EXPLORING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF TOURISM COMMUNITY MEMBERS THROUGH THE LENS OF SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY: A CASE STUDY OF QUEENSTOWN, NEW ZEALAND

ALICE KONDJA,* SEBASTIAN FILEP,* SUSAN HOUGE MACKENZIE,†
ADA LO,* AND SERA VADA‡

*School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
†Department of Tourism, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand
‡Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University, Queensland, Australia

Despite a substantial history of research on the well-being of host communities at tourism destinations, the individual psychological well-being of local residents remains an underexplored topic. This study explores the psychological well-being of tourism host community members through a case study of Queenstown, New Zealand. By drawing on the self-determination theory, an innovative focus group analysis approach, microinterlocutor analysis, complemented by thematic analysis, was used to explain the psychological well-being of individual host community members in a nature-based tourism destination. Findings revealed a sense of autonomy, relatedness to people and the natural environment, feelings of competence or mastery, and beneficence-supported psychological well-being. This study extends prior research on the well-being of host communities by identifying key psychological well-being domains explicitly related to host community members. Practical implications of the findings are highlighted with reference to nature-based destinations.

Key words: Host community; Psychological well-being; Nature-based tourism;
Self-determination theory

Introduction

The concept of well-being has attracted the attention of tourism researchers over the last three decades (e.g., Filep, 2014; Filep & Deery, 2010; Kruger et al., 2015; Mackenzie, 2021; Uysal et al., 2016).

Momentum in the research of human well-being has accelerated at the time of writing as a result of the global pandemic (Filep et al., 2022) and major geopolitical conflicts (Pacheco, 2020). Studies investigating the links among tourism activities, their consequences, and the psychological (hedonic and

Address correspondence to Dr. Sera Vada, Postdoctoral Research Fellow, Griffith Institute for Tourism, Nathan Campus, Griffith University, 170 Kessels Rd, Nathan, Brisbane, Queensland 4111, Australia. Tel: +61 424037735; E-mail: s.vada@griffith.edu.au

1

eudaimonic) well-being of individuals consuming tourism services and products have especially gained momentum (Sirgy, 2019; Tuohino & Honkanen, 2015; Uysal et al., 2016). However, investigations of the psychological well-being of tourism communities that host visitors have not received the same degree of attention (Hall et al., 2015). In particular, there is a need for further investigations of how tourism activities impact residents in smaller, nature-based destinations, especially in relation to the psychological well-being of those living in these unique environments. This is because nature-based tourism destinations tend to have smaller population bases and are unique with fragile natural environments that are more sensitive to tourism crises and tourism development than larger urban destinations (Kuenzi & McNeely, 2008). Hence psychological impacts on the local population are likely to be more pronounced than in other settings.

Nature-based tourism has been referred to as a specific form of leisure travel motivated by an interest in the natural beauty and landscapes of a destination (Kuenzi & McNeely, 2008; Mehmetoglu & Normann, 2013). Hanna et al. (2019) suggested that tourists participate in nature-based activities to escape the busy city lifestyles and the traffic of urban surroundings and to reduce stress. Houge Mackenzie and Hodge (2020) suggested that nature-based activities (e.g., kayaking, hiking) have a range of positive impacts on well-being. In particular, outdoor adventure tourism activities have been associated with positive affective and cognitive outcomes for tourists, such as self-esteem, resilience, relatedness, autonomy, and competence (Martela & Sheldon, 2019); however, there is a lack of complementary research on the psychological well-being of host community members in nature-based destinations. Tourism activities exert many pressures on natural resources, especially in nature-based destinations due to disturbances of local ecosystems, which means that understanding the well-being and quality of life issues of host community members should be a major concern for researchers and practitioners alike (Kuenzi & McNeely, 2008).

