on sustainable tourist behaviour. However, it may be misleading to conceptualise entitlement and gratitude as mutually exclusive emotions. It has been argued that ‘giving back’ to a tourist destination is not entirely altruistic; voluntourists or ecotourists, for example, may be motivated by an expectation of praise or improved self-image (Ooi & Laing, 2010; Grimm & Needham, 2011). As a result, although we expect entitlement to negatively influence sustainable behaviours and gratitude to positively influence them, we suspect that the two constructs do not necessarily cancel each other out, and that individuals may experience both simultaneously.

5.2.2 | *Sustainable tourist behaviour*

In existing literature, sustainable tourist behaviour is conceptualised in various ways. This is unsurprising, given its many different types, its context-specificity (Stanford, 2008), and the difficulty of observing it directly and objectively. Existing understandings of sustainable tourist behaviour are often based only on one ‘pillar’ of sustainability, and most commonly the environmental one (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Kastenholz et al., 2018). Kastenholz et al. (2018) argue that this approach neglects the interdependencies of sustainability’s various

dimensions. Previous research on the conceptualisation of sustainable tourism in Greenland has argued that it is counter-productive to isolate certain ‘pillars’ of sustainability in this context, and that culture is an integral aspect of sustainable tourism in Greenland (Cooper, 2023). For this reason, we conceptualise sustainable behaviour in this study holistically, encompassing environmental, social, economic, and cultural aspects.

There is evidence to suggest that sustainable tourism is complex and multi-dimensional, even at the individual level: i.e. tourists can perform well in some areas of sustainable behaviour, while simultaneously performing badly in other areas (Stanford, 2008). Similarly, Juvan & Dolnicar (2017) found that different pro-environmental tourist behaviours are driven by different cognitive mechanisms. In other contexts, it is indeed different groups of consumers who engage in different types of sustainable consumption behaviour (Stern, 2000; Hauser et al., 2013). Based on this previous research, we expect that, when examining sustainable tourist behaviour holistically, we will see psychological drivers having diverse influences on different types of in-destination sustainable tourist behaviours. Based on 39 expert interviews among tourism stakeholders in Greenland (Cooper, 2023), and the aforementioned inapplicability of the ‘3-pillar’ model, we conceptualised in-destination sustainable tourist behaviour as consisting of four ‘types’: *preserve nature*, active engagement with culture (hereafter referred to as *active culture*), *local purchasing*, and *conscious provider choice*. To explore whether these different behaviour types relate differently to the same psychological constructs, we developed four conceptual models, each identical except for the target variables (Figure 5.1).

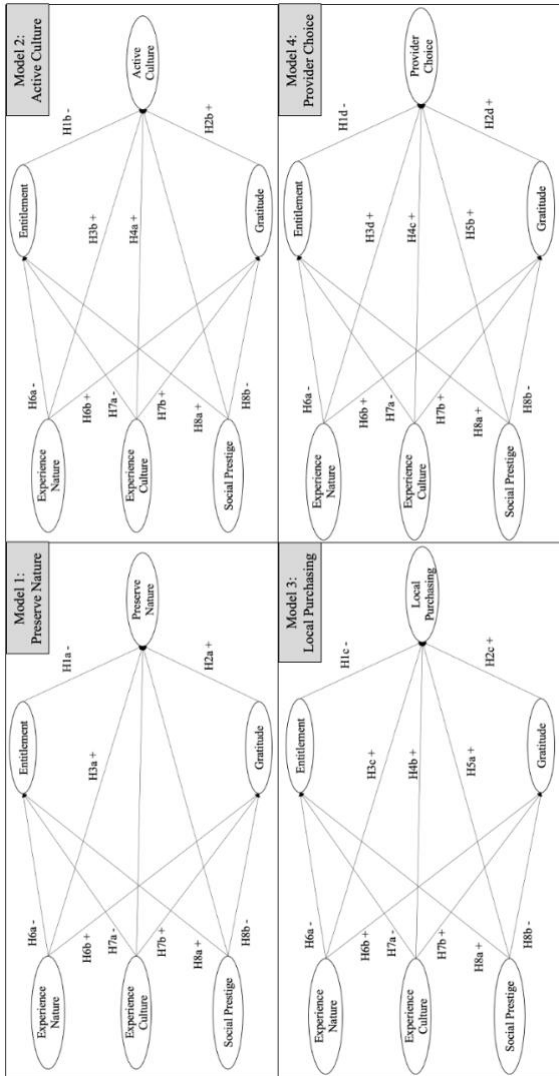


Figure 5.1 | Conceptual models and hypotheses.

5.2.3 | *Motivations to go to Greenland and sustainable tourist behaviour*

It is generally accepted that tourist motivations can be important antecedents of sustainable tourist behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994). In line with this, preliminary interview participants indicated that their motivations for visiting Greenland were connected to feelings of entitlement, gratitude, and their in-destination behaviours. Therefore, we included motivations as independent variables in our model. As is common practice (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011), we selected motivations specifically for this study, based on our preliminary interview data and existing literature. The chosen motivations are therefore relevant for travellers to Greenland and are expected to have a relationship with sustainable behaviour. We were conscious to limit the number of motivations to avoid an unmanageable number of paths in the model. The three motivations included as independent variables are *experience nature*, *experience culture* and *social prestige*.

5.2.3.1 | *Experience nature*

The *experience nature* motivation (also referred to as nature-seeking, or nature-based motivation) refers to a drive to witness a destination's natural landscape, or to engage in nature-based activities there. This is the motivation in our model that is most frequently linked to sustainable tourist behaviour in existing research, although this literature remains inconsistent. The most common conclusion on the relationship between nature-seeking motivations and sustainable tourist behaviour is that it is positive; in other words, the more motivated a tourist is to experience nature, the more likely they are to engage in sustainable tourist behaviours (Dodds & Joppe, 2009; Fung & Jim, 2015; Falk & Hagsten, 2019; Lee & Jan, 2019; Kanza et al., 2020). These studies almost exclusively measure pro-environmental behaviours, except for Kanza et al. (2020), whose measure of *willingness to support sustainable tourism*

includes environmental, economic and social factors. Although the conflation of nature interest and nature conservation has been questioned by some scholars, who point out that an interest in nature can result in tourists getting closer to it and disturbing it more (Alessa et al., 2003; Dolnicar et al., 2008), there is much more evidence for a positive relationship between nature-seeking motivations and sustainable behaviours. Therefore, we hypothesise a positive relationship between *experience nature* and *preserve nature*. Given there is also evidence of positive relationships between nature-seeking and other types of sustainable tourist behaviour (Kanza et al., 2020), we also hypothesise positive relationships between this motivation and the other dependent variables.

H3: The experience nature motivation is positively related to preserve nature behaviours (H3a), active culture behaviours (H3b), local purchasing behaviours (H3c), and conscious provider choice (H3d).

5.2.3.2 | *Experience culture*

The *experience culture* motivation (also referred to as culture-seeking or cultural motivation) describes a drive to witness local culture, typically cultures that are different to one's own. The literature on relationships between culture-seeking motivations and sustainable tourist behaviour is limited, but to our knowledge only positive relationships have been suggested to date (Pearce, 1995; Dolnicar et al., 2008; Hennessy et al., 2014). This literature focuses less on pro-environmental behaviours and more on specific socio-economically sustainable behaviours. For example, Hennessy et al. (2014) found that culture-seeking tourists spend more money, stay longer, interact more with local residents, and engage in more cultural activities, while McKercher (2002) found that cultural tourists immerse themselves more in local culture. Based on this evidence, we hypothesise positive relationships between *experience culture* and all behavioural variables except *preserve nature*. We will investigate the relationship between

experience culture and *preserve nature* with an exploratory approach, given that there is no existing evidence to support a relationship here.

H4: The experience culture motivation is positively related to active culture behaviours (H4a), local purchasing behaviours (H4b), and conscious provider choice (H4c).

5.2.3.3 | *Social prestige*

Social prestige is a relevant motivation for the geographical context of this study because it has been argued to be a driver of long-haul travel to ‘exotic’ (Correia & Moital, 2009) and ‘disappearing’ destinations (Hindley & Font, 2018). This motivation is less established in the literature, although there have been attempts to conceptualise and operationalise it over the last two decades (Correia & Moital, 2009; Lee & Jan, 2019). *Social prestige* as a tourist motivation denotes a perception that engaging in a particular travel experience will improve one’s social reputation (Correia & Moital, 2009). In the literature, this motivation is often linked to Veblen’s (1899) theory of conspicuous consumption, which he defined as a leisure-based activity used to display wealth or social status. Inspired by conspicuous consumption, social prestige, and the increasing influence of social media on travel activities, Boley et al. (2018) developed the concept of social return. Social return has particular relevance to Greenland since it is assumed that tourism experiences that are rare, exclusive or expensive lend tourists prestige (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999; Correia & Moital, 2009; Boley et al., 2018).

In relation to sustainable tourist behaviour, social return has been revealed to predict tourists choosing local accommodation providers (Boley & Woosnam, 2020), visiting local craft breweries (Bachman et al., 2021), and engaging in ecotourism (Beall et al., 2021). The latter finding is explained by the argument that the sustainable image of ecotourism is status-enhancing for tourists whose self-concept or the attitudes of their peers aligns with this image (ibid.). Despite being

linked to conspicuous consumption, which implies self-indulgence, we found no studies exposing a negative relationship between social prestige and in-destination sustainable tourist behaviours. Based on the studies mentioned above, we propose *social prestige* has a positive relationship with *local purchasing* and *conscious provider choice*. The relationships between *social prestige* and *active culture* as well as *preserve nature* will be examined in an exploratory manner.

H5: The social prestige motivation is positively related to local purchasing behaviours (H5a) and conscious provider choice (H5b).

5.2.4 | *The mediating roles of gratitude and entitlement*

There are no studies to our knowledge that statistically test the link between travel motivations and the constructs of *gratitude* and *entitlement* or similar emotional constructs. However, our qualitative interviews and the literature mentioned above suggest that the *experience nature* and *experience culture* motivations are connected to a concern for, and an urge to appreciate, local nature and culture at the destination. Since our literature review also suggests that *gratitude* entails care for the destination, and *entitlement* is connected to narcissism (and therefore a greater concern for oneself than the external environment), we expect that *experience nature* and *experience culture* will be positively related to *gratitude* and negatively related to *entitlement*. *Social prestige*, as previously implied, is an egoistic motivation and, therefore, would conceivably be positively related to *entitlement* and negatively related to *gratitude*.

H6: The experience nature motivation is negatively related to entitlement and (H6a) positively related to gratitude (H6b).

H7: The experience culture motivation is negatively related to entitlement and (H7a) positively related to gratitude (H7b).

H8: The social prestige motivation is positively related to entitlement and (H8a) negatively related to gratitude (H8b).

In this way, we conceptualise *gratitude* and *entitlement* as mediators between our independent variables and our dependent variables. Previous quantitative studies on sustainable tourist behaviour have found that emotional constructs can act as mediators. For example, Xiong et al. (2023) found that the emotions of awe and worry are mediators of the relationship between environmental concern and tourists' environmentally responsible behaviours.

5.3 | *Methods*

5.3.1 | *Sampling and data collection*

In cooperation with a travel agency that exclusively sells tours to Greenland, we offered as a financial incentive a 20,000 DKK (approximately 2,700 EUR) voucher to use with this travel agency. In summer 2022, a survey link was sent out to newsletter recipients of the travel agency and of Greenland's national tourism board. The survey was developed in English and translated into Danish and German, to correspond to the language versions of both newsletters. Translations were conducted by a professional academic translation service and checked by native speakers to ensure that meanings remained consistent.

Since there was a financial incentive for survey participation, we did not attempt to restrict respondents, because this could lead to participants lying to have a chance of winning the voucher. Rather, we designed the survey so that anyone could participate, and respondents were sent along different 'branches' depending on whether they had been to Greenland before, whether they had travelled for leisure or business, and whether they were a resident of Greenland. At the end of every 'branch' was an opportunity to enter the prize draw. This

removed any incentive to lie about whether participants had been on holiday to Greenland.

After filtering responses to include only previous tourists to Greenland (1,259 responses), we deleted 72 unfinished responses and 129 responses that failed both attention check questions (leaving us with 1,058 responses). Table 5.1 shows the demographic characteristics of respondents. That almost 75% of respondents are over 55, almost 40% have a graduate degree, and almost 70% live in Denmark, is not surprising, as this is highly representative of visitors to Greenland (Visit Greenland, 2022).

Gender	N	%
Male	445	42
Female	592	56
Prefer to self-describe	6	0.6
Prefer not to say	15	1.4
Total	1058	100
Country of residence	N	%
Denmark	735	69.5
Germany	79	7.5
USA	40	3.8
UK	37	3.5
Canada	17	1.6
Switzerland	16	1.5
Norway	15	1.4
France	15	1.4
Australia	11	1
Sweden	11	1
Other	82	7.8
Total	1058	100
Age	N	%
18-24	1	0.1
25-34	60	5.7
35-44	88	8.3
45-54	117	11
55-64	255	24.1
65+	537	50.8
Total	1058	100
Highest education level	N	%
Did not finish secondary school	9	0.9
Secondary school	78	7.4
Vocational qualification	341	32.2
Bachelor's degree	177	16.7
Graduate/professional degree	421	39.8
Prefer not to say	32	3
Total	1058	100

Table 5.1 | Demographic characteristics of respondents.

5.3.2 | *Construct measurement*

All survey items and their sources can be seen in Appendix C. Where possible, motivation items were taken from existing scales and adapted to the context of Greenland. Where a relevant item was not found in previous literature, we developed it using quotes from our preliminary interviews. Motivations were measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from Not at all important to Extremely important. Previous literature offers some scales measuring consumer entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004; Butori, 2010), which we adapted to the context of Greenland where they aligned with our preliminary interview data. To measure gratitude, we used a validated 3-item scale by Emmons et al. (2003), which we adapted to refer to Greenland. Entitlement and gratitude were measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly disagree to Strongly agree. To mitigate social desirability bias when measuring entitlement, the relevant section of the questionnaire opened with: “There is no right or wrong answer - only your personal opinion and experiences matter. Please answer each question carefully and truthfully. All responses will be treated anonymously.” Also, we placed the entitlement question before the gratitude question, to avoid priming respondents to feel grateful for their experiences before responding about entitlement.

The in-destination sustainable tourist behaviours we measure are behaviours that are carried out in the destination, and which have a positive or mitigative impact on Greenland’s local environment, economy, society or culture. The items were developed and sorted into four groups based on previous expert interviews around sustainable tourism in Greenland (Cooper, 2023). The items and groupings were then confirmed or adapted based on feedback from employees in Greenland’s national tourism board. Engagement in each behaviour was self-reported by survey participants on a 5-point frequency scale, ranging from Never to Always. We rely on self-reported past behaviours, as it is not feasible to objectively observe all relevant

behaviours of an appropriately large sample of tourists travelling in Greenland. Self-reported behaviours are vulnerable to misremembrance, social desirability bias and subjectivity bias (Kormos & Gifford, 2014). Therefore, we avoided labelling the behaviours as sustainable; rather, we asked participants whether or not they “engaged in the following activities” or “did the following things” while in Greenland.

The survey was piloted among employees in Greenland’s tourism industry and previous visitors to Greenland. This resulted in changes to the wording of some questions and items, and shortening of the questionnaire to minimise respondent fatigue. After data collection, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis on the behavioural items using SPSS. This confirmed the four behavioural subgroups already developed, and confirmed our expectation that there are indeed relatively distinct groups of tourists engaging in different types of sustainable behaviours. Our final four behaviour groups and their items can be seen in Table 5.2.

Preserving Nature	Getting very close to wildlife (reversed)
	Straying off the path when walking in nature (reversed)
Active Engagement with Culture	Learning about local customs, culture and history
	Seeking out 'everyday' situations, where I am likely to come into contact with local people, or experience everyday life
Local Purchasing Behaviours	Interacting with local people on a social level (more than a service-based interaction)
	Buying a locally-produced souvenir
Conscious Provider Choice	Eating locally-sourced food
	Choosing an accommodation/tour provider which I know is locally-owned
	Choosing an accommodation/tour provider which I know has a low environmental impact

Table 5.2 | Behavioural typology. Behaviours measured from 1 = *Never* to 5 = *Always*.

5.3.3 | *Data analysis and model estimation*

To estimate the models, we used PLS-SEM, a multivariate statistical analysis technique. This method allows us to assess causal-predictive relationships in models, facilitating theory development and testing (Sarstedt et al., 2014). PLS-SEM evaluates the strength of predictive constructs' impact on target constructs, and is suitable for assessing the generalisability of hypothesised relationships in composite-based models (Rigdon et al., 2017), such as the models used in the present study. This technique is well-established in the social sciences, including in studies on tourist behaviour (e.g. Barnes et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2019; Sembada & Kalantari, 2021). As the goal of the current study is to understand the roles of gratitude and entitlement, we deemed PLS-SEM a relevant analysis tool because it is suitable for exploratory modelling, especially within complex models. We estimated our models using the PLS-SEM approach (Wold, 1982; Lohmöller, 1989; Sarstedt et al., 2017) and SmartPLS 4 software (Ringle et al., 2022).

Our sustainable tourist behaviour constructs – the dependent variables – are measured formatively, as these constructs are essentially labels for groups of behavioural items, all of which give meaning to the construct (Mazanec, 2009). The motivational and emotional constructs are measured reflectively in line with common practice in relevant literature (e.g. Prayag et al., 2018; Robina Ramírez & Fernández Portillo, 2020; Dancausa et al., 2023). In line with Hair et al.'s (2019) method, we assessed the measurement models, followed by the structural models. To test the significance of the models' relationships, we used the bootstrapping procedure with 10,000 subsamples and a two-tailed test based on a 95% significance level. We examined potential collinearity issues, finding that the inner VIFs are all under the threshold of 3.3 specified by Kock, 2015. This suggests that there are no critical collinearity issues and no common method bias concerns.

5.4 | Results

5.4.1 | Descriptive statistics

The mean and standard deviation of each construct are reported in Table 5.3. The strongest-felt motivation is experience nature, while social prestige is generally not strongly felt. Respondents typically felt extremely grateful and not very entitled. The behaviours are mainly distributed around the middle of the scale.