Lee and Kim (2015) posited that the concept of community is defined as a group of geographically bounded group of people, mainly residents in a locality, who are subject to direct and indirect interactions with one another. Prior community well-being research in tourism has taken a broad (macro) approach to the topic of community well-being (Moscardo, 2014; Sirgy & Cornwell, 2002), which explores issues that are related to, but beyond the immediate realm of, psychological well-being. Community well-being has subsequently been defined as "the combination of social, economic, environmental, cultural, and political conditions identified by individuals and their communities as essential for them to flourish and fulfil their potential" (Wiseman & Brasher, 2008, p. 358). Therefore, the term often covers a range of assessable domains, but an important distinction can be made between community well-being at this broader level (e.g., encompassing perceptions of infrastructure or crime) and individual well-being of host community members, which is principally psychological (Wiseman & Brasher, 2008). Individual psychological well-being of host community members can be more precisely conceived in terms of the subjective well-being (SWB) (Ryan & Deci, 2001) of individuals who are host community members. When broadly defined, SWB includes both hedonic and eudaimonic aspects of well-being (Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009). This includes aspects such as a sense of personal growth and life meaning (eudaimonic aspects) as well as individuals' sense of pleasure and joy (hedonic aspects) (Huta & Waterman, 2014). Although SWB in some cases has been more narrowly defined as exclusively hedonic well-being (Seligman, 2011), in line with Deci and Ryan (2000), this article adopts the broader conceptualization of SWB and subsequently regards individual psychological well-being (PWB) in terms of both hedonic and eudaimonic elements.

Based on the aforementioned literature, there are also calls by researchers to consider the unique aspects of nature-based tourism destinations (Buzinde et al., 2014; Moscardo, 2014) and the growth in nature-based tourism (e.g., Houge Mackenzie & Hodge, 2020). Therefore, considering the above, the current study aimed to identify the underlying dimensions of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being of individual tourism host community members in a prominent nature-based tourism destination: Queenstown, New Zealand. The following section examines the literature underpinning the study in greater depth. This is followed by an overview of the study setting, methodology, and key findings.

Literature Review

Nature-Based Tourism

The unique features of nature-based tourism have been examined by various scholars. Some see nature-based tourism as a combination of adventure, culture, and ecotourism (Buckley, 2006), while others consider it in terms of cultural ecosystem services (Tieskens et al., 2018). Despite the different terminologies associated with nature-based tourism, nature-based tourism is broadly defined as travel outside one's usual place of residence to a natural environment to engage in recreational activities and interact with nature (Fossgard & Fredman, 2019; Wolf et al., 2019). Nature-based tourism is considered to be a unique destination that requires special attention because nature is one of the key pillars among tourism attractions (Del Chiappa & Presenza, 2013; Fossgard & Fredman, 2019). The demand for nature-based tourism is increasing globally, and since the concept involves the utilization of natural resources to engage people (Mackenzie & Goodnow, 2021) it is essential for researchers to examine the implications of nature-based tourism from the local resident's perspective.

The quest to examine the community-based perspective on nature-based tourism is based on two crucial purposes. 1) Local residents play host to provide the overall experience (social, physical, and cultural experiences) for visitors or tourists, hence it is vital to explore their well-being in respective to nature-based tourism (Farkić et al., 2020). 2) Nature-based tourism is characterized by intense activities such as adventure tourism and during the pre-COVID-19 pandemic it was estimated to grow further in 2023 (Mackenzie & Goodnow, 2021). This situation came about because of the increasing benefits (e.g., self-esteem, personal transformation); however, nature-based tourism is also regarded to be vulnerable when it is overused or overutilized (Mackenzie & Goodnow, 2021). Since nature-based tourism is situated in a community where local residents are the first recipients of the several implications, it makes it critical to explore the psychological well-being of the residents.

Travel to natural environments has been associated with providing significant physical and mental well-being, and economic and recreational benefits to individuals and communities (Buckley, 2009;

Houge Mackenzie & Hodge, 2020). However, most destinations regard nature-based tourism as a commercial phenomenon that generates income, employment, and revenue for infrastructural development (Houge Mackenzie & Raymond, 2020). According to the literature, nature-based tourism activities can be classified as hard and soft. Hard activities are considered high-risk or challenging activities as they include diving, mountaineering, hiking, and biking. Soft activities are associated with low risk, and they are less challenging, relaxing, and include trekking, walking, or camping (Hanna et al., 2019). Irrespective of whether research dealt with hard or soft nature-based contexts, prior studies on nature-based tourism have focused on examining tourist experiences with no attention to the psychological needs of host community members. For instance, Hausmann et al. (2018) and Tenkanen et al. (2017) examined the tourists' preferences for biodiversity at the Kruger National Park in South Africa, and parks in Finland. Walden-Schreiner et al. (2018) examined visitor experiences at Aconcagua Provincial Park in Argentina and Kosciuszko in Australia. Visitors' perceptions of specific natural resources at nature-based destinations have also been examined in different contexts (Angradi et al., 2018). Oteros-Rozas et al. (2018) explored different landscapes in Greece, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland. Other research on nature-based tourism focused on the economic value of nature-based destinations and environmental sustainability issues (Da Mota & Pickering, 2020). For example, Keeler et al. (2015) examined the economic benefits of nature-based tourism at Minnesota and Iowa Lakes in the US, as reflected by the time and money spent by visitors per trip. Other studies have examined perceptions of specific age cohorts of visitors. For example, Chawla et al. (2014) stated that children exposed to nature-related activities at nature-based destinations attained psychological benefits; Frumkin et al. (2017) argued that viewing gratifying natural sceneries such as green settings (e.g., mountains) benefited visitors of various ages physically, spiritually, and psychologically when compared to non-natural scenes. Overall nature has been consistently found to play a vital role in helping various visitor cohorts discover their true self (Hanna et al., 2019; Van Heezik & Brymer, 2018).