Motivations	Mean	SD
Experience Nature	4.21	0.751
Experience Culture	3.83	0.901
Social Prestige	1.90	0.997
Emotional Experiences	Mean	SD
Entitlement	1.79	0.84
Gratitude	4.67	0.68
Behaviours	Mean	SD
Preserve Nature	3.14	1.024
Active Culture	3.26	0.854
Local Purchasing	3.77	0.895
Provider Choice	2.97	1.136

Table 5.3 | Descriptive statistics.

Motivations measured from 1 = *Not at all important* to 5 = *Extremely important*. Emotional experiences measured from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*. Behaviours measured from 1 = *Never* to 5 = *Always*.

5.4.2 | Assessment of the measurement models

For the reflective constructs (motivations and emotions), we assessed indicator reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Following this, the *social prestige* and *gratitude* constructs were cut down from three items to two. All the indicator loadings for the reflective constructs exceed the recommended threshold of 0.7 (see Appendix D). Next, we evaluated the internal consistency of the constructs with Cronbach's alpha and ρ_A (Table

5.4). The Cronbach's alpha values for all constructs are above the acceptable threshold of 0.6 (Hair et al., 2019). All values are greater than the satisfactory ρ_A threshold of 0.7. We assessed convergent validity using the average variance extracted (AVE), and since it exceeds 0.5 for all constructs, we consider reliability and convergent validity to be confirmed.

Model	Construct	Cronbach's alpha	ρ_A	AVE
1 (Preserve Nature)	Experience Nature	0.82	0.84	0.73
	Experience Culture	0.88	0.89	0.80
	Social Prestige	0.61	0.77	0.70
	Gratitude	0.89	0.89	0.90
	Entitlement	0.70	0.71	0.63
2 (Active Culture)	Experience Nature	0.82	0.84	0.73
	Experience Culture	0.88	0.88	0.80
	Social Prestige	0.61	0.82	0.70
	Gratitude	0.89	0.89	0.90
	Entitlement	0.70	0.71	0.63
3 (Local Purchasing)	Experience Nature	0.82	0.83	0.73
	Experience Culture	0.88	0.89	0.80
	Social Prestige	0.61	0.82	0.70
	Gratitude	0.89	0.89	0.90
	Entitlement	0.70	0.71	0.63
4 (Provider Choice)	Experience Nature	0.82	0.84	0.74
	Experience Culture	0.88	0.89	0.80
	Social Prestige	0.61	0.79	0.70
	Gratitude	0.89	0.89	0.90
	Entitlement	0.70	0.71	0.63

Table 5.4| Reliability and convergent validity.
 ρ_A = Construct Reliability. AVE = Average Variance Extracted.

To determine discriminant validity, we employed the heterotrait–monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) (Henseler et al., 2015). All values were significantly below the conservative threshold of 0.85

(Henseler, 2021), indicating their distinctiveness from one another and confirming discriminant validity (Table 5.5).

	HTMT	CI
Experience Culture <-> Entitlement	0.075	[0.047, 0.101]
Experience Nature <-> Entitlement	0.078	[0.044, 0.094]
Experience Nature <-> Experience Culture	0.553	[0.498, 0.605]
Gratitude <-> Entitlement	0.026	[0.006, 0.031]
Gratitude <-> Experience Culture	0.333	[0.271, 0.393]
Gratitude <-> Experience Nature	0.324	[0.258, 0.392]
Social Prestige <-> Entitlement	0.448	[0.368, 0.523]
Social Prestige <-> Experience Culture	0.248	[0.185, 0.310]
Social Prestige <-> Experience Nature	0.141	[0.082, 0.209]
Social Prestige <-> Gratitude	0.120	[0.072, 0.169]

Table 5.5 | Discriminant validity assessment.

HTMT = Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio of Correlations. CI = Confidence Interval. One-tailed test.

5.4.3 | Results of the structural models

Across all four models, the independent variables (motivations) explain around 10% of the variance in *entitlement* and *gratitude*, while the individual models explain between 2% and 17% of the variance in sustainable tourist behaviours (Figure 5.2). In three of the models, our R^2 values are low, even in comparison to other studies that use sustainable tourist behaviours as dependent variables (e.g. Esfandiar et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2020; Saleem et al., 2021). Nevertheless, considering our exploratory research approach, all four models provide relevant exploratory knowledge about how the constructs of *gratitude* and *entitlement* relate to sustainable tourist behaviours and to motivations (which are well-established constructs in the tourism literature).

Regarding the relationships between the motivations and *gratitude* and *entitlement*, *experience nature* and *experience culture* are positively related to *gratitude*, while *social prestige* is positively related to

entitlement (Figure 5.2, Appendix E). In the Active Culture model only (Model 2), *social prestige* is also positively related to *gratitude*, but this is only marginally significant at the $p < 0.1$ level; in all other models, the same path has similar coefficients whose p-values are slightly higher than 0.1, so we should not overinterpret this finding. Regarding the relationships between *gratitude* and *entitlement* and the four sustainable behaviours, we observe differences across the behaviours (Figure 5.2, Appendix E). *Entitlement* has a significant relationship with only one behaviour, *active culture* ($\beta = -0.080$). *Gratitude* is positively related to *active culture* ($\beta = 0.064$), *provider choice* ($\beta = 0.087$) and *local purchasing* ($\beta = 0.057$) but negatively related to *preserve nature* ($\beta = -0.079$).

The relationships between motivations and behaviours, based on the total effects (Table 6), also differ across the behaviours. *Experience nature* has a positive relationship with *provider choice* ($\beta = 0.140$) but a negative relationship with *preserve nature* ($\beta = -0.154$). *Experience culture* has a positive relationship with *active culture*, *provider choice* and *local purchasing* ($\beta = 0.407/0.122/0.259$), with the coefficient between *experience culture* and *active culture* the largest we see across all relationships and all models. The relationship between *experience culture* and *preserve nature* is non-significant. *Social prestige* shows some contrasting relationships with behaviours, having positive relationships with *active culture* and *provider choice* ($\beta = 0.054/0.090$), but a negative relationship with *preserve nature* ($\beta = -0.067$).

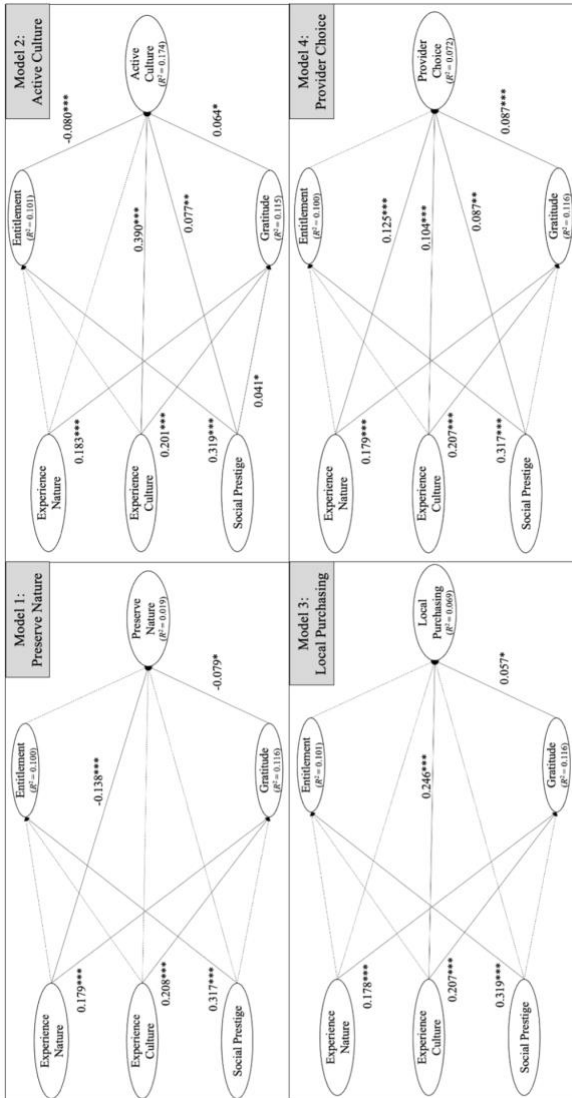


Figure 5.2 | Path coefficients and R^2 values for conceptual models 1 - 4.

Path	Behaviours			
	Preserve Nature (Model 1) β	Active Culture (Model 2) β	Local Purchasing (Model 3) β	Provider Choice (Model 4) β
ExperienceNature -> Behaviour	-0.154***	-0.036	-0.015	0.140***
ExperienceCulture -> Behaviour	0.029	0.407***	0.259***	0.122***
SocialPrestige -> Behaviour	-0.067*	0.054*	0.014	0.090***
Entitlement -> Behaviour ⁺	-0.039	-0.080***	-0.034	-0.002
Gratitude -> Behaviour ⁺	-0.079*	0.064*	0.057*	0.087***
ExperienceNature -> Entitlement ⁺	0.048	0.049	0.049	0.046
ExperienceCulture -> Entitlement ⁺	-0.049	-0.051	-0.050	-0.047
Social Prestige -> Entitlement ⁺	0.317***	0.319***	0.319***	0.317***
ExperienceNature -> Gratitude ⁺	0.179***	0.183***	0.178***	0.179***
ExperienceCulture -> Gratitude ⁺	0.208***	0.201***	0.207***	0.207***
SocialPrestige -> Gratitude ⁺	0.039	0.041*	0.039	0.039

Table 5.6 | Total effects.

*** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.1$. ⁺ For these relationships total effects equal direct effects.

According to the mediation analyses (Table 5.7), *gratitude* is a more successful mediator than *entitlement*, mediating several relationships across three of the models. *Entitlement* only significantly mediates one relationship in one model.

Model	Path	B
1 (Preserve Nature)	Experience Nature -> Entitlement -> Preserve Nature	-0.002
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude -> Preserve Nature	-0.014
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement -> Preserve Nature	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude -> Preserve Nature	-0.016*
	Social Prestige -> Entitlement -> Preserve Nature	-0.012
2 (Active Culture)	Social Prestige -> Gratitude -> Preserve Nature	-0.003
	Experience Nature -> Entitlement -> Active Culture	-0.004
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude -> Active Culture	0.012*
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement -> Active Culture	0.004
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude -> Active Culture	0.013*
3 (Local Purchasing)	Social Prestige -> Entitlement -> Active Culture	-0.026**
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude -> Active Culture	0.003
	Experience Nature -> Entitlement -> Local Purchasing	-0.002
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude -> Local Purchasing	0.010
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement -> Local Purchasing	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude -> Local Purchasing	0.012*
4 (Conscious Provider Choice)	Social Prestige -> Entitlement -> Local Purchasing	-0.011
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude -> Local Purchasing	0.002
	Experience Nature -> Entitlement -> Provider Choice	0.000
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude -> Provider Choice	0.015**
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement -> Provider Choice	-0.000
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude -> Provider Choice	0.018***
	Social Prestige -> Entitlement -> Provider Choice	-0.001
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude -> Provider Choice	0.003

Table 5.7 | Specific indirect effects. *** = $p < 0.01$, ** = $p < 0.05$, * = $p < 0.1$.

Table 5.8 outlines which of our hypotheses are supported, which are not supported, and which are rejected. 12 hypotheses were confirmed, 10 hypothesised relationships were non-significant, while for two hypothesised relationships, significant relationships in the opposite direction were found. The relationship between *experience culture* and *preserve nature*, which we investigated in an exploratory manner, was non-significant. The other two exploratory relationships were significant: *social prestige* is negatively related to *preserve nature* and positively related to *active culture*.

Hypothesis	Findings
H1: <i>The emotional state of entitlement is negatively related to sustainable tourist behaviour.</i>	H1: Not supported for three behaviours, supported for one behaviour (<i>active culture</i>)
H2: <i>The emotional state of gratitude is positively related to sustainable tourist behaviour.</i>	H1: Supported for three behaviours, rejected for one (<i>preserve nature</i>)
H3: <i>The experience nature motivation is positively related to preserve nature behaviours (H3a), active culture behaviours (H3b), local purchasing behaviours (H3c), and conscious provider choice (H3d).</i>	H3a <i>Preserve nature</i> : rejected H3b <i>Active culture</i> : not supported H3c <i>Local purchasing</i> : not supported H3d <i>Provider choice</i> : supported
H4: <i>The experience culture motivation is positively related to active culture behaviours (H4a), local purchasing behaviours (H4b), and conscious provider choice (H4c).</i>	H4a <i>Active culture</i> : supported H4b <i>Local purchasing</i> : supported H4c <i>Provider choice</i> : supported
H5: <i>The social prestige motivation is positively related to local purchasing behaviours (H5a) and conscious provider choice (H5b).</i>	H5a <i>Local purchasing</i> : not supported H5b <i>Provider choice</i> : supported
H6: <i>The experience nature motivation is negatively related to entitlement and (H6a) positively related to gratitude (H6b).</i>	H6a <i>Entitlement</i> : not supported H6b <i>Gratitude</i> : supported
H7: <i>The experience culture motivation is negatively related to entitlement and (H7a) positively related to gratitude (H7b).</i>	H7a <i>Entitlement</i> : not supported H7b <i>Gratitude</i> : supported
H8: <i>The social prestige motivation is positively related to entitlement and (H8a) negatively related to gratitude (H8b).</i>	H8a <i>Entitlement</i> : supported H8b <i>Gratitude</i> : not supported

Table 5.8 | Summary of hypotheses results.

5.5 | Discussion

The results section has revealed some interesting relationships, which we now discuss in this section in light of relevant literature.

5.5.1 | Motivations and sustainable tourist behaviour

Although the negative relationship between *experience nature* and nature-preserving behaviours is surprising in relation to the majority of existing literature, it provides support for a minority of relevant existing literature. For example, Dolnicar et al. (2008) make the point that nature-oriented tourists tend to be attracted to sensitive natural areas and thereby cause impacts that they would not have, had they taken their holiday in a city. Similarly, Alessa et al. (2003) found that national park visitors with more knowledge of ecology engaged in the most depreciative behaviours. The authors make sense of this finding by suggesting that these visitors' interest in the natural environment encourages them to get closer to it to see it in more detail (Alessa et al., 2003). This explanation makes particular sense when we consider that the items for *preserve nature* were connected to the distance visitors kept from nature: *Getting very close to wildlife (reversed)* and *Straying off the path when walking in nature (reversed)*.

Our results support Alessa et al. (2003) and Dolnicar et al.'s (2008) 'nature interest paradox', but not in the sense that it is a distinct segment of nature-interested tourists who perform badly on nature preservation. Rather, in our sample, *experience nature* is a motivation felt by most visitors to Greenland, but it is those who are most strongly motivated by it who are less likely to engage in nature-preserving behaviours. Despite being the strongest-felt motivation among our survey participants, this motivation seems not to be particularly beneficial for destinations, given that it has a positive relationship with only one behaviour type (*conscious provider choice*), no relationship with two behaviour types, and a negative relationship with nature-

preserving behaviours. Scholars outside of tourism have suggested that nature-based motivations be deconstructed into, for example, emotional affinity toward nature and interest in nature (Kals et al., 1999). Applying a similar deconstruction to this motivation in future tourism research could be a promising pathway to understanding what this motivation actually reveals about tourists' attitudes and desires, and why it predicts nature-depreciative behaviours.

The *experience culture* motivation, however, is beneficial for the destination in many regards (in terms of active engagement with culture, local purchasing, and conscious provider choice), and it is not harmful for the environment. This motivation is also strongly felt among our respondents (with a mean of 3.83) but an increase in it leads to more sustainable behaviours than *experience nature*.

The positive relationship between *social prestige* and *provider choice* aligns with some previous literature that has revealed positive relationships between social return and choosing local tourism providers (Bachman et al., 2021; Boley & Woosnam, 2020). Our results also show, however, that *social prestige* has a positive influence on active engagement with culture. If *social prestige*, as suggested by existing literature, is connected to status-enhancement among peers (Beall et al., 2021), then it is conceivable that it would drive tourists to engage in more local and immersive experiences with the aim of transmitting a unique image to their peers. It just so happens that deeper immersion on a cultural level is also desirable for the destination. However, our results suggest that *social prestige* also drives tourists to immerse more deeply in nature. This is problematic because, at a certain point, immersion with the natural environment becomes harmful. For example, we could imagine that a traveller wanting a photo of rare wildlife might get closer than recommended to the animal to get a more impressive photo for their peers. This aligns with original conceptualisations of the social prestige construct in a leisure context, which overwhelmingly depict it as egoistic, self-indulgent and

hedonistic, and leading to tourist behaviour that is undesirable from the perspective of local destination management (Veblen, 1899; Krippendorf, 1987).

5.5.2 | *Gratitude, entitlement and motivations*

Across all four models, we see the same pattern of relationships between motivations, *gratitude* and *entitlement*. *Experience nature* and *experience culture* are positively related to *gratitude*, and *social prestige* is positively related to *entitlement*. As expected from our literature review, motivations related to an interest in the destination are positively related to *gratitude*. The most obvious explanation for this is that Greenland offers a natural and cultural experience that meets or exceeds visitors' expectations and thereby triggers gratitude in them. In terms of the positive relationship between *social prestige* and *entitlement*, it seems plausible that the self-indulgent nature of *social prestige* is connected to the self-indulgent construct of *entitlement*. The fact that we did *not* find significant relationships between *experience nature* and *experience culture* and *entitlement*, and between *social prestige* and *gratitude*, suggests that *gratitude* and *entitlement* are not two opposite states on the same continuum, contradicting some existing literature (Wetzel et al., 2014; Canavan, 2017). Further research is needed on how the two constructs interrelate.

5.5.3 | *Gratitude, entitlement and sustainable tourist behaviour*

Entitlement is negatively associated with *active culture*; however, none of the other relationships between *entitlement* and sustainable behaviours are significant. This is positive from a destination perspective, as we do not see *entitlement* reducing sustainable tourist behaviours in most instances.

Gratitude has a significant and positive relationship with *active culture*, *local purchasing* and *provider choice*. This leads us to conclude that the more grateful a visitor to Greenland feels, the more

likely they are to actively engage with culture in the destination, to consciously choose providers, and to purchase local products. This appears at first glance to be good news for the novel construct of *gratitude*, as it seems to encourage sustainable in-destination behaviours. However, we find a significantly negative relationship between *gratitude* and *preserve nature*. This is surprising, considering that we expected grateful tourists to behave better in general, and that *gratitude* has a positive influence on the other three behavioural types. A possible explanation for the contradictory influence of *gratitude* is that respondents felt grateful to be in Greenland because of the behaviours they had engaged in. For example, it could be the case that a respondent who reported higher gratitude partly did so because they had had a very close encounter with a whale, which would have been reported negatively on the *preserve nature* scale. Future research investigating gratitude in tourism should also measure *why* tourists feel grateful, in order to better understand this surprising relationship.

In Model 1 (Preserve Nature), we see no significant mediating effects. In Model 2 (Active Culture), *gratitude* partially mediates the relationship between *experience culture* and *active culture*, and *entitlement* partially mediates the relationship between *social prestige* and *active culture*. In Model 3, *gratitude* partially mediates the relationship between *experience culture* and *local purchasing*. In Model 4, *gratitude* partially mediates the relationships between *experience nature* and *provider choice*, and *experience culture* and *provider choice*. These findings help us to understand the mechanisms underlying the relationships between tourist motivations and sustainable behaviours, revealing that some of these effects are explained by tourists feeling grateful for (or entitled to) their experiences in Greenland. However, a large part of the relationships we see between motivations and sustainable tourist behaviours are explained by other, unknown variables.

Generally, *entitlement* does not serve well as a mediator across our models, or as a predictor of sustainable tourist behaviour. It could be that we do not find many significant relationships with the construct of *entitlement* because of lack of variation in the construct's distribution, which was heavily skewed towards the lower end of the scale. This could reflect either social desirability bias (i.e. it was socially undesirable for respondents to admit that they felt entitled), or more simply the fact that tourists to Greenland tend to feel very low (if any) entitlement connected to their visit. Perhaps more conceivably, the reason is a mixture of these two explanations.

5.5.4 | *Explaining different types of sustainable tourist behaviour*

Our analysis reveals interesting differences in engagement with different types of sustainable tourist behaviour. *Preserve nature* and *active culture* seem to be linked to somewhat opposite drivers. It is interesting to consider that these behavioural constructs are the two groups that align most with the 3-pillar model of sustainable tourist behaviour, in that they each represent one 'pillar'. The behavioural items that make up *local purchasing* and *provider choice* cut across all three of the classic 'pillars', and the relationships in these models are different to the other two.

Comparing our four target constructs, we see that nature-preserving behaviours are not well-explained by our model ($R^2 = 2\%$). Considering three characteristics of nature-preserving behaviours in particular may help to explain why these behaviours are badly explained and negatively predicted by our chosen constructs. Firstly, *preserve nature* is the only construct that includes purely environmental behaviours, while the other constructs mostly relate to social, economic and cultural sustainability. Secondly, the *preserve nature* items are mitigative, i.e. the sustainable option is *not* to perform the behaviour, while all other behavioural items are actively beneficial, i.e. the sustainable option is to actively perform the behaviour. Thirdly, it might be the case that the

preserve nature behaviours are activities that *take away* from the tourist experience (because they require visitors to keep a distance from attractions, or to immerse less in the destination), while the other behaviours might be perceived as activities that *add* to the tourist experience. Tourism has been argued to be a powerfully hedonic context in which it is particularly difficult to encourage sustainable behaviour, because pleasure is prioritised (Stanford, 2008; MacCannell, 2013; Demeter et al., 2023). If it is the case that nature-preserving behaviours are viewed as behaviours that limit tourists' ability to immerse fully in the destination or to maximise the pleasure of their visit, then it could be that hedonism takes priority and the nature-preserving behaviours are ignored. This might also help to explain the negative relationship we find between *experience nature* and nature-preserving behaviours. Further research should deliberately investigate this potential link between hedonism and specific sustainable tourist behaviours.

5.6 | *Conclusions*

The present study set out to explore some of the psychological antecedents to sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland, including the constructs of entitlement and gratitude. The primary aim of this research was to begin to understand the role these two constructs play in relation to sustainable tourist behaviour. We developed a behavioural typology consisting of four types of sustainable tourist behaviour and found different patterns of relationships across all four behaviours. Most notably, nature-preserving behaviours are negatively predicted by experience nature and social prestige motivations, and gratitude is a positive predictor of all types of sustainable tourist behaviours except nature-preserving behaviours, which it reduces.

The diverse relationships we find with different groups of sustainable tourist behaviour provide support for dismissing the concept of an all-round 'sustainable tourist' who behaves ethically and

responsibly in all areas, and rather for accepting that different groups of tourists and different contexts are conducive to different types of sustainable tourist behaviour. The typology that we use to deconstruct sustainable tourist behaviour allows for application of our results to practice, giving destination managers a concrete idea of which behaviours each group encompasses. Destination managers should consider which type(s) of sustainable tourist behaviour are a priority for them, and apply the results from the relevant model(s).

There are limitations to our data since it is self-reported, and since in some cases some years had elapsed between participants' trips to Greenland and their survey responses. Future survey research could employ an experimental approach to mitigate any potential bias resulting from self-reported measures. To some extent, however, this bias will always be present, since understanding individuals' internal emotional states in such detail always requires some degree of self-reporting. This study has revealed that gratitude and entitlement can play an intriguing role in sustainable tourist behaviour, although it fails to reveal respondents' reasons for experiencing these emotional states. Despite the significant relationships found between these constructs, the strongest effects we see in our models are between motivations and behaviours. Overall, our chosen variables do not explain a large amount of the variance in sustainable tourist behaviour. Therefore, we can assume that other variables (both psychological and otherwise) play larger roles in explaining sustainable tourist behaviour.

References | Paper Two

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Appendix C | Survey Items and Sources

Motivations

Motivation	Items	Quote from preliminary interviews	Similar example from literature	Reference
Experience Nature	To experience the pristine nature	"I think the nature is point one when you visit Greenland, for me it is."	"To experience something unspoiled"	(Frochot, 2005)
	To immerse myself in nature	"It's very wild and it's really nice to just be completely away from everything else."	"The special thing about my holiday is an intense experience of the nature."	(Crouch et al., 2005)
	To see rare natural phenomena	"To see the ice" "Obviously it was great to think that there would be a good chance of seeing the Northern Lights"	"rare fauna and flora"	(Salim & Ravanel, 2023)
Experience Culture	To experience the local culture	"I think one of the reasons why I wanted to visit Greenland was that the people who live there have got really big history and culture. And that interested me."	"To experience a different culture"	(Frochot, 2005)
	To see how the local people live	"There was an element of curiosity where I wanted to see how people live in Greenland - are they living a modern life? Are they still a little bit set in their traditions?"	"I am interested in the life style of the local people."	(Crouch et al., 2005)
	To see a traditional culture before it disappears or changes irreversibly	"I feel like it's a bit too late, but I still feel that sense of urgency ... I recognize that the world, the Western world keeps expanding and once it's touched things, it gets tainted and you can't purify it again."	"I need to visit Cuba before it changes"	(Knollenberg et al., 2020)
Social Prestige	To be able to tell my friends and family about the trip	"When I came back and I was so excited about everything that happened, no one wanted to hear my stories ... And to this day, nobody wants to hear."	"Talking with my friends about the trip"	(Correia et al., 2007)
	To go somewhere my friends and family had not been	"I don't know anyone else who's done the type of holiday that we did or even interested in it."	"Going places my friends have not been"	(Correia et al., 2007)

Emotional Experiences

Emotional Experience	Items	Quote from preliminary interviews	Similar example from literature	Reference
Entitlement	As a tourist, I expected to get special treatment in Greenland.	<i>"Their stores closed at a certain time, two o'clock or something. And we arrived just prior to that time. And only a couple of the shops agreed to stay open for us tourists. The others said, no, we closed at 2, and we're going fishing. So we didn't have much more than a couple of shops to look around in. And many people were kind of angry."</i>	"I do not necessarily deserve special treatment." (reversed)	(Campbell et al., 2004)
	I felt that I was entitled to do whatever I wanted when I was in Greenland.	<i>"I was entitled to take an early pension from one of my previous employers ... So I took that and decided to spend it on doing things that I had always wanted to do."</i>	"I feel entitled to consume the destination resources freely, as I have paid for the holiday"	(Qu et al., 2019)
Gratitude	I expected all my wants and needs to be catered for when I was in Greenland.	<i>"Well, we haven't got anything else but Euros. So if you're not prepared to take euros, then I'm afraid we're not going to buy anything."</i>	"In some real sense, I feel that a store's personnel should cater to my every whim"	(Butori, 2010)
	I felt very grateful to be in Greenland I felt very thankful to be in Greenland	<i>"I never thought that it was a place available to go to"</i>	grateful thankful	(Emmons et al., 2003) (Emmons et al., 2003)

Sustainable Behaviours

Behaviour	Items
Preserve Nature	Getting very close to wildlife (reversed)
	Straying off the path when walking in nature (reversed)
Active Engagement with Culture	Learning about local customs, culture and history
	Seeking out 'everyday' situations, where I am likely to come into contact with local people, or experience everyday life
	Interacting with local people on a social level (more than a service-based interaction)
Local Purchasing Behaviours	Buying a locally-produced souvenir
	Eating locally-sourced food
Conscious Provider Choice	Choosing an accommodation/tour provider which I know is locally-owned
	Choosing an accommodation/tour provider which I know has a low environmental impact

References | Appendix C

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Appendix D | Indicator Loadings

Model	Construct	Item	Loading	CI
1	Experience Nature	To experience the pristine nature	0.849***	[0.801, 0.884]
		To immerse myself in nature	0.901***	[0.877, 0.919]
		To see rare natural phenomena	0.818***	[0.764, 0.856]
	Experience Culture	To experience the local culture	0.906***	[0.883, 0.922]
		To see how the local people live	0.903***	[0.876, 0.920]
		To see a traditional culture before it disappears or changes irreversibly	0.875***	[0.846, 0.899]
	Social Prestige	To be able to tell my friends and family about the trip	0.934***	[0.901, 0.967]
		To go somewhere my friends and family had not been	0.729***	[0.618, 0.796]
	Gratitude	I felt very grateful to be in Greenland.	0.945***	[0.924, 0.960]
		I felt very thankful to be in Greenland.	0.951***	[0.933, 0.965]
	Entitlement	As a tourist, I expected to get special treatment in Greenland.	0.801***	[0.742, 0.842]
I expected all my wants and needs to be catered for when I was in Greenland.		0.856***	[0.820, 0.883]	
I felt that I was entitled to do whatever I wanted while I was in Greenland.		0.717***	[0.645, 0.776]	
2	Experience Nature	To experience the pristine nature	0.852***	[0.802, 0.886]
		To immerse myself in nature	0.903***	[0.881, 0.920]
		To see rare natural phenomena	0.814***	[0.761, 0.851]
	Experience Culture	To experience the local culture	0.914***	[0.900, 0.926]
		To see how the local people live	0.920***	[0.904, 0.931]
		To see a traditional culture before it disappears or changes irreversibly	0.852***	[0.822, 0.875]
	Social Prestige	To be able to tell my friends and family about the trip	0.939***	[0.909, 0.970]
		To go somewhere my friends and family had not been	0.719***	[0.609, 0.786]
	Gratitude	I felt very grateful to be in Greenland.	0.949***	[0.930, 0.963]
		I felt very thankful to be in Greenland.	0.948***	[0.928, 0.962]
	Entitlement	As a tourist, I expected to get special treatment in Greenland.	0.806***	[0.754, 0.848]
		I expected all my wants and needs to be catered for when I was in Greenland.	0.862***	[0.828, 0.888]
		I felt that I was entitled to do whatever I wanted while I was in Greenland.	0.704***	[0.628, 0.762]
3	Experience Nature	To experience the pristine nature	0.851***	[0.803, 0.886]
		To immerse myself in nature	0.894***	[0.868, 0.915]
		To see rare natural phenomena	0.824***	[0.774, 0.860]
	Experience Culture	To experience the local culture	0.907***	[0.889, 0.921]
		To see how the local people live	0.906***	[0.885, 0.922]
		To see a traditional culture before it disappears or changes irreversibly	0.871***	[0.845, 0.891]
	Social Prestige	To be able to tell my friends and family about the trip	0.939***	[0.905, 0.973]

		To go somewhere my friends and family had not been	0.718***	[0.600, 0.790]
	Gratitude	I felt very grateful to be in Greenland.	0.947***	[0.924, 0.962]
		I felt very thankful to be in Greenland.	0.950***	[0.932, 0.964]
		As a tourist, I expected to get special treatment in Greenland.	0.806***	[0.752, 0.848]
	Entitlement	I expected all my wants and needs to be catered for when I was in Greenland.	0.858***	[0.823, 0.885]
		I felt that I was entitled to do whatever I wanted while I was in Greenland.	0.709***	[0.634, 0.766]
4	Experience Nature	To experience the pristine nature	0.857***	[0.815, 0.888]
		To immerse myself in nature	0.900***	[0.879, 0.918]
		To see rare natural phenomena	0.812***	[0.761, 0.848]
	Experience Culture	To experience the local culture	0.902***	[0.882, 0.918]
		To see how the local people live	0.905***	[0.882, 0.921]
		To see a traditional culture before it disappears or changes irreversibly	0.877***	[0.851, 0.897]
	Social Prestige	To be able to tell my friends and family about the trip	0.935***	[0.905, 0.966]
		To go somewhere my friends and family had not been	0.726***	[0.619, 0.791]
	Gratitude	I felt very grateful to be in Greenland.	0.949***	[0.929, 0.963]
		I felt very thankful to be in Greenland.	0.948***	[0.929, 0.962]
	Entitlement	As a tourist, I expected to get special treatment in Greenland.	0.809***	[0.755, 0.850]
		I expected all my wants and needs to be catered for when I was in Greenland.	0.856***	[0.820, 0.883]
		I felt that I was entitled to do whatever I wanted while I was in Greenland.	0.709***	[0.635, 0.766]

*** = $p < 0.01$; CI = confidence interval.

Appendix E | Path Coefficients

Model	Path	Path coefficient	PCI	f ²
1	Experience Nature -> Entitlement	0.048	[-0.018, 0.113]	0.002
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude	0.179***	[0.105, 0.253]	0.028
	Experience Nature -> Preserve Nature	-0.138***	[-0.215, -0.012]	0.015
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement	-0.049	[-0.114, 0.014]	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude	0.208***	[0.136, 0.278]	0.037
	Experience Culture -> Preserve Nature	0.044	[-0.076, 0.140]	0.001
	Social Prestige -> Entitlement	0.317***	[0.255, 0.374]	0.107
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude	0.039	[-0.012, 0.085]	0.002
	Social Prestige -> Preserve Nature	-0.051	[-0.122, 0.025]	0.002
	Entitlement -> Preserve Nature	-0.039	[-0.110, 0.042]	0.004
Gratitude -> Preserve Nature	-0.079*	[-0.146, 0.040]	0.015	
2	Experience Nature -> Entitlement	0.049	[-0.018, 0.113]	0.002
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude	0.183***	[0.109, 0.257]	0.030
	Experience Nature -> Active Culture	-0.044	[-0.109, 0.021]	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement	-0.051	[-0.116, 0.012]	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude	0.201***	[0.128, 0.273]	0.035
	Experience Culture -> Active Culture	0.390***	[0.319, 0.456]	0.135
	Social Prestige -> Entitlement	0.319***	[0.255, 0.375]	0.109
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude	0.041*	[-0.010, 0.088]	0.002
	Social Prestige -> Active Culture	0.077**	[0.011, 0.141]	0.006
	Entitlement -> Active Culture	-0.080***	[-0.137, 0.019]	0.007
Gratitude -> Active Culture	0.064*	[0.000, 0.130]	0.004	
3	Experience Nature -> Entitlement	0.049	[-0.018, 0.114]	0.002
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude	0.178***	[0.104, 0.252]	0.028
	Experience Nature -> Local Purchasing	-0.024	[-0.100, 0.054]	0.000
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement	-0.050	[-0.114, 0.014]	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude	0.207***	[0.135, 0.278]	0.037
	Experience Culture -> Local Purchasing	0.246***	[0.171, 0.318]	0.047
	Social Prestige -> Entitlement	0.319***	[0.256, 0.375]	0.108
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude	0.039	[-0.011, 0.086]	0.002
	Social Prestige -> Local Purchasing	0.023	[-0.044, 0.087]	0.000
	Entitlement -> Local Purchasing	-0.034	[-0.096, 0.032]	0.001
Gratitude -> Local Purchasing	0.057*	[0.008, 0.121]	0.003	
4	Experience Nature -> Entitlement	0.046	[-0.020, 0.111]	0.002
	Experience Nature -> Gratitude	0.179***	[0.105, 0.253]	0.028
	Experience Nature -> Provider Choice	0.125***	[0.054, 0.195]	0.013
	Experience Culture -> Entitlement	-0.047	[-0.111, 0.017]	0.002
	Experience Culture -> Gratitude	0.207***	[0.134, 0.278]	0.037
	Experience Culture -> Provider Choice	0.104***	[0.033, 0.171]	0.008
	Social Prestige -> Entitlement	0.317***	[0.254, 0.374]	0.108
	Social Prestige -> Gratitude	0.039	[-0.012, 0.086]	0.002
	Social Prestige -> Provider Choice	0.087**	[0.017, 0.152]	0.007
	Entitlement -> Provider Choice	-0.002	[-0.065, 0.061]	0.000
Gratitude -> Provider Choice	0.087***	[0.025, 0.146]	0.007	

*** = p < 0.01, ** = p < 0.05 * = p < 0.1; PCI = percentile confidence interval (95%).

Chapter 6 | Paper Three

**Understanding how a commitment-based pledge intervention
encourages pro-environmental tourist behaviour**

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Abstract

Existing research shows that behavioural interventions can trigger pro-environmental behaviour change, but there is a lack of understanding around *how* these interventions change behaviour. In response to recent research which calls for studies to systematically test links between interventions and the psychological determinants of behaviour, this study 1) develops and tests a pro-environmental behavioural change intervention in the field, and 2) empirically investigates which psychological determinants the intervention triggers, using a survey experiment. Results indicate that the intervention promotes the pro-environmental target behaviour by increasing commitment. Commitment is predicted by beliefs (unaffected by the intervention) and ascription of responsibility (triggered by the intervention). The present study has practical significance by proving the effectiveness of an easily implementable intervention, as well as theoretical significance by providing empirical evidence about the hypothesised connections between interventions and the psychological determinants of behaviour.