Host Communities and Psychological Well-Being (PWB)

Prior research has omitted the focus on the psychological well-being of host communities at nature-based destinations. Host community well-being studies in tourism have concentrated on examining a range of broader perspectives that impact residents' quality of life, such as political issues (e.g., tourism policies), financial concerns (e.g., income of local residents), physical factors (e.g., quality of infrastructure at a tourism destination, and the availability and attractiveness of natural resources) (Buzinde et al., 2014; Moscardo, 2014; Tieskens et al., 2018). Naidoo and Sharpley (2016) identified education, culture, job creation, and business opportunities as factors promoting community well-being. Other authors emphasized a sense of overall community identity as a key influencer of community well-being (Buzinde et al., 2014). However, despite the calls for research into the well-being of individual community members to help identify critical indicators that contribute to their psychological well-being (Buzinde et al., 2014; Suess et al., 2018), no prior research in a nature-based tourism context has examined this issue. Yet, researchers are increasingly cognizant of the need to study the psychological needs of individual community members in order to better understand their state of mind (Buzinde et al., 2014; Suess et al., 2018).

PWB has been theorized widely, not only in the discipline of psychology (Martela & Sheldon, 2019) but also in related fields like human development studies (Benjamin et al., 2014), mental health and economic policy research (Martela & Sheldon, 2019), and organizational behavior research (Garg & Rastogi, 2009). However, it has not been critically examined in nature-based tourism host community research (Houge Mackenzie & Hodge, 2020). Because of the focus on hedonic well-being in tourism research (Filep et al., 2022), researchers have advocated for more empirical research on the elements of eudaimonic well-being to understand the long-lasting and stable forms of well-being, surpassing hedonic satisfaction (Benjamin et al., 2014; Clark et al., 2016; Filep, 2014; Martela & Sheldon, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Houge Mackenzie and Raymond (2020) suggested a range of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being outcomes that are directly connected to basic psychological needs such as competence, autonomy, and relatedness in tourism contexts. These researchers emphasized that fulfillment of these basic psychological needs in tourism contexts promotes well-being and psychological growth.

There are several ways of appraising what constitutes PWB. Ryff and Keyes (1995) identified six dimensions of psychological well-being, namely, purpose in life, personal growth, self-acceptance, environmental mastery, autonomy, and positive relationships. Seligman's (2011) PERMA model of flourishing defined five domains of well-being, which include positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment (PERMA). Overall, most hedonic and eudaimonic theories suggest that psychological well-being comprises a variety of core dimensions that collectively enable individuals to flourish. These theories do not entail that life is devoid of hardship. On the other hand, the eudaimonic elements of psychological well-being (e.g., meaning or accomplishment) often entail a degree of challenge—so a resident's life at a nature-based destination may be complex and challenging, yet meaningful in nature (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The most robust theory of human psychological growth and well-being is the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985). SDT explains that individuals are motivated to grow and change psychologically by fulfilling intrinsic psychological needs. SDT is based on the assumption that "people are by nature active and self-motivated, curious and interested, vital and eager to succeed because success itself is personally satisfying and rewarding" (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, p. 14). SDT is a macrotheory that seeks to understand the complexity of human behavior, its implications, and the well-being of people, particularly the quality of human lives. In this situation, previous studies suggest that the basic psychological needs of local residents are achieved based on a motivational climate and, in this case, an enabling environment encompassing the values, behaviors, and a supportive social environment (Houge Mackenzie et al., 2023). SDT has been documented across several spheres of life (e.g., health, work, education, adventure tourism) and provides a robust foundation for exploring

the psychological well-being (hedonic and eudaimonic well-being) of people (Houge Mackenzie et al., 2023; Jaafar et al., 2020). Thus, the current study drew upon leading theories of psychological well-being to develop deeper understanding of how the psychological well-being of tourism host community members was influenced by living in a nature-based tourism destination. Specifically, this study sought to explore how a range of potential factors, such as those outlined in PERMA and self-determination theory, influenced the psychological well-being of host community members.