Keywords

Pro-environmental tourist behaviour, Behavioural intervention, Field experiment, Survey experiment, Psychological determinants of behaviour, Commitment, Pledge, Ascription of responsibility

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6.1 | Introduction

The literature on pro-environmental behaviour change presents various examples of interventions proven to be effective in influencing pro-environmental behaviour. Yet, in a recent authoritative review of this body of work, van Valkengoed and colleagues (2022) note that the psychological mechanisms underlying successful interventions are not well understood. They call for more research into the psychological determinants that trigger behaviour change. Specifically, van Valkengoed et al. (2022) argue that it is unclear which behaviour change interventions target which determinants of behaviour and identify an urgent need for systematic approaches of testing relationships between interventions and the psychological determinants of behaviour that they presumably trigger. As a foundation to this avenue of research, van Valkengoed et al. (2022) offer a classification linking interventions to determinants. The present study responds to this call by demonstrating that a commitment-based intervention (signing a pledge) significantly reduces the environmentally harmful behaviour of off-trail walking at a protected natural site, and by empirically testing four alternative theoretical explanations for this (intervention-determinant relationships).

The context of our study is a protected natural area in Greenland, where visitor misbehaviour has been reported as a problem. The importance of mitigating visitor environmental impacts in protected natural areas is widely acknowledged across academia and industry (Bradford & McIntyre, 2007; Brown et al., 2010; Dragovich & Bajpai, 2022). Protection is critical because of the fragility of these environments, and their wildlife or cultural heritage. Recreational activity represents a major threat to protected natural areas, especially as tourism numbers increase (Bradford & McIntyre, 2007; Brown et al., 2010; Anderson et al., 2023). Managers of protected areas report as a specific problem visitor misbehaviour (Widner & Roggenbuck, 2000) that leads to flora destruction, fauna disturbance, habitat loss and host

community disruption (Brown, 1999; Maréchal et al., 2016). One of the most damaging tourist behaviours is off-trail walking (Lynn & Brown, 2003; Bradford & McIntyre, 2007). Off-trail walking causes pollution, damages vegetation, disturbs wildlife (Bradford & McIntyre, 2007; Howard et al., 2021) and can create ‘informal’ trails, which are not professionally designed or maintained, and are therefore less environmentally sustainable (Milone et al., 2014). Preventing off-trail walking is essential for the preservation of protected natural areas.

Attempts to prevent off-trail walking in protected areas have traditionally used educational or interpretation-based interventions. The success rate of such approaches is low (Brown et al., 2010; Grilli & Curtis, 2021; Demeter et al., 2022), possibly because of a misguided assumption that visitors will spend time reading and absorbing the information (Bradford & McIntyre, 2007). More effective are ‘hard’ approaches, including sanction messages, prohibitive infrastructure, and human policing of behaviour (Fennell, 2001; Johnson & Swearingen, 1992). Such interventions are rarely practical because hiring staff and building infrastructure is expensive, and sanction messages are only powerful when it is realistic that the penalty will be carried out (Bradford & McIntyre, 2007).

What is urgently needed, therefore, is a ‘soft’ approach – a gentle behavioural change intervention that prevents off-trail walking and can realistically be implemented in protected natural areas. Developing, testing and understanding such an intervention is an aim of the present study. Specifically, this study develops a theory-informed pledge for tourists visiting the UNESCO World Heritage listed Ilulissat Icefjord in North Greenland. Particularly fragile in this area are the flora and cultural remains, and dangers associated with off-trail walking include the risk of tsunamis caused by calving icebergs, uneven ground and cliff edges, and the risk of getting lost. Off-trail walking has been reported as a problematic behaviour at this specific UNESCO site (personal communication, 2022). With the anticipated growth in

tourism because of two new international airports opening in Greenland in 2024, concerns about off-trail walking are growing (ibid.), and the local tourism industry lacks the human and financial resources to implement hard measures.

A soft behaviour change intervention that has been used in the past is a pledge – a commitment typically expressed by signing a document. Some pledges have shown promise (Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020; Triyana & White, 2022; Webler & Jakubowski, 2016; Widner & Roggenbuck, 2000), but their effectiveness has not been proven using objectively measured behaviour, and the psychological determinants underlying them are not well understood. The current study is the first to our knowledge to systematically investigate the psychological determinants triggered by a pledge or commitment-based intervention. It thereby contributes to theoretical understandings of the psychological processes behind behaviour change in response to interventions.

Methodologically, this study contributes to work investigating behavioural change interventions, by using an objective measure (GPS tracking) of the behaviour of interest (off-trail walking). Measuring the actual target behaviour – as opposed to relying on stated behaviour or proxy behaviours, such as signing the pledge – is necessary to determine with certainty whether a pledge-based commitment strategy works. The practical value of this study is immediate; if proven effective in the field, the pledge developed in this study can be deployed by natural sites globally as an affordable measure to prevent off-trail walking. In this way, it can contribute to the achievement of United Nations Sustainable Development Goals 15 (“Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss”) and 12 (“Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns”; United Nations, nd).

Commitment is defined as “a binding of the individual to behavioural acts” (Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966, p. 349). Commitment interventions involve individuals agreeing to perform a specific behaviour in advance of the opportunity to do so (Wang & Katzev, 1990; Lokhorst et al., 2015; Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020). The commitment can be mental, verbal or written, and made publicly or privately (Nisa et al., 2017). Commitment-based interventions have been tested across various contexts: tax filers who pre-commit to saving their tax refund are more likely to do so (Roll et al., 2020); residents who commit to recycling paper are more likely to do so (Wang & Katzev, 1990); and hotel guests who commit to reusing towels are more likely to do so when their commitment is visible to other guests (Baca-Motes et al., 2013).

A pledge is a specific kind of commitment intervention in which commitment is usually expressed by signing a document. Although the overall effectiveness of pledges remains unclear (Heminger et al., 2016), they have shown promise in some behavioural contexts, including alcohol abstinence (Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020); smoking prevention (Triyana & White, 2022); deterring snorkelers from damaging corals (Webler & Jakubowski, 2016); and deterring visitors from stealing wood from a national park (Widner & Roggenbuck, 2000). However, none of these studies measured the target behaviour objectively, relying instead on self-reports (in the case of Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020), or on research assistants observing the target behaviour (in the cases of Triyana & White, 2022, Webler & Jakubowski, 2016, and Widner & Roggenbuck, 2000). Also, the psychological determinants explaining the effectiveness of commitment-based pledge interventions have not been systematically investigated.

Because of their simplicity and cost-effectiveness, pledges are enjoying increased popularity. In the context of protecting natural areas, Iceland, Palau and Finland have all introduced a national destination

pledge (Albrecht & Raymond, 2022). The effectiveness of these pledges has only been measured in terms of how many people have signed them (Medel, 2020). Their effect on behaviour is not known. In our field experiment, we test the actual effectiveness of a regional destination pledge on off-trail walking behaviour, measured via GPS tracking. We expect participants who sign the pledge to stray to a lower extent from the marked paths, and for less time, than participants who do not sign the pledge.

Additionally, we investigate the psychological determinants that drive the effectiveness of pledges on behavioural change, testing four alternative theoretical explanations that have been proposed in the literature:

- (1) Taking a pledge commits the pledger to the beliefs expressed in the pledge. To avoid the discomfort of cognitive dissonance, pledgers display the behaviour that aligns with the beliefs they have committed to, in line with Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory.
- (2) Making a commitment increases the salience of an existing attitude or belief, increasing, in turn, the likelihood that this belief will guide subsequent behaviour (Halverson & Pallak, 1978).
- (3) Taking a pledge triggers injunctive norms which lead to pledgers adjusting their behaviour to align with the social expectations of their immediate peers, in line with Lewin (1947), Wang and Katzev (1990) and Triyana and White (2022).
- (4) Taking a pledge triggers ascription of responsibility in pledgers, making them feel personally responsible for the desired outcomes expressed in the pledge, in line with Heider's (1958) attribution theory, and Alessa et al. (2003).

What is immediately apparent when comparing our conceptual model with that of van Valkengoed and colleagues (2022), is that our literature search links commitment-based interventions to different psychological determinants than van Valkengoed and colleagues', who hypothesise that commitment-based interventions trigger personal norms and

environmental self-identity. We find evidence in the literature that pledge interventions can work by creating cognitive dissonance, emphasising beliefs, or triggering injunctive norms or ascription of responsibility. Van Valkengoed and colleagues define environmental self-identity as encompassing cognitive dissonance; they propose that pro-environmental behaviour can result from individuals striving for consistency between their actions and their self-image. The other psychological determinants that we hypothesise can be triggered by pledge interventions (injunctive norms, ascription of responsibility and beliefs [made up of problem awareness and outcome efficacy, in line with Stern, 1999]) also appear in van Valkengoed et al.'s model, but are linked to different types of interventions. Perhaps the differences in the models produced by our respective literature searches can be attributed to the fact that, in the present study, we searched specifically for psychological determinants triggered by pledge interventions; van Valkengoed and colleagues use the broader category of commitment interventions, although they acknowledge that a pledge is an example of a commitment intervention. Regardless of the reasons behind them, these discrepancies go to show that existing literature is still unclear on the psychological processes underlying behaviour change in response to commitment-based interventions.

The four determinants proposed in our model have not yet been empirically tested, in terms of *if* and *how* they explain pledge interventions, and how they relate to the psychological construct of commitment. In a survey experiment, we investigate each of these theoretical determinants to assess the extent to which they may explain the effectiveness of a pledge. A secondary aim of the survey experiment is to serve as a manipulation check for our pledge intervention, testing if the pledge we developed is successful in increasing commitment. We expect respondents who are asked to sign the pledge to report higher commitment than respondents who are not asked to sign the pledge. We also expect respondents who are asked to sign the pledge, in line with

the four alternative theoretical explanations, to report higher cognitive dissonance, beliefs, injunctive norms and ascription of responsibility than respondents who are not asked to sign the pledge. We expect the effects to differ across the four psychological determinants, and we also expect that the impacts of the psychological determinants differ when explaining the commitment levels of respondents who are asked to sign the pledge.

6.2 | Materials and Methods

6.2.1 | Study context

Ilulissat is located on Greenland's west coast, 250 km above the Arctic Circle. It is Greenland's third largest town, and the nation's most popular tourist destination because of its proximity to the Ilulissat glacier – the most productive glacier in the northern hemisphere. Situated about 40 km from the town itself, the glacier feeds icebergs into the Ilulissat Icefjord, which becomes significantly shallower at its mouth, where the town of Ilulissat is located. This results in hundreds of icebergs becoming stranded and easily observable just outside the town (see Figure 6.1).



Fig. 6.1 | The Ilulissat Icefjord. Source: Aningaaq Rosing Carlsen – Visit Greenland.

The Ilulissat Icefjord was inscribed as Greenland’s first UNESCO World Heritage site in 2004. Its outstanding universal value is based on its contribution to our scientific understanding of glaciology and climate change, the rarity of the natural phenomenon that can be witnessed here, the fragility of the local ecosystem, and its heritage as a food source and settlement for thousands of years. The inscribed area of almost 400,000 hectares encompasses some of the shore areas surrounding the icefjord, most notably the area known as Sermermiut, which is the context of the current study. This area was historically home to an Inuit settlement, and now offers the easiest way to visit the Ilulissat Icefjord on foot. Sermermiut is only two kilometres from the town centre of Ilulissat and provides access to the edge of the icefjord via a 1.3 km long wooden boardwalk. Three other walking trails have been developed and marked nearby and are managed by the local municipality. Figure 6.2 shows all walking trails.

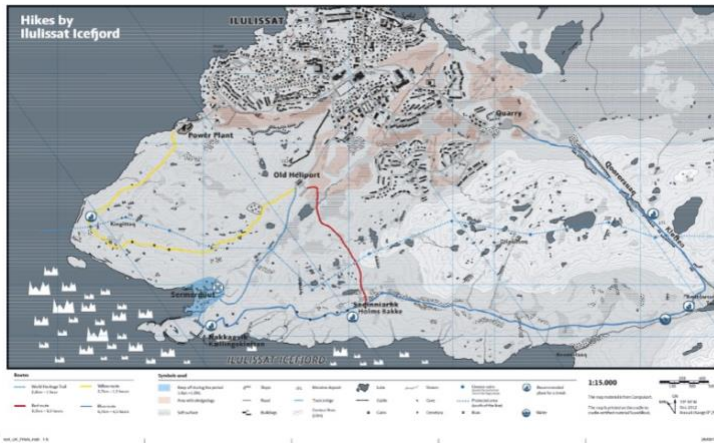


Fig. 6.2 | Map of marked walking trails in Sermermiut. Source: kangia.gl.

Visitors walking off-trail has been reported as a problem by the local tourism industry. The new international airport in Ilulissat to be opened in 2024 will further exacerbate the severity of this problem (personal communication, 2022). The risks associated with off-trail walking include damage to vulnerable flora which takes a long time to regrow, damage to cultural remains including the historical Inuit settlement and Inuit graves, risk of exposure to tsunamis created by calving icebergs, and the risk of uneven ground and cliff edges which can be quickly obscured by inclement and unpredictable weather. The tourism industry in Greenland is developing and often lacks solid support from the national government (Cooper, 2023), making human and financial resources for site management scarce. For this reason, the local municipality is unable to make infrastructural changes to make off-trail walking impossible (such as a fenced boardwalk along all trails). An infrastructure-heavy approach in natural areas may also clash with expectations of the tourist experience in Greenland, which is generally

marketed as a remote and ‘off the beaten track’ destination (Ren & Cooper, 2021).

6.2.2 | *Field experiment*

Data for the quasi-experimental field study was collected in the month of August 2022, on 11 different days, with 11 different cruise calls to Ilulissat. The study is quasi-experimental in nature because assignment of the experimental condition to study participants was performed on bus level. Relevant cruise companies were contacted in advance of the data collection, and the experiment was explained to them in detail, to secure their approval to approach their guests. Only one cruise company refused to participate; guests from this company were not approached. Ethics approval was obtained from the Ethics Council of the first author’s affiliated institution (approval number 22-030). The Government of Greenland and the local municipality of North Greenland also gave their approval after receiving a detailed description of the experimental design.

Upon docking in Ilulissat harbour, cruise passengers have the option of taking a shuttle bus from the harbour to the trailhead, where Sermermiut’s marked trails begin. These shuttle buses are hired by the cruise companies exclusively for each ship. The buses depart the harbour every 30 minutes for the duration of the time that a ship is docked – usually around eight hours. Very few passengers choose to walk from the harbour to the trailhead because this is a two kilometre walk along some steep hills.

Each day, bus departures were randomly selected to be exposed to the experimental treatment condition of the tourist pledge. On those selected buses, a research assistant handed passengers a hard copy of the ‘North Greenland pledge’ and a pen as they entered. The research assistant introduced herself as a representative of the local municipality, and, during the drive to the trailhead, briefly explained the pledge as a new initiative from the local municipality. She asked passengers to sign

their pledges with their initials and the date, and hand them back to her. The presentation followed a script to ensure consistency. The assistant collected the signed pledges personally from passengers as they exited the bus and did not experience any instances of a passenger refusing to sign the pledge or leaving the bus without returning a pledge.

When passengers disembarked the shuttle buses at the trailhead, they were greeted by the first author, who introduced herself as a researcher studying how far cruise tourists walk. She asked for volunteers to wear GPS trackers while they walked around the area. Uptake on wearing the trackers was high, and there was no apparent suspicion from passengers that this research was connected to the pledge initiative. The presentation of the GPS tracking research was repeated until approximately half of the GPS trackers had been accepted by passengers who had signed the pledge, and the remaining trackers had been accepted by passengers who had not been presented with the pledge. The study began with 75 trackers. Not all trackers were used every day because the number of passengers per ship varied, the weather differed, and some passengers engaged in activities other than visiting the icefjord. Each tracker had a red sticker or a blue sticker. Passengers in the pledge condition received a tracker with a red sticker; passengers in the control condition received a tracker with a blue sticker.

After distributing as many GPS trackers as possible, the first author waited at the harbour for passengers to return to the ship, where they returned their trackers. Upon returning their trackers, passengers were offered a souvenir to thank them for their participation. Participants remained anonymous; the pledge only asked for their initials, and signed pledges could not be connected to specific GPS tracks.

Ensuring that there was a control group and a treatment group from each participating cruise ship allowed us to avoid biasing results due to other variables that inevitably influence tourist walking behaviour, such as weather, variations in port briefings, and the time spent in port.

Based on theoretical models of commitment and empirical investigations of the comparative effectiveness of different commitment interventions, we designed The North Greenland Pledge (Figure 6.3) in a way that can be expected to be as strong as possible. The pledge lists very specific desired behaviours that are simple to display (Baca-Motes et al., 2013; Wright and Kacmar, 1994). The signing of the pledge is publicly visible (Barata et al., 2017; Burn and Oskamp, 1986; Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966; Pallak and Cummings, 1976), thus triggering normative beliefs (Demarque & Girandola, 2017). Tourists are in full control of whether to display each of the desired behaviours or not (Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966). The pressure imposed on tourists to commit to the listed behaviours is low (Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966). The pledge is made by each tourist individually (Wang and Katzev, 1990) by signing a hardcopy of the pledge (Burn and Oskamp, 1986; Pardini and Katzev, 1983).

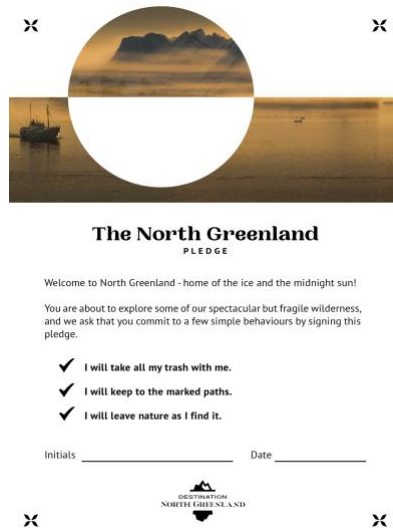


Fig. 6.3 | The North Greenland Pledge.

Although the pledge asks participants to commit to three behaviours, only one of these behaviours serves as dependent variable. The two additional behaviours were added to make the pledge convincing as a real initiative, and to reduce the likelihood of participants making the connection between the pledge and the GPS tracking research. We chose additional behaviours that fitted the context of the site but are not considered to be problematic, to reduce the likelihood of them interfering with the target behaviour by inducing a licensing effect. For example, if trash was a noticeable problem at the site, it is possible that participants might engage in picking up trash to the extent that they mentally excuse themselves from engaging in the other behaviours they have committed to. Since we judged that neither taking their trash with them nor refraining from disturbing the landscape are likely to entail much effort from participants, we judged it unlikely that participants would mentally release themselves from the commitment of sticking to the trails.

The dependent variable is whether participants kept to the marked trails. This was measured using GPS trackers that tourists wore voluntarily, usually around their necks or in a coat pocket. The GPS trackers record coordinates every five seconds, measuring tourist movements in time and space. The devices used were so small and lightweight that participants often quickly forgot that they were wearing them.

Although sampling bias was reduced during the delivery of the treatment by making the pledge appear obligatory, there is potential for bias in terms of who volunteered to wear a tracker, in that it is possible that those who volunteered to take a tracker were those who were predisposed to staying on the trails. We do not expect any potential bias from this to be material because the GPS research was presented to passengers in groups, and uptake was very high, so that those who were initially not eager to take a tracker often took one after they saw that most others were taking one. Additionally, the wearing of the tracker

may have influenced behaviour, in that, knowing they were being observed, some participants perhaps behaved better than they otherwise would have (Cingolani et al., 2016; Hardy et al., 2017). However, this concern as well as the sampling bias concern is alleviated by the fact that this is an experiment and would have equally affected participants in the control as well as the experimental condition.

6.2.3 | *Survey experiment*

We conducted a survey experiment using as respondents panel members on Prolific, an online survey recruitment tool. In total, 200 respondents completed the survey; they were randomly allocated to either the experimental or control condition, splitting the sample in half. Respondents spent a median time of eight minutes completing the survey. They received £1.50 in compensation. We placed demographic restrictions on who could participate, to reflect the characteristics of the typical traveller to Greenland. Greenland is an expensive and off-the-beaten-track destination, appealing to tourists who are wealthy, well-educated, and older (Visit Greenland, 2021). Study participants, therefore, had to be at least 50 years old, hold an undergraduate degree or higher, and self-assess as being at level 5 or above on the socioeconomic ladder ranging from 1 to 10. We also restricted participation to English-speaking countries, to avoid bias resulting from translation, but included only English-speaking countries that are one of Greenland's top source markets for tourism (UK, USA and Canada). By implementing demographic restrictions based on recent market statistics (Visit Greenland, 2021), we generated a panel sample that is representative of typical travellers to Greenland in terms of age, education, socio-economic status, and country of residence. Appendix G provides the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample.

At the beginning of the survey, we primed all participants by immersing them in a hypothetical scenario that attempted to recreate the experience of the field experiment as far as possible. We asked

respondents to imagine going on a cruise to Greenland, arriving at the town of Ilulissat and having the opportunity to visit the icefjord area. We included pictures and an interactive map of the area to immerse participants as deeply as possible in the scenario. Respondents were then asked to imagine boarding a shuttle bus to go to the icefjord area. Respondents who were randomly selected into the experimental condition experienced an extension to this scenario, in which, on the bus, a representative of the local council introduced the pledge to them. They saw a picture of the same pledge used in the field experiment and were asked to sign it using their computer mouse.

We then measured commitment and ascription of responsibility for respondents in both the control and the experimental condition. We measured commitment using an existing 4-item scale developed and validated by Klein et al. (2014). We measured ascription of responsibility using a single item measure which is unambiguous and concrete. The items measuring commitment and ascription of responsibility were randomised within a battery including 4 other distraction items, intended to disguise the researchers' expectations, which, if obvious to survey participants, could influence responses. Respondents answered all items on a sliding scale from 0 ("Not at all") to 100 ("Extremely").

Respondents then completed a series of questions related specifically to one of the three behaviours mentioned in the pledge. This series of questions was repeated for all three of the behaviours in the pledge. We attempted to mitigate social desirability bias by normalising unsustainable behaviours (e.g., "*Because exploring the Ilulissat walking trails is considered a once-in-a-lifetime experience by most visitors, it is perfectly understandable that they don't always behave in ways the local council likes to see*").

We measured cognitive dissonance by using a single item for each of the three behaviours. Cognitive dissonance is defined as a psychologically uncomfortable state (Festinger, 1957). In the survey,

we attempted to arouse cognitive dissonance in respondents by describing a scenario in which they decide to behave in a way that clashes with one of the encouraged behaviours. An example of this dissonance arousal is as follows: “*Now please imagine that you have found a spot to take the perfect photograph, which requires you to leave the marked trail a bit. You decide to do this. How does this make you feel?*” Respondents answered on a sliding scale from 0 (“*I feel OK about it*”) to 100 (“*I feel uncomfortable about it*”).

We measured beliefs using two items for each behaviour, in line with Stern’s (1999) value-belief-norm theory. The item “*To what extent do you feel that [e.g., leaving the marked paths] harms the wilderness area you are visiting?*” measured awareness of consequences/problem awareness, while the item “*To what extent do you feel that you can protect this wilderness area by [e.g. keeping to the marked paths]?*” measured perceived ability to reduce the threat/outcome efficacy. Injunctive norms were measured using a clear, single item for each behaviour. Respondents recorded their answers on a sliding scale from 0 (“*Not at all*”) to 100 (“*Very much so*”).

All survey items are provided in Appendix H. This research adheres to the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. Human ethics approval was granted prior to data collection from the second author’s affiliated institution (ethics approval number: 2022/HE002413).

6.2.4 | Analysis

The GPS tracks were analysed for each participant separately after cleaning them to only contain measurements in the trail region. Coordinates of the marked trails and known pirate trails were recorded similar to the GPS tracking data. The distance of each GPS track measurement was determined to the recorded points of marked trails or known pirate trails and the measurement was classified as on-track if the closest point was from a marked trail and within 25 metres, as on a

pirate trail if the closest point was from a pirate trail and within 25 metres and unclassified otherwise. The length walked and the duration between two successive GPS measurements was determined and assigned the classification of the latter GPS measurement. This information determined for each participant the total length walked, the total duration of the walk, the length walked off-track (combining classifications as walking on pirate trails with those which are unclassified) as well as time walked off-track. This was then used to derive if a participant ever walked off-track and the proportion of walking length as well as walking duration off-track.

To account for a day-specific or cruise-specific effect, all comparisons between treatment groups were performed based on mixed-effects regression models with random intercepts for day / cruise. Depending on the nature of the dependent variable as metric (walking length, walking duration, proportion of length walked off-track, proportion of time walked off-track) or binary (ever walked off-track), a logistic or linear mixed-effects regression model was fitted using maximum likelihood estimation. The treatment group served as independent variable in the regressions. Likelihood ratio tests compared the mixed-effects models with and without treatment group indicator as independent variable to assess significance of the effect. Confidence intervals for the estimated treatment effects were obtained based on the profile likelihood. The additional independent variables such as weather condition and walking length were also assessed in the same way by adding them to the mixed-effects regression models.

The survey data was analysed in the following way. For each multi-item construct a score was obtained by averaging over the single item values. The average values of each of the constructs between the treatment groups were compared using Welch t-tests. The effect sizes were assessed using Cohen's *d*. The predictive performance of the constructs for commitment was assessed using simple and multiple linear regression based on ordinary least squares estimation. The

significance of the effects was based on t-tests for the regression coefficients. The relative importance of the constructs was determined based on the contribution to the proportion of explained variance of the constructs when averaged over orderings among regressors.

6.3 | Results

Figure 6.4 depicts off-trail walking measured via a GPS tracker for the control condition (without a pledge) and the experimental condition (with a pledge). In Figure 6.4, green indicates compliant behaviour of walking along the official trails; red indicates that people moved more than 25 metres off the trail; orange indicates that people used unofficial trails, so-called pirate trails, which are also considered off-trail walking.

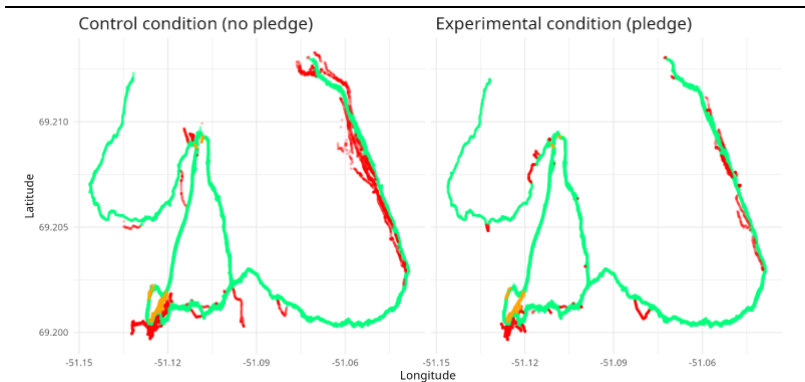


Figure 6.4 | Off-trail walking behaviour. Green colour indicates people moving along the official walking trails. Red colour indicates walking off-trail. Orange colour indicates walking on so-called pirate trails created through repeated off-trail movements by tourists over time.

The random-effects model with random intercepts for day which accounts for differences in ships, weather, and other situational circumstances shows that tourists in the experimental group who signed

the pledge on the bus ride to the walking trails ($n = 253$) displayed significantly less off-trail movement behaviour than those in the control group ($n = 274$). Members of both the control and the experimental group were recruited from each of six cruise ships that visited Ilulissat on 11 different days (with 11 different sets of passengers). There was no difference in the time tourists in these two groups dedicated to exploring the trails on average (1.5 hours in both groups; p -value = 0.143) and in how far they walked on average (3.8 kilometres in both groups; p -value = 0.796).

6.3.1 | Proportion of tourists who left the trail

Of the tourists who did not sign the pledge, 96% left the trail by 25 metres or more at some point during their hike. Of the tourists who did sign the pledge, only 92% left the trail at least once. A binomial logit mixed-effects model shows that the proportion of tourists walking off-trail decreases significantly in log-odds by 0.769 (95% CI: [-1.572, -0.017]) for the experimental group of tourists who signed the pledge.

6.3.2 | Proportion of distance walked off-trail

Participants who did not sign the pledge walked off-trail for 6% of their total distance walked, on average, while participants who did sign the pledge walked off-trail for an average of 4% of their total distance walked. A linear mixed-effects model shows that the proportion of the total distance walked off-trail decreased in average proportion by 0.022 (95% CI: [-0.031, -0.015]) for the pledge group.

6.3.3 | Time spent off-trail

Participants who did not sign the pledge spent 12% of their total time off-trail, on average, while participants who did sign the pledge spent an average of 8% of their total time off-trail. A linear mixed-effects model shows that the total time walked off-trail decreased in average proportion by 0.042 (95% CI: [-0.059, -0.025]).

6.3.4 | *Influence of weather on the effect of the intervention*

Previous research has established that visitors are likely to stay closer to park infrastructure on rainy days (Wilkins et al., 2021). Therefore, the difference in the strength of our intervention could be affected by weather. We categorised weather in two different ways: as a binary variable (Good/Bad), and as a variable with three possible values (Good/Medium/Bad). Including weather in the analysis of proportion of distance walked off-trail and proportion of time spent off-trail did not improve model fit for weather formulated in two or three categories, suggesting that weather conditions do not significantly affect the strength of our pledge intervention.

6.3.5 | *Influence of walk length on the effect of the intervention*

There is evidence that visitors to national parks disperse more in less crowded areas (D'Antonio & Monz, 2016). Because most visitors to our study site start their walk at the same place, those who walk further tend to access more isolated areas. We expect, therefore, that the effectiveness of the pledge intervention may vary depending on how far people walk. We transformed walk length in metres to an ordinal variable (short, medium, long), and included it in the analysis of proportion of time spent off-trail. The model fit did not improve. In the control group, including walk length in the analysis of proportion of distance walked off-trail suggests that tourists who walked further walked a significantly larger proportion off-trail. This is not the case for the experimental group. We can conclude, therefore, that our pledge intervention was more effective in influencing the behaviour of tourists who walked further.

6.3.6 | *Theoretical determinants explaining the effectiveness of pledges*

To ensure that the pledge intervention increased commitment (manipulation check), we compared commitment in the survey study control group that was not exposed to the pledge ($Mean = 82.4, SD =$

20.3) with commitment in the survey study experimental group that was exposed to the pledge ($Mean = 90, SD = 15.4$). Commitment was significantly higher in the experimental group (p -value = 0.003) with a medium effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.423$), confirming that the pledge intervention has the intended effect: it increases the commitment to protect the wilderness area.

To determine if the pledge affects the four psychological determinants proposed in the literature as explanations for pledge interventions (cognitive dissonance, belief activation, injunctive norms, ascription of responsibility), we compared the mean values of these determinants across the control and experimental group of the survey study. Psychological determinants that do not change as a result of exposure to the pledge cannot explain why pledges work. Fig. 6.5a shows that injunctive norms and ascription of responsibility are significantly higher in the experimental group than in the control group (p -value = 0.004, p -value < 0.001, respectively) with medium effect sizes ($d = 0.409, d = 0.577$, respectively), with ascription of responsibility demonstrating a more distinct increase. Cognitive dissonance and beliefs do not significantly differ across the control and experimental conditions.

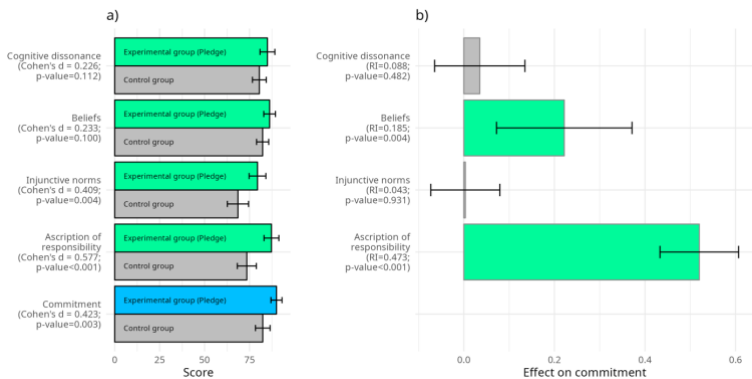


Fig. 6.5 | A comparison of alternative theoretical explanations of the effectiveness of pledge-based commitment strategies. a) Difference across control group (grey) and experimental group (colour) in commitment (significant) and the four psychological determinants hypothesised in prior work to drive increased commitment resulting from pledges: cognitive dissonance (insignificant), beliefs (insignificant), injunctive norms (significant), ascription of responsibility (significant). **b)** Regression coefficients on commitment in a multivariate regression accounting for interaction effects of psychological determinants hypothesised in prior work to drive increased commitment resulting from pledges: cognitive dissonance (insignificant), beliefs (significant), injunctive norms (insignificant), ascription of responsibility (significant).

To determine which of the psychological determinants predicts different levels of commitment to protect the wilderness area, we ran a multiple regression analysis on data from the experimental group only, using commitment as the dependent variable and the four alternative determinants as explanatory variables. Results indicate that all explanatory variables, in isolation, are significantly associated with commitment. After including all four determinants in the multiple regression analysis, cognitive dissonance and injunctive norms are no longer significant, leaving only beliefs (p -value = 0.004) and ascription of responsibility (p -value < 0.001) as predictors of commitment, with the latter having a much larger relative importance as measured by the average contribution to the explained variance ($RI = 0.473$ compared to

$RI = 0.185$). Fig. 6.5b depicts the multiple regression coefficients. Appendix F contains additional numerical results for the survey experiment; Appendix G provides an overview of the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents.

6.4 | Discussion

Commitment-based pledges have emerged as a popular behavioural change approach in the context of protecting wilderness areas that attract a lot of tourist traffic, because they are easy and cheap to deploy. Yet, empirical evidence of the effectiveness of pledges in changing consumer behaviour is scarce, because objective measures of actual behaviour are typically unavailable and there is disagreement on the nature of the theoretical process that occurs when consumers are exposed to a pledge. In our study, a pledge to protect a wilderness area significantly affects actual consumer behaviour: tourists who make a pledge leave the official walking trail less frequently and for shorter periods of time, and walk less far off-trail when they do. Variations in weather condition do not influence the effect of the pledge. This is a positive finding in the context of outdoor recreation, where variations in weather are guaranteed.

Walk length did influence the effect of our pledge on the proportion of distance walked off-trail, with the pledge being more effective when tourists walked further: tourists who did not sign the pledge and walked longer distances displayed a higher extent of off-trail behaviour than tourists who walked shorter distances. This could be explained by tourists who walk longer distances being physically fitter, and possibly more able to negotiate the rocky and sometimes elevated off-trail areas at the site. Alternatively, it could be due to a paradox identified by Alessa et al. (2003): visitors to a national park who had more knowledge of ecology engaged in more depreciative behaviours. The authors speculate that more knowledgeable visitors get closer than is acceptable to flora and fauna because they are motivated by curiosity

about them (Alessa et al., 2003). Assuming participants who hike long distances are likely to have a keen interest in nature (Mayer & Lukács, 2021), our findings offer empirical evidence in support of this interest-paradox.

The theoretical contributions of the present study relate to the psychological process behind our pledge intervention. We find that commitment increases significantly with a medium effect size when people take a pledge, supporting our assumption that this is a commitment-based intervention. The pledge also activates injunctive norms and triggers ascription of responsibility – a feeling of personal responsibility for protecting the wilderness area. Examining the psychological determinants that specifically predict commitment, we find that injunctive norms – while they increase as a result of the pledge – do not emerge as a significant predictor of commitment. The two significant predictors are beliefs and ascription of responsibility. Given that the pledge does not activate beliefs, these results suggest that a person's base beliefs drive commitment, which in turn leads to the desired behaviour. In contrast, ascription of responsibility, the most important predictor of commitment, can effectively be triggered by pledges. Of the four alternative theoretical explanations put forward in existing literature as to why pledges work, ascription of responsibility is most supported by the empirical data in this study.

Van Valkengoed and colleagues (2022) include ascription of responsibility as a determinant of pro-environmental behaviour. However, in their classification, the authors do not link this determinant to commitment interventions, proposing that it is only triggered by information-based interventions. Our study provides evidence in favour of linking commitment-based interventions with ascription of responsibility. According to van Valkengoed and colleagues (2022), commitment interventions trigger personal norms and environmental self-identity, although the authors acknowledge that personal norms can be strengthened by ascription of responsibility. This may suggest that

the mechanism driving behaviour change in response to commitment interventions is more complicated than implied by van Valkengoed and colleagues (2022), whose classification suggests that it is mediated by a single determinant variable. Indeed, it may be the case that commitment interventions trigger ascription of responsibility, which in turn triggers personal norms, which in turn drives pro-environmental behaviour. In this conceptualisation of the mechanism, ascription of responsibility and personal norms would appear as two separate mediating variables. Further research is needed to deconstruct the relationships between these determinants and to shed more light on the psychological process through which commitment-based interventions lead to behavioural change. Ideally, future studies will be designed to incorporate into field experiments measurement of the psychological determinants triggered by interventions, in order to generate more accurate data on how interventions are received in the field. However, it must be acknowledged that in many cases this will be impractical and would risk low response rates.

Our study reveals nuances which further complicate conceptualisations of the psychological process underlying behaviour change. In our survey experiment, commitment to performing a pro-environmental behaviour was triggered by beliefs that were unaffected by the intervention: in other words, by an individual's pre-existing beliefs. Also, our intervention triggered a determinant (injunctive norms) that is not significantly related to a feeling of commitment to performing the pro-environmental behaviour. This suggests that pledge interventions do not simply represent a 'subtype' of commitment intervention, as suggested in previous literature (Wang & Katzev, 1990; Chou et al., 2020; Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020) but may in fact be more accurately conceptualised as a combination of intervention types. Indeed, the treatment delivered in this study consisted not only of participants signing the pledge, but also a short presentation by a municipal representative, to which participants in the

control condition were not exposed. It is possible that this presentation was responsible for setting in motion other psychological mechanisms that became intertwined with the effect of actually signing the pledge. Therefore, when we discuss our treatment, we cannot separate the effect of signing the pledge from the effect of the pledge being presented by the municipal representative. Previous experiments with pledge interventions have also included an element of information delivery as an integral part of the pledge intervention. Pledges have been delivered in a booklet (Witvorapong & Watanapongvanich, 2020), as part of a text message campaign which also offered regular advice for avoiding the undesired behaviour (Heminger et al., 2016), or even following a video message highlighting the problematic behaviour (Webler & Jakubowski, 2016). In these studies, the informational element of the treatment was in no case separated from the actual signing of the pledge. This suggests that references to pledge interventions in existing literature actually refer to a type of intervention which combines commitment, information and perhaps additional intervention types as well. Future studies should experiment with deconstructing and separately examining the various aspects of pledge interventions, in order to further uncover their nuances.

In terms of the study's practical contributions, it is perhaps surprising that 92% of participants who signed the pledge still walked at least 25 metres away from the trail at some point during their visit. In some places (for example, the area on the right-hand side in Fig. 6.4), this could be due to the trail being particularly hard to discern and participants leaving it inadvertently or choosing to avoid the cognitive effort of following it. In other places (for example, the bottom left area in Fig. 6.4), this could be attributed to the visual spectacle of the site, which offers a 'once-in-a-lifetime' experience for many (Ren & Cooper, 2021). Because we know that tourists can forgive themselves for deviant behaviour by leveraging the exceptional quality of an experience (Juvan & Dolnicar, 2014), there is presumably a large

incentive to avoid the target behaviour if it involves getting a better view of a rare phenomenon. In other words, drawing on Schultz (2002), the perceived benefit to self from performing the misbehaviour far outweighs any benefit to others or to the planet achieved by refraining from it.

In the broader context of pro-environmental behaviour change and the environmental significance of behaviour, we must acknowledge that deterrence of our target behaviour is very low-impact relative to the impact caused by travelling to Greenland on a cruise ship in the first place. We must also, therefore, consider the potential for self-licensing created by the pledge intervention. In other words, it is possible that the pledge was perceived by participants as an opportunity to ‘compensate’ for the environmentally detrimental behaviour they had previously engaged in by travelling to Greenland, and that this in some way increased the incentive for them to comply with the desired behaviours expressed in the pledge. In this way, ‘extraordinary’ destinations such as Greenland may facilitate more compliance with pro-environmental behavioural interventions (at least if the target behaviour requires little effort), because they enable visitors to easily dissolve any cognitive dissonance that they might feel as a result of travelling to such a remote place for pleasure. Further research should test the effect of interventions on deviant behaviour at other ‘extraordinary’ sites, in order to shed more light on the uptake of pro-environmental behavioural interventions in these contexts.

Figure 6.4 provides a visual overview of where treated participants left the trail, and can be a useful tool for site managers, who can cross-reference the map with points of interest or changes in topography, in order to shed light on why treated participants still left the trail at particular points. At areas of the site where off-trail walking behaviour is most damaging, managers may need to consider the addition of ‘harder’ interventions, such as signage or physical infrastructure, in order to further deter undesired behaviour.

6.5 | *Conclusion*

In the present study, we have presented 1) a field experiment that develops and tests the effect of a pro-environmental behavioural change intervention on off-trail walking behaviour at a protected natural site, and 2) a survey experiment that empirically investigates which psychological determinants the intervention triggers. Results show that the pledge was successful in reducing off-trail walking behaviour, in terms of frequency of leaving the trail, time spent off-trail, and proportion of distance walked off-trail. Weather does not affect the strength of the intervention, but the intervention is more effective on visitors who walk longer distances overall. Our results indicate that pledge interventions can be an effective management tool for destinations who need to take action to protect fragile wilderness areas, but do not have the resources to police delinquent behaviour. Although our pledge was delivered on paper because of practical considerations, such a pledge could also be delivered online or on an electronic device to further reduce costs and make it even more easy to implement. On a theoretical level, this study has begun to empirically explore proposed theoretical links between intervention types and psychological determinants of behaviour, in some places finding agreement, while in some places revealing more nuances in how behavioural interventions and psychological determinants relate to each other. Our survey experiment confirms that a pledge is a commitment-based intervention, and suggests that the commitment element of the intervention works by triggering ascription of responsibility in pledgers. However, our results also suggest that pledges encompass other types of interventions, which calls for further research on the links between psychological determinants and interventions, and to deconstruct the specific elements making up a pledge intervention.

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Appendix F | Comparison of answer distributions for all constructs across control and experimental groups in the survey

Construct	Condition	Mean	SD	Median	1st Quartile	3rd Quartile	p-value
Commitment	Control	82.38	20.32	90.00	72.50	97.50	0.003
	Experiment	90.00	15.35	97.50	87.50	100.00	
Cognitive dissonance	Control	80.47	19.22	86.67	66.67	96.67	0.112
	Experiment	84.97	20.65	93.33	76.67	100.00	
Beliefs	Control	82.30	16.89	88.33	72.92	95.00	0.100
	Experiment	86.17	16.23	90.00	81.25	98.33	
Injunctive norms	Control	68.57	29.48	76.67	53.33	93.33	0.004
	Experiment	79.43	23.32	86.67	73.33	93.33	
Ascription of responsibility	Control	73.50	26.49	80.00	60.00	100.00	<0.001
	Experiment	87.20	20.65	100.00	80.00	100.00	

p-values are for a Welch *t*-test comparing the mean values across experimental conditions

Appendix G | Demographic characteristics of survey respondents

Variables	Value	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	96	48%
	Female	104	52%
Age groups	50 - 59	118	59%
	60 - 69	63	31.5%
	70+	18	9%
	Unknown	1	0.5%
Socioeconomic status (self-reported on a 'socioeconomic ladder' from 1 to 10)	5	40	20%
	6	57	28.5%
	7	67	33.5%
	8	31	15.5%
	9	4	2%
	10	1	0.5%
Country of residence	UK	44	22%
	USA	150	75%
	Canada	6	3%
Highest completed education	Undergraduate degree	130	65%
	Graduate degree	60	30%
	Doctorate degree	10	5%

Appendix H | Survey Items

Commitment (4 items)
How committed are you to protecting this wilderness area?
How dedicated are you to protecting this wilderness area?
To what extent do you care about this wilderness area?
To what extent have you chosen to be committed to this wilderness area?
Cognitive dissonance (3 items)
Now please imagine that you have found a spot to take the perfect photograph, which requires you to leave the marked trail a bit. You decide to do this. How does this make you feel?
Now please imagine that you take a rest on a bench and eat a yoghurt that you brought with you from the ship. After finishing the yoghurt, you realise that you don't want to put the messy yoghurt pot in your bag with your expensive camera and other belongings. You decide to leave the yoghurt pot on the ground. How does this make you feel?
Now please imagine that you spot your best friend's favourite flower in a huge bed of flowers next to the trail. There are literally hundreds of them. You decide to take one of them so you can bring it to your friend. How does this make you feel?
Beliefs (6 items)
Awareness of consequences (3 items)
To what extent do you feel that leaving the marked paths harms the wilderness area you are visiting?
To what extent do you feel that leaving trash behind harms the wilderness area you are visiting?
To what extent do you feel that moving or taking something from nature harms the wilderness area you are visiting?
Perceived ability to reduce threat (3 items)
To what extent do you feel that you can protect this wilderness area by keeping to the marked paths?
To what extent do you feel that you can protect this wilderness area by taking your trash out of the area with you?
To what extent do you feel that you can protect this wilderness

area by leaving nature as you found it?
Injunctive norms (3 items)
Do you worry that other tourists on the walking trails will disapprove of you if you do NOT keep to the marked paths?
Do you worry that other tourists on the walking trails will disapprove of you if you do NOT take all your trash with you?
Do you worry that other tourists on the walking trails will disapprove of you if you do NOT leave nature as you found it?
Ascription of responsibility (1 item)
To what extent do you feel responsible for protecting this wilderness area?

Chapter 7 | General Discussion

Given that the theoretical contributions of the individual papers are presented in the papers themselves, I will not repeat them here. Rather, the purpose of this general discussion section is to present the ways in which the findings of the thesis papers combine to form overarching theoretical contributions. The section is structured as follows. In section 7.1, I present a model (Figure 7.1) that illustrates how the papers inform each other. In section 7.2, I identify overarching contributions of the thesis: firstly theoretical contributions, which respond to or build off of the points made in Chapter 2, and, secondly practical contributions and knowledge dissemination activities.

7.1 | Theoretical contributions carried between papers

This PhD has unfolded somewhat chronologically, with Paper 1 being finalised first and forming a knowledge base for Papers 2 and 3, and Paper 2 offering findings that inform Paper 3. Figure 7.1 (below) is an adaptation of Figure 2.1 (section 2.1), with a focus on how the three thesis papers inform each other, and on which specific findings have been taken forward to other papers. The black-framed text boxes in Figure 7.1 present the specific findings from Papers 1 and 2 which informed Papers 2 and 3.

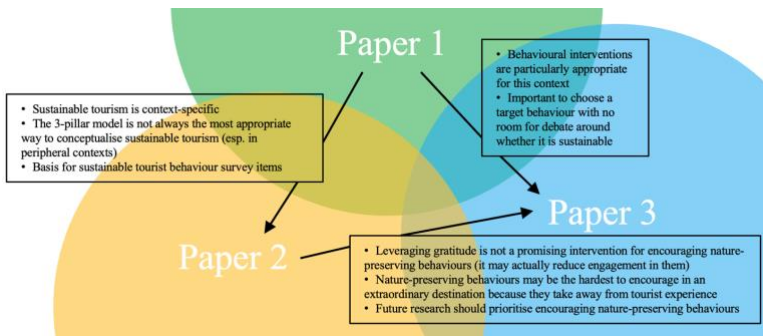


Figure 7.1 | Findings from the thesis papers that inform other thesis papers.

7.2 | *Overarching theoretical contributions of the thesis*

In this section, I identify five theoretical contributions of the thesis that cut across multiple or all of its papers. I also refer to points made previously in Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework and Background, in order to position the contributions more firmly in the literature, deepen the discussion of them, and explore their implications for future research. For each contribution, I have identified a field of literature that it speaks to. This is not to suggest that each contribution speaks only to one field of literature, especially since some of the ‘fields’ are more accurately sub-fields of the tourism literature (such as sustainable tourism and tourist psychology). Rather, I choose the (sub)field of literature for which I judge the contribution has most relevance. Academic literature on tourism is extremely broad and draws on many different disciplines, so I prefer to be as specific as possible about where I position my contribution. I also try to be as specific as possible about the content of each contribution, in the interest of making them easily accessible and increasing their likelihood of being brought forward into future research.

I interpret a theoretical contribution to denote not just knowledge that is completely new or that contradicts an existing theory, but also to encompass observations that have been made before but only by a

minority of research, and that are foundationally important to the field. I believe it is important to highlight these types of findings as theoretical contributions, because, especially in contexts in which perspectives are marginalised, unless they are brought forward with authority, they are likely to be forgotten. Along these lines, I also reflect on the *types* of theoretical contributions that I present as stemming from this thesis. Not all theoretical contributions are ground-breaking: in fact, they rarely are, and sometimes the pressure to frame them as such leads us to neglect the existing academic work upon which they build (Dolbec et al., 2021; Sandberg & Alvesson, 2021). I wish to avoid this, so in being explicit about the nature of my contributions, I hope it becomes clear where and how they incorporate the work of others.

In presenting my contributions, I draw on, where relevant, Fischer's three types of theorising (Fischer, 2015; Figueiredo et al., 2017), Fischer's practices of enabled theorising (Dolbec et al., 2021), and Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) typology of theories, in order to solidify my claim that these arguments are indeed theoretical contributions. While Fischer's (2015) typology of theory generation (explained in more detail in section 2.5) classifies theoretical contributions in terms of their relationship to the phenomenon under investigation and to existing theory, Sandberg and Alvesson (2021) categorise different types of theory generation by considering the theory's purpose – i.e. what implications the contribution has for the way we think about phenomena and existing theory. I find it relevant to apply Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) perspective to my theoretical contributions as well, as it aligns with the overarching research philosophy of this thesis, pragmatism, which understands research efforts as primarily concerned with their practical usefulness (see section 3.2).

7.2.1 | *Contribution 1: Nuancing current thought around the conceptualisation of sustainable tourism*

*Speaking to literature on **sustainable tourism***

Contribution 1 is first revealed in Paper 1 (through emergent theorising) and then further built upon in Paper 2 (which primarily uses enabled theorising). Therefore, Fischer's examples of enabled theorising practices can also apply here; specifically relevant is ontological originality. Ontological originality, according to Dolbec et al. (2021), expands existing conceptualisations of fundamental phenomena by expanding ontological perspectives. Because of its character of ontological expansion (which, in the case of this contribution, also challenges existing ontological understandings), Contribution 1 can also be seen as an example of Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) provoking theory, the main purpose of which is not to understand or explain phenomena, but to offer alternative or disruptive ways of seeing them. The specific contribution of theory generation in the context of provoking theory is to reconstruct a phenomenon in a way that challenges current thinking (Sandberg & Alvesson, 2021), which is what Contribution 1 does regarding the phenomenon of sustainable tourism.

In Paper 1, I argued that (especially in peripheral contexts) the classic 3-pillar model is an inappropriate way to conceptualise sustainable tourism. This led me (in Paper 2) to develop a typology of sustainable tourist behaviour inductively using my quantitative survey data, rather than applying an already existing typology to my conceptual model. The resulting typology groups the behavioural items in a way that in some places draws from multiple of the 3 pillars; for example, the group Conscious Provider Choice includes the items Choosing an accommodation/tour provider which I know is locally-owned and Choosing an accommodation/tour provider which I know has a low environmental impact. These items include aspects of all

three pillars. Similarly, the sustainable tourist behaviour Eating locally-sourced food could conceivably be placed in all three pillars (environmental, social, and economic). This supports my conclusion in Paper 1 that alternative ways to conceptualise sustainable tourism should be considered. I argue that this novel typology of sustainable tourist behaviour is an important theoretical contribution for three main reasons: (1) it more appropriately represents the types of sustainable behaviours that tourists engage in, (2) contrary to the classic 3-pillar model, there is no room for debate around which behaviours belong in which category, and (3) in contrast to many existing scales of sustainable tourist behaviour which tend to be study-specific, the categories in our typology can be applied generally across destinations.

These conclusions will not necessarily be surprising to scholars who are engaged with sustainable tourism practices in peripheries. In the discussion section of Paper 1, I have referenced a handful of authors whose work these findings deepen or complexify (Cheer et al., 2016; Kulusjärvi, 2017; Heikkinen et al., 2020; Lasso & Dahles, 2021; Pasgaard et al., 2021; Scheyvens et al., 2021). However, these contributions are significant because they reinforce an emerging stream of research that is highlighting the problematic nature of applying blanket conceptualisations of and solutions for sustainable tourism across destinations. In destinations in which core-periphery dynamics are at play, this practice is particularly problematic because peripheral perspectives that contradict the core are likely to be marginalised and ignored. If they are taken seriously and integrated into accepted knowledge, these contributions can be influential in shaping future theories about sustainable tourism.

Another conclusion running through the thesis that relates to the conceptualisation of sustainable tourism is the finding that solutions relating to one aspect of sustainable tourism can result in negative impacts in other areas. This argument was made in Paper 1, in which I found that sustainable tourism solutions framed as ‘win-win’ are

sometimes only such when viewed from one perspective, and that incorporating other perspectives can reveal stakeholders who lose out from such a solution. In Paper 2, this phenomenon was also revealed by the quantitative data collected among previous tourists to Greenland. Although the Experience Nature motivation positively predicted tourists consciously choosing providers, it negatively predicted nature-preserving behaviours. Similarly, although Gratitude positively predicted socially, environmentally and culturally sustainable behaviours, it negatively predicted environmentally sustainable behaviours. Had nature-preserving behaviours not been measured in this study, the conclusion might have been that nature-seeking tourists have exclusively positive impacts on the destination, which may have sent planning efforts for sustainable tourism in a counter-productive direction. Although it is easier to improve aspects of sustainable tourism in isolation, future research should always consider the impacts of proposed solutions for other areas of sustainable tourism. This knowledge feeds into the design of Paper 3, in that I chose a target behaviour in which increased engagement would not lead to negative impacts in other areas of sustainability. It also contributes to an emerging argument in the tourist behaviour literature that the search for an ‘all-round’ sustainable tourist is futile; rather, efforts should be focused on understanding different segments of sustainable tourists who engage in different types of sustainable behaviour.

The behavioural items in Paper 2 that relate only to the environmental aspect of sustainable tourism (Keeping a good distance from wildlife and Keeping to the path when walking in nature) were placed by our typology in a group of their own. These behaviours also differ from the other behaviours in the study in that they are the only behaviours to have negative relationships with the Experience Nature motivation, the Social Prestige motivation, and Gratitude. This seems to suggest a division between environmentally sustainable behaviours and socially sustainable behaviours (if socially sustainable behaviours are

now taken to include economically and culturally sustainable behaviours, for purposes of ease). In the discussion section of Paper 2, my co-authors and I consider some of the differences between pro-environmental tourist behaviours and pro-social tourist behaviours. We suggest that pro-environmental tourist behaviours tend to be mitigative and involve setting limits to tourists' immersion in the destination environment. Pro-social behaviours, on the other hand, require increased immersion in the destination community, economy and culture. I believe this is an important distinction that may help to explain why nature-preserving behaviours are poorly explained in Paper 2. It could be that engagement in pro-environmental behaviours is seen as taking away from the tourist experience, while engagement in pro-social behaviours provides opportunities for additional or deeper experiences.

These two general categories of sustainable tourist behaviour (environmental vs. social) can also be seen to work against each other on a broader level. Hindley and Font (2018) note that a motivation to engage in pro-social tourist behaviours (such as supporting local communities in disappearing destinations) can create negative environmental impacts in terms of CO₂ emissions, and vice versa: reducing negative environmental impacts by avoiding travel can result in catastrophic consequences for local communities who rely on tourism. Although Hindley and Font's (2018) dilemma is now widely acknowledged in tourism academia and practice, it is interesting to see a somewhat similar dilemma play out on an in-destination level in this thesis. It is difficult to see how to move forward with the knowledge that key psychological constructs can have opposing effects on different types of in-destination sustainable tourist behaviours, but future research should continue to dissect these dynamics and generate more understanding of the conditions under which certain behaviours can be encouraged while avoiding negative impacts on other behaviours.

7.2.2 | *Contribution 2: A deeper exploration of the significance of emotions for sustainable tourist behaviour*
Speaking to literature on tourist psychology

This contribution represents a deeper exploration of a phenomenon that has significance for knowledge about tourist psychology, but that we do not know enough about. According to Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) typology, Contribution 2 is an example of *explaining theory*, which aims to understand phenomena by conceptualising them as causally-related sets of variables and generating knowledge about these causal relations. This is the approach taken in Paper 2, through which Contribution 2 is revealed. I have already argued (in section 2.5) that Paper 2 is partly an example of Fischer's (2015) enabled theorising, which aims to better explain previously been under-theorised aspects of phenomena. Dolbec et al. (2021) identify various different specific practices of enabled theorising. Of these practices, Contribution 2 most closely aligns with *furthering ongoing conversations* (which introduces new conceptual insights to an existing topical discussion) and *sensitising concepts* (which reveals previously hidden aspects of processes or phenomena) (Dolbec et al., 2021). In this way, Contribution 2 is arguably an example of the most common type of theory generation in the social sciences (Sandberg & Alvesson, 2021), as it develops a more comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon by offering new knowledge about its explanatory variables and how they relate to established aspects of the phenomenon.

In section 2.3.2, I argued that consumer decision-making in tourism is located largely in the realm of the emotional, that emotions can play a significant role in tourist behaviour, and that more academic focus should be placed on this role (Cohen et al., 2014; Nawijn & Biran, 2019; Bowen, 2022). In section 3.3, I proposed that extraordinary destinations are highly affective and can trigger intense positive and negative emotions (Arnould & Price, 1993; Laing & Crouch, 2005;

Lundberg et al., 2022). In particular, there are calls for research on which specific felt emotions influence which sustainable tourist behaviours, and how they are triggered (Buda et al., 2014; Cohen et al., 2014; Gezhi & Xiang, 2022; Xiong et al., 2023). This thesis has identified two emotions that have relevance for sustainable tourist behaviour, developed and operationalised them, and begun to explore their relationships with different types of sustainable tourist behaviour. The emotion of Gratitude is revealed as a positive predictor of socially, economically and culturally sustainable tourist behaviours, but a negative predictor of environmentally sustainable tourist behaviours. Entitlement did not emerge as a significant predictor of sustainable behaviours in most cases, but it has a negative effect on *Active Engagement with Culture*, and also works to suppress the positive relationship between Social Prestige and *Active Engagement with Culture*.

Although the influence of these emotions on sustainable tourist behaviours is weaker than the influence of motivations, the finding that the same emotion can have opposite effects on different types of sustainable tourist behaviours is important in terms of understanding the role of emotions in tourist behaviour. Paper 2 also began to explore how the emotions of Gratitude and Entitlement may relate to each other. Although feelings of Gratitude among survey participants were generally high, and feelings of Entitlement were generally low, results indicate that the two constructs do not represent opposite poles of a unidimensional construct. This is suggested, firstly, by the finding that their relationships with other constructs do not perfectly oppose each other, and secondly, by the fact that construct reliability is poor when the gratitude items and reverse-coded entitlement items are tested for reliability together. Contribution 2 as a whole demonstrates that specific felt emotions can have important and intriguing implications for sustainable tourist behaviour, and should inspire further research in this direction, particularly within extraordinary destinations.

7.2.3 | *Contribution 3: Support for the claim that the tourism context can advance knowledge on sustainable consumer behaviour in hedonic contexts*

*Speaking to literature on **consumer behaviour***

Contribution 3 provides support for a theoretical claim that already exists in the tourism literature, but which I argue represents an opportunity for theoretical advancement of the sustainable consumer behaviour literature in general. In relation to Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) typology, Contribution 3 can be considered an example of provoking theory (as explained above in section 7.2.1), as it presents novel findings that support an already existing but challenging claim, and can thereby contribute to the claim being taken more seriously. Although this claim is somewhat provocative because it is based on relationships that contradict existing understandings of sustainable consumer behaviour, it also has an ultimate interest in explaining sustainable consumer behaviour, so can be considered an example of explaining theory (as defined in section 7.2.2) as well.

It has been argued in the tourism literature for at least two decades that standard theories of consumer behaviour can fail to explain consumer behaviour in tourism, because of its unique contextual cues (March & Woodside, 2005; McKercher et al., 2012), including its hedonic quality (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Cohen et al., 2014). However, this literature has failed to make a major impact on the consumer behaviour literature more generally (Cohen et al., 2014), with only a few consumer behaviour studies specifically addressing sustainable behaviour in the context of tourism (e.g. McDonald et al., 2009; Rishi et al., 2015). A stream of consumer behaviour literature acknowledges the importance of situational elements on sustainable consumption, arguing that events that occur infrequently, are considered 'special', or that take place away from home, trigger hedonic goals which lead to unsustainable consumption (Hofmann et

al., 2012; Steg et al., 2014; Horgan et al., 2019; Rosenfeld & Tomiyama, 2019; Bouwman et al., 2021; Papies et al., 2022; Laffan et al., 2023). Following these criteria, tourism can be argued to represent an extreme case of hedonic consumption, as a tourism experience is often a monumental pleasure-focused event that has been years in the planning and that removes a consumer drastically from their home context.

The current thesis has revealed some puzzling relationships concerning sustainable behaviour in the highly hedonic situation of visiting an extraordinary destination. For example, it has provided support for the paradoxical proposition that strongly nature-seeking tourists are more likely to behave in harmful ways towards nature. It has also suggested that hedonic aspects of a tourism experience (such as level of immersion in the destination) can lead to the same psychological antecedent having positive effects on some types of sustainable tourist behaviours but negative effects on others. This kind of knowledge (as well as other relevant findings from the existing tourism literature) should be incorporated into consumer behaviour research to advance knowledge about the relationship between hedonism and sustainable consumer behaviour.

7.2.4 | Contribution 4: Generation of new theoretical knowledge on behavioural interventions and their determinants

*Speaking to literature on **behaviour change***

Contribution 4 represents a more traditional theoretical contribution in that it is an example of generation of new knowledge that contradicts and nuances an existing theoretical framework. This contribution stems mainly from Paper 3, which I have already argued (in section 2.5) develops theory through Fischer's (2015) enfolded theorising, by amending or enriching a major accepted theory. It can also be considered an example of Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) explaining theory (as defined in section 7.2.2).

This contribution applies to literature beyond tourism, to behaviour change more generally. Behavioural intervention studies in various domains have been criticised for not advancing theory often enough (Steg & Vlek, 2009; van der Linden, 2014; Sun et al., 2020; Busalim et al., 2022; Souza-Neto et al., 2022; Jain et al., 2023). The current thesis (specifically in Paper 3) makes a theoretical contribution by supporting an intervention field study with a systematic test of the psychological determinants underlying the intervention. This responds to existing calls in the literature for more testing of the relationships between behavioural interventions and the psychological determinants they trigger (Steg & Vlek, 2009; Michie et al., 2018; van Valkengoed et al., 2022). To our knowledge, this is the first time the psychological determinants underlying a pledge intervention have been empirically tested, and our findings in some places contradict existing literature, and in some places nuance it (van Valkengoed et al., 2022). Our results suggest that commitment-based interventions should be linked to the psychological determinant of ascription of responsibility, and that pledge interventions should be considered a separate type of behavioural intervention, rather than a sub-type of commitment interventions. These findings contradict existing literature and thereby contribute new theoretical knowledge around behavioural interventions and the psychology of behaviour change. Paper 3 also employs a research design that to our knowledge is novel. Following our template of a field experiment that tests a behavioural intervention supported by a survey experiment that investigates how the intervention works on a psychological level (beyond simply conducting a manipulation check), future studies can make more comprehensive contributions to both practical and theoretical knowledge.

7.2.5 | *Contribution 5: Proposing and highlighting the relevance of a novel type of case – the extraordinary destination*
*Speaking to literature on **sustainable tourism, tourist behaviour & tourist psychology***

Contribution 5 is a *proposal for the recognition and development of a novel type of case*. This contribution is closest in nature to Sandberg and Alvesson's (2021) *ordering theory*, which denotes a type of theoretical contribution that categorises complex phenomena in ways that make the phenomenon more theoretically useful. The aim of *ordering theory* is to develop classifications that allow for more nuanced understandings of phenomena and for new ways of thinking about them (Sandberg & Alvesson, 2021).

In section 3.3, I first introduced a novel type of tourism case, namely the extraordinary case/extraordinary destination. I conceptualised the case type by combining literature on extraordinary experiences in tourism and on an extreme form of tourism that has been labelled 'frontier tourism' (Laing & Crouch, 2005). I also referred to literature on ambassadorship, climate icons and last chance tourism to suggest that the extraordinary destination has significance for sustainable behaviour in tourism, although current knowledge is uncertain on the extent and the direction of this significance. The question to address now, in light of the contributions of this thesis, is whether I can argue that the extraordinary case is indeed novel, and (more importantly) whether it has implications that make it worthy of increased academic attention. I will argue in this section, by developing a discussion around contributions from my three papers, that extraordinary destinations have significance as a novel type of case for three main reasons: (1) there are urgent implications for nature in such destinations, (2) they help to reveal an important segment of tourists who deserve increased academic attention, and (3) their relevance for tourism literature and practice is becoming increasingly important into the future.

7.2.5.1 | *Implications for nature in extraordinary destinations*

In describing the characteristics of an extraordinary destination in section 3.3.3, I argued that it must offer something spectacular: something unusual, impressive or rare for tourists to do or see. Often (and especially in the case of the relevant literature I have reviewed on climate icons and last chance tourism), this something spectacular is connected to nature (Maher et al., 2001; O'Neill & Hulme, 2009; Vila et al., 2016). The literature on frontier tourism agrees that frontier tourists seek out places with pristine natural beauty in which they can immerse deeply (Laing & Crouch, 2011; Frost, 2021). Paper 2 of this thesis suggests that this also applies to tourists to Greenland, as Experience Nature was the highest-scoring motivation among respondents, with a mean of 4.21 out of 5. The literature on climate icons and last chance tourism is also based around the crucial detail that the nature-based pull factors in these destinations are extremely fragile, and this is why the nature-seeking motivation has particular significance for extraordinary destinations. There is potential for considerable damage in environments where visitors wish to immerse in nature that is extremely vulnerable.

Paper 2 revealed that the more a tourist is motivated to experience nature or by social prestige, the less likely they are to preserve nature. I have speculated that this could be connected to tourists' urge to immerse (because of their interest in nature or a desire for status-enhancement among their peers), in that nature-preserving behaviours take away from that immersion potential (because they require tourists to, for example, stick to the marked trail). The results of Paper 3 show that visitors to a natural wilderness area who hiked the furthest were the least well-behaved in terms of keeping to the marked trail. These findings provide support for a minority of relevant literature that argues for a 'nature interest paradox', in which tourists who have a particular interest in nature engage in the most nature-depreciative behaviours (Alessa et al., 2003; Stem et al., 2003; Dolnicar et al., 2008). This is an

important contribution on an academic level because it contradicts most of the relevant literature and can change the way that nature-based tourists are understood. It should be acknowledged that an interest in a particular destination aspect does not necessarily denote concern for the protection of that destination aspect. On a managerial level, this finding has serious implications for extraordinary destinations like Greenland, which tend to market themselves based mainly on their natural assets (Visit Greenland, 2021).

On the positive side, Paper 3 confirmed that it is possible to encourage engagement in nature-preserving behaviours using behavioural interventions. However, even after treatment the level of misbehaviour in our study remained high. I suggest that this is partly due to the extraordinary nature of the case context; in an extraordinary destination, the lure of the spectacular nature is so strong that it encourages a high baseline level of misbehaviour. This suggests that extraordinary destinations should be approached differently if nature-depreciative behaviours are to be kept to an absolute minimum. Many extraordinary (and peripheral) destinations face a dilemma in that they lack the human and financial resources to implement harder interventions such as prohibitive infrastructure. On the other hand, soft behavioural interventions seem to work in these environments but they do not create enough change. This is a dilemma that requires further investigation through future research collaborations between industry and academia.

7.2.5.2 | *Extraordinary destinations: WEIRD visitors?*

In section 3.3.3 I argued that extraordinary destinations are destinations for the social elite (Laing & Crouch, 2005). Indeed, the WEIRD acronym (Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich, Democratic) accurately describes the demographic that visits Greenland (Visit Greenland, 2022), and this is also confirmed by the demographic characteristics of survey participants in Paper 2 (Table 5.1). The notion

of 'WEIRD visitors' refers to the demographic characteristics of the segment, but also to the suggestion that visitors to extraordinary destinations deserve specific academic attention because they may have peculiar psychological tendencies in relation to sustainable tourist behaviour. The 'explorer' narrative that underlines frontier travel (Laing & Crouch, 2009), and that arguably partly motivates visitors to extraordinary destinations, is definitively a Western construction, evoking the colonial pasts of origin countries (ibid.) and labelling inhabited landscapes as 'untouched'. The tourism experiences offered by extraordinary destinations are often not 'luxurious' in the material sense of the word (referring to a high standard of living, comforts or pleasure), but it has been argued that 'luxury' can refer also to things that are simply unavailable in one's ordinary life (and that thereby are extraordinary) (MacCannell, 2013). In this sense, extraordinariness can be luxurious, and one can imagine that it lends prestige (Laing & Crouch, 2009). As revealed by Paper 2 of this thesis, social prestige can be an intriguing tourist motivation in terms of sustainable behaviour in extraordinary destinations; it can positively predict some sustainable behaviours, but for those visitors in whom it also triggers entitlement, it can negatively predict the same type of sustainable behaviours.

I have argued that extraordinary destinations are attractive to WEIRD tourists because they offer prestige and luxury (in the form of extraordinariness). The literature on ambassadorship argues that WEIRD tourists are likely to have power and influence in the societies where they live (Alexander et al., 2019). We also know from the literature on pro-environmental consumption more broadly that the wealthiest individuals in WEIRD societies emit disproportionately large amounts of greenhouse gases (Kartha et al., 2020; Nielsen et al., 2021). These characteristics of WEIRD visitors support the conceptualisation of extraordinary destinations as an influential type of case in tourism, because they illustrate that typical visitors to these destinations can have significant social and environmental impacts on the destination,

and also in their home societies, which house future and potential visitors to extraordinary destinations.

7.2.5.3 | *The increasing future relevance of the extraordinary destination*

In section 3.3, I argued that visitors to extraordinary destinations follow in the footsteps of frontier travellers; in other words, in becoming a place that is available to visit, a place transitions from being a frontier to being an extraordinary destination. As “the edge of the tourist world” (MacCannell, 2013, p. 168) expands, new extraordinary destinations become available to those visitors who are not pioneering people but are pioneering tourists. In recent years, numerous previously inaccessible places have transitioned into the realm of the tourist world; Virgin Galactic and SpaceX have taken tourists into space (Frost & Frost, 2022), and the depths of our oceans have become available to visit by the super-rich (Hardy et al., 2023).

Similar justifications to those previously mentioned around ambassadorship among tourists to Antarctica are often leveraged in justifying travel to these emerging destinations. For example, the ‘overview effect’, triggered by seeing the Earth from space, is often cited as a justification for travelling to space (Frost & Frost, 2022). This refers to a transformative cognitive shift that supposedly results in changes to one’s value system and an acute awareness of the Earth’s fragility (ibid.). A similar shift in one’s values and behaviours is described in the Antarctic ambassadorship narrative (Maher et al., 2001; Vila et al., 2016; Alexander et al., 2019). Examining the rise of extraordinary destinations collectively, and the motivations and justifications of the people who aspire to visit them, can solidify learnings concerning the future of extreme travel, in which direction the mass tourists are headed, and what the impacts of this could be.

7.3 | *Final thoughts: The wicked problem (or grand challenge?) of tourism*

Within the industry, an oft-proposed solution to the ongoing dilemma of achieving sustainable tourism in Greenland is targeting the ‘exclusive’ or ‘luxury’ market. This is based on an assumption that attracting only the wealthiest visitors will create positive economic impacts while avoiding a growth in numbers that has detrimental environmental and sometimes social impacts. However, as I have argued previously, this approach may come with its own problems in that these cultural encounters may perpetuate core-periphery or (post)colonial dynamics, and that this segment in general is responsible for a disproportionately large negative environmental impact.

Other arguments against the approach of targeting the exclusive market are based around the opinion that travel and the positive personal impacts thereof should be available to everyone, rather than only to a select group of already-privileged consumers (Krippendorf, 1987; Jurjonas & Aldana, 2020; Taylor, 2022). The notion of everyone in the world engaging in the same travel activities is obviously far from sustainable; indeed, even at its current level, the way we practice tourism is unsustainable. At the same time, tourism is economically important for many people who call tourism destinations their home. The situation seems to point to the conclusion that, if tourism is to continue, then at the very least some restriction is needed. Do we let the market decide on who should be able to travel, or do we intervene and make restrictions on the privileged so that the benefits of travel can be more equally distributed across society? This is one of tourism’s wicked problems (or grand challenges), depending on the level of optimism one would like to imbue it with.

One of the reasons that extraordinary destinations have significance as case studies is that they are an extreme representation of this grand challenge: for those extraordinary destinations with a resident

population, the positive impacts of tourism are often crucial to fulfilling their basic human needs. However, the negative impacts of travelling to extraordinary destinations are also exaggerated: landscapes, ecology and communities are more fragile than elsewhere in the world, and visitors must often travel longer distances to reach them. In relation to the latter, this thesis has shown that extraordinary destinations can create new dilemmas. Specifically, it is suggested in Paper 3 that the success of the behavioural intervention tested could have been due to a licensing effect; because participants were aware of the damage they had already caused by travelling on a cruise ship to get to Greenland, they could have subconsciously complied with the desired behaviour to compensate for their previous 'bad' behaviour. Future research should try to combine measurement of in-destination behaviours with measurement of broader travel behaviours (such as long-haul air travel), to understand whether the success of behavioural interventions in extraordinary destinations is connected to tourists reconciling their guilt about their travel behaviour. Eventually, maybe, research can reach an answer on whether the opportunities for behaviour change presented by extraordinary destinations, or the benefit of tourism to these destinations, can outweigh the damage caused by travelling there.

Although this thesis has explicitly adopted a research approach of 'pragmatism with an agenda' (see section 3.2), the papers have repeatedly revealed findings that seem to contradict each other and prohibit the identification of a single ethical path. Indeed, even when outlining the theoretical background of this thesis, my review of understandings of sustainability in tourism (in section 2.2.1) revealed disagreement between different streams of literature within the tourism field. Table 7.1 (below) presents the paradoxical contributions revealed in the thesis papers, as well as relevant paradoxical phenomena that have come to light in this overall discussion. Where existing research has also contributed to the arguments presented in Table 7.1, I have referenced it.

<p>‘Win-win’ sustainable tourism solutions often result in negative impacts in other areas of sustainability (Kaae, 2006; Graybill & Petrov, 2020).</p>
<p>Gratitude can both positively and negatively influence STBs.</p>
<p>Hedonic/self-indulgent motivations (e.g. Social Prestige) can encourage some STBs (like active engagement in culture and conscious provider choice) (Bachman et al., 2021; Beall et al., 2021; Boley & Woosnam, 2020). But Social Prestige can also reduce other types of STBs (e.g. nature preservation).</p>
<p>Nature-seekers are more likely to consciously choose providers, but less likely to preserve nature.</p>
<p>Visitors to extraordinary destinations want ‘untouched’ landscapes that they can immerse in (Laing & Crouch, 2011; Frost, 2021).</p>
<p>Immersion in a destination is good for socially, economically and culturally STBs, but bad for environmentally STBs (at least nature-preserving ones).</p>
<p>Socially, economically and culturally STBs often seem to contradict environmentally STBs in terms of their antecedents.</p>
<p>This contradiction also plays out on a broader level, as positive environmental travel behaviour (e.g. avoiding long-haul destinations) often works against many socially, economically and culturally STBs (Swarbrooke, 1999; Duvat, 2010; Hindley & Font, 2018; Booyens, 2022).</p>
<p>Extraordinary destinations can encourage compliance with in-destination STBs, but require damaging travel behaviours, and can also encourage more baseline misbehaviour.</p>
<p>Extraordinary destinations need harder interventions but don’t have the resources to implement them.</p>
<p>WEIRD visitors have the resources to visit peripheral/extraordinary destinations and make a positive economic impact, but they pollute the most and can perpetuate (post)colonial dynamics (Diagne, 2004; Müller & Jansson, 2006; Cheer et al., 2016; Kartha et al., 2020; Nielsen et al., 2021).</p>

Table 7.1 | Paradoxical thesis contributions. STBs = sustainable tourist behaviours.

The above dilemmas, many of which are exaggerated in extraordinary destinations, make it extremely difficult to pinpoint the most pragmatic direction to pursue in terms of sustainable tourist behaviour in these types of places. Many of the thesis contributions seem to highlight an ethical path, but taken in the context of other findings, this path becomes less straightforward. It seems the best overall contribution this thesis can make is to highlight points where paths that were previously considered sustainable may actually work against sustainability in other ways. The thesis has exposed specific relationships where this is the case (see Table 7.1 above for examples). The clear recommendation presented by these thesis contributions is that tourism researchers and practitioners should not work in silos when it comes to sustainability; assumptions about the positive impacts of sustainability initiatives should always be thoroughly tested before implementation. At the risk of sounding too pessimistic, perhaps it should be assumed that there will always be negative impacts in other areas of sustainable tourism and these should actively be sought out.

The paradoxical phenomena highlighted in Table 7.1 can lead to tourism academics and practitioners arguing amongst themselves about, for example, the comparative importance of environmental or social sustainability, or whether citizens from developed or undeveloped nations should have priority to travel. This distracts attention from the more urgent goal of transforming tourism (as a whole) into an industry which can convincingly operate in a sustainable manner. If we do not achieve this soon then we risk the collapse of the sector altogether. Viewing sustainability in tourism more holistically can not only help tourism stakeholders to see the pitfalls of initiatives before they reveal themselves, but it can also speed up the achievement of the ultimate goal of transforming tourism into a sustainable practice.

7.4 | Practical contributions and knowledge dissemination

This PhD thesis is the result of an Industrial PhD, meaning that as a researcher I have had a responsibility to the industry, not only to disseminate the knowledge created, but also to develop knowledge that has implementable results for tourism organisations. Although numerous practical contributions have already crept into the discussion so far, I would like to make my contribution to the industry clear by highlighting some concrete actions that tourism managers and practitioners can take based on this thesis. Table 7.2 (below) outlines the main practical contributions, also noting in which area and for which kinds of industry stakeholders they are most relevant.

Planning for sustainable tourism (on a destination level):
<i>For destination planners and managers:</i>
Consider how contextual aspects of your destination shape sustainable tourism.
Be aware of ‘stakeholder trade-offs’ in sustainable tourism (i.e. where solutions are sustainable for some but unsustainable for others).
<i>For tourism operators and other stakeholders:</i>
Powerful stakeholders should include marginalised stakeholders in sustainable tourism solutions and make room for their perspectives.
All stakeholders should be aware of when political dynamics might be shaping perspectives on sustainable tourism.
Encouraging sustainable tourist behaviour in destinations:
<i>For tourism managers:</i>
Use our novel typology of sustainable tourist behaviour to select the behaviour group(s) that are most important for you, and use the model results to market to relevant tourists or manage tourists in the relevant way.
Use our novel typology to encourage multiple sustainable tourist behaviours at the same time.
Try to trigger gratitude in tourists, but only in contexts where nature-preserving behaviours do not apply.
<i>For tourism managers in extraordinary destinations:</i>
Focus on encouraging nature-preserving behaviours (because they may

be the hardest to encourage in these contexts).
<i>For tourism marketers:</i>
Stop trying to attract all-round sustainable tourists: rather work with segments of different types of sustainable tourists (using results from our model).
Encouraging sustainable tourist behaviour specifically in protected natural areas:
<i>For managers of protected natural areas:</i>
Consider introducing a tourist pledge to encourage nature-preserving behaviours; they reduce off-trail walking and are effective in any weather.
Design tourist pledges so that they trigger responsibility and injunctive norms in pledgers.
<i>For managers at the Ilulissat Icefjord UNESCO World Heritage Site:</i>
Use the visual overview of off-trail behaviour (Figure 6.4) to make site management decisions (e.g. to decide where to introduce additional/harder interventions).

Table 7.2 | Main practical contributions of the thesis.

The implementation of this thesis’ practical contributions has already begun through knowledge dissemination activities. Table 7.3 (below) outlines the main channels through which I have disseminated findings from my PhD research.

Activity / Event	Format	Audience	Available at (if applicable):
VG / AECO Cruise Industry Workshops (May 2020, March 2022 & May 2023)	Presentation	Greenlandic & international cruise tourism industry	https://traveltrade.visitgreenland.com/webinars/
Internal presentations (x 4)	Presentation	VG employees	N/A
B2B article: <i>Greenland's Changing Cruise Industry: Key Takeaways from Cruise Workshop, May 2020</i>	Written article (online)	Greenlandic & international tourism industry	https://traveltrade.visitgreenland.com/latest-news/greenland-changing-cruise-industry-key-takeaways-from-cruise-workshop-may-2020/
AECO Townhall meeting, October 2020	Presentation	AECO employees & members	N/A
Industry reports (x 2)	Written report	Greenlandic & international tourism industry	N/A
Sustainability workshop for VG employees	Workshop	VG employees	N/A
Reframing VG's market segmentation model	Marketing strategy	Greenlandic & international tourism industry	https://traveltrade.visitgreenland.com/latest-news/new-simplified-segmentation/
Podcast: <i>"What do we know about the tourists who come to Greenland?"</i>	Podcast	Greenlandic & international tourism industry	https://podmail.com/podcast/towards-a-sustainable-cruise-tourism-industry-cha/what-do-we-know-about-the-tourists-who-come-to-gr/
B2B article: <i>"What is sustainable tourism in Greenland?"</i>	Written article (online)	Greenlandic & international tourism industry	https://traveltrade.visitgreenland.com/latest-news/what-is-sustainable-tourism-in-greenland/
B2C article: <i>"Five Tips for Travelling Sustainably in Greenland"</i>	Written article (online)	Previous and potential cruise tourists to Greenland	https://www.adventuresnada.com/en/adm-high-arctic-and-greenland-five-tips-for-travelling-sustainably-in-greenland
Teaching at Campus Kujalleq, South Greenland (x 3)	Teaching	Future Greenlandic guides and tourism operators	N/A
Paasisavut (Greenlandic PhD Cup)	Presentation	General Greenlandic population (broadcast on national Greenlandic TV)	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=02YgwJmJKM
Survey report for Greenland Travel (upcoming)	Written report	Greenland Travel employees (travel agency)	N/A

Table 7.3 | Selected knowledge dissemination activities.

VG = Visit Greenland, AECO = Association of Arctic Expedition Cruise Operators, B2B = business to business, B2C = business to consumer.

Chapter 8 | Conclusion

The current thesis had an overarching aim of understanding and encouraging sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland. I approached the challenge by conceptualising the research aim through a framework for sustainable behaviour change (Figure 2.1, section 2.1), which was adapted from existing literature. The framework deconstructs the overarching research aim into (1) the context, (2) the psychological antecedents of sustainable behaviour (which both correspond to understanding sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland) and (3) designing and testing behavioural interventions to change the behaviour (which corresponds to encouraging sustainable tourist behaviour in Greenland). These three elements were investigated through the three papers that make up the thesis, which build on each other in various ways and combine to generate five overarching theoretical contributions. The theoretical contributions raise important points in relation to the context of, psychological antecedents of and mechanisms underlying sustainable tourist behaviour.

In relation to the context of sustainable tourist behaviour, the thesis has brought to light some important nuances in the conceptualisation of sustainable tourism, proposing that the classic 3-pillar model is often not the most appropriate way to conceptualise it, and that progress in one area of sustainable tourism can be detrimental to other areas of sustainable tourism. In terms of psychological antecedents, the thesis has generated new knowledge on the role of two scarcely investigated emotions on sustainable tourist behaviour, demonstrating that the same emotion can even have opposing effects on different types of sustainable tourist behaviour. Another context-related contribution of the thesis is the argument that the tourism context is an example of extreme hedonic consumption, and that it should receive more attention in the consumer behaviour literature as a way to deepen knowledge about how hedonism and sustainable consumer behaviour interrelate. In

terms of the mechanisms underlying behaviour change, the thesis has contributed new knowledge on the connections between particular behavioural interventions (specifically pledge/commitment interventions) and their psychological determinants. Finally, I have argued for a novel type of case (the extraordinary destination) that has particular significance for sustainable tourist behaviour and therefore should be deliberately investigated in this context.

Overall, the current thesis has highlighted various dilemmas and paradoxes that make the path towards sustainable tourist behaviour unclear, ambiguous and in places unequal. Adopting a normative and pragmatic approach to this research has not always revealed an obvious way forward. The recommendation is for tourism scholars and practitioners to maintain a broad perspective on sustainability in tourism, to avoid unconstructive debates that potentially arise from separate scholars focusing on separate streams of sustainable tourism. This is not necessarily to suggest that sustainability initiatives that have negative impacts for some should not be implemented, but rather to suggest that full awareness of the negative impacts should be a factor in deciding whether or not to implement them.

8.1 | Limitations

The limitations of each individual study are discussed in the papers themselves. In terms of overarching limitations of the thesis, a commonly launched criticism of work on individual behaviour change towards sustainability concerns the question of systemic change vs. individual behaviour change. Critics argue that infrastructural and policy changes are our only hope for generating the required scale of behaviour change (Kaaronen & Strelkovskii, 2020; Carrico, 2022; Wright et al., 2022). Within tourism, this debate also exists. As Hall (2013) argues:

“Without facing up to the implications of structure and institutions then the likelihood of tourism activities and behaviours being “locked-in” to particular unsustainable socio-technical systems of provision is greatly increased ... If one wants to develop appropriate tourism behaviours then it is vital that socio-technical systems are changed.”

(Hall, 2013, p. 291)

The focus of this thesis is on individual behaviour change, but I do not intend to suggest that individual behaviour change alone is the answer to transforming tourism practices. Solutions will result from a combination of individual behaviour change measures and changes to policy, infrastructure and socio-technical systems (van den Bergh and Kemp, 2008; Gössling et al., 2012; Carrico, 2022; Gössling & Dolnicar, 2023; Kukowski et al., 2023). Indeed, in the General Discussion section of this thesis (Chapter 7) I have attempted to reveal some of the ways in which systemic and individual change in tourism are interconnected, and how ignoring one or the other can be detrimental. For example, I have proposed a licensing effect connected to in-destination behavioural interventions, suggesting that tourists may comply with them because they dissolve the guilt related to long-haul travel.

Another important overarching limitation of this thesis is its exclusive focus on in-destination behaviour. Although in-destination tourist behaviours can have significant negative impacts that should be reduced and significant positive impacts that should be encouraged, decisions made at other stages of the tourist experience, such as destination choice and mode of transport, also have important impacts on the sustainability of tourism. Some may argue that efforts towards sustainable behaviour change would be more effective if they were focused on these areas rather than on in-destination behaviours. However, this would involve taking a stance on the wicked problem of

tourism outlined in section 7.3, as it would entail making decisions about which destinations it is sustainable to choose. This is a question I do not have an answer to, because of the social, economic and cultural considerations that throughout this thesis have made sustainable tourism such a tricky topic to navigate. Based on the evidence available to me and on my normative approach to research, I can with confidence argue that, once tourists have arrived at a destination, there are certain behaviours they should engage in and certain behaviours they should not engage in. However, I cannot in good conscience state that there are any inhabited places on Earth where (for reasons of sustainability) tourists simply should not go.

8.2 | *Future research*

This thesis has highlighted numerous important directions for future research, one of which involves further investigating the paradoxical relationships presented above in Table 7.1, in the hope that they can be understood more comprehensively and reveal a non-detrimental way forward for sustainable tourism efforts. The directions for future research that I suggest in this section build directly off the thesis' theoretical contributions.

Firstly, I recommend future research to focus on efforts towards encouraging sustainable tourist behaviour in extraordinary or peripheral destinations, because of the powerful consequences of tourism in these places that have been an ongoing theme in this thesis.

Secondly, future research should pay more attention to the role of specific, felt emotions in sustainable tourist behaviour, since this thesis has not only highlighted their importance, but also provided evidence that the same emotion can have opposing effects on sustainable tourist behaviour, depending on the type. On the theme of opposing relationships, the thesis has also revealed that certain motivations (specifically social prestige and nature-seeking motivations) can have intriguing and sometimes contradictory relationships with sustainable

tourist behaviour. These motivations should be further examined in order to generate a comprehensive understanding of how they relate to sustainable tourist behaviour.

Thirdly, nature-preserving behaviours should be further investigated, since they were found by this thesis to be particularly difficult to explain, and were still rife after treatment with an intervention.

Finally, in terms of conceptualising sustainability in tourism in future research, the findings of this thesis have suggested that a broad and fluid understanding of sustainable tourism should be retained, in order to avoid sending research and practical efforts in a direction that might be positive for one area of sustainable tourism but simultaneously counterproductive for others. Future research could specifically investigate these dynamics in an attempt to understand the conditions in which progress in some aspects of sustainable tourism can result in detrimental effects in others. This broader outlook should also be applied to the scale of sustainable tourist behaviours measured in future research. For example, if research combines measurement of both in-destination sustainable behaviours and larger-scale travel behaviours (such as long-haul air travel), it can start to generate knowledge around some of the dilemmas brought to light by this thesis, namely the suggested licensing effect created by travel to extraordinary or peripheral destinations.

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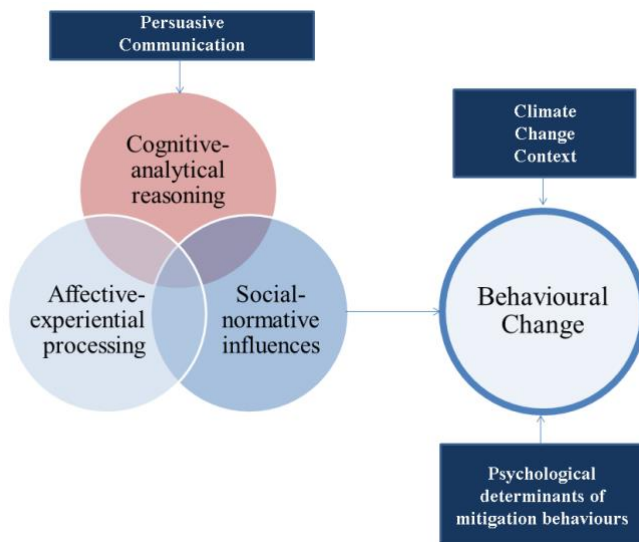
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Appendix 1 | An integrated framework for public communication interventions



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