Methodology

Case Study Destination: Queenstown

The study was conducted in Queenstown, a major, international, nature-based tourism destination located in New Zealand. The community of about 48,000 permanent residents in the Queenstown district is located near New Zealand South Island's glacial Lake Wakatipu, surrounded by the mountain peaks of the Remarkables (Infometrics, 2022). It is synonymous with New Zealand's international tourism brand and is New Zealand's most popular international tourism destination (Jenkins, 2018). Queenstown is an iconic nature-based tourism destination with adventure activities including skiing, jet-boating, and historic culture (Houge Mackenzie & Raymond, 2020). Its tourism development has experienced significant growth, and the number of international visitors is expected to triple in the decade after the year 2022 (Hudon, 2022). The proportion of Queenstown's international visitors is much higher than its population (34 international visitors to one resident) (Jenkins, 2018). In the year 2019, tourism comprised 40% of Queenstown's gross domestic product (GDP), and almost two thirds of all jobs rely on tourism spending (Hudon, 2022). The strong tourism growth of Queenstown has led to serious infrastructure pressures for the residents, and the psychological well-being of the community is yet to be investigated. While the global pandemic put a halt to tourism arrivals in the years 2020 and 2021, there are already signs of tourism activity rebounding at the time of writing in September 2022, and its expected growth will resume with the reopening of New

Figure 1. Location of Queenstown.

Zealand's international borders (Hudon, 2022). The location of this iconic alpine destination is shown in the map in Figure 1.

Data Collection and Analysis

Qualitative methodologies are preferred when phenomena are subjective, not readily observable, and/or where preexisting research is lacking (Charmaz, 2001; Patton, 2002). This approach is designed "to develop fresh insights about a phenomenon and to offer theoretical propositions where little is known" (Matteucci & Gnoth, 2017, p. 50). In this case, the individual psychological well-being of residents at nature-based destinations has received little prior research attention, particularly in relation to leading theories of psychological well-being. As the study was exploratory in nature and focused on subjective psychological experiences of well-being, an interpretive qualitative approach was selected. This approach allowed researchers to generate in-depth, nuanced understandings of key elements that supported, or detracted from, the psychological well-being of residents living in a nature-based destination. It also allowed them to explore the relevance of leading psychological theories of

well-being to this particular context, while remaining open to emergent concepts and themes that may also influence the psychological well-being of residents in nature-based destinations.

Using a focus group method facilitated these aims by enabling open discussions among the residents and allowing for the emergence of novel insights (e.g., Creswell, 2007; Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007). Focus group participation encouraged dialogue among community members to capture the most salient ideas common among participants, and allowed for elaboration of ideas among the group that would not normally evolve in a one-on-one interview. The spontaneity, synergy, and evolving nature of focus group discussion also encouraged novel interactions and thinking among participants, which helps generate unique findings compared to individual interviews (e.g., Carey & Asbury, 2016).

Participants were recruited with the help of five community organizations in Queenstown. These organizations were chosen as their membership base included different age groups (e.g., senior as well as younger generation residents) and they represented different socioeconomic backgrounds. Contacts were made with these community organizations and then potential participants were recruited via an e-mail invitation detailing the study aims and processes. To avoid participation by temporary community members who are not long-term residents, participants had to satisfy the criteria of having lived for at least 1 consecutive year in Queenstown before the focus group discussion. The participants, all over the age of 18 years, involved diverse community members across a range of geographic and demographic criteria (place of residence in Queenstown, age, gender, ethnicity). A total of four focus groups representing 21 community members were conducted (an average of five participants per group). While the focus group discussions were held at separate times and in separate venues in Queenstown, the questions were identical and the composition of each focus group was similar in terms of age range, gender composition, and other demographic variables. As such, it was not deemed necessary to compare and contrast each focus group discussion but instead to analyze the data as a single data set and then report on the findings to meet the study's aim. Each discussion lasted between 65 and 78 min (mean time = 72 min).

The focus group discussions were organized into two major parts. The first part included the introduction of the study's purpose and the focus group procedure followed by informal introductions. Participants were then asked to sign consent forms if they agreed to take part in the study. The second part consisted of two types of questions: general (e.g., How does living in Queenstown support your well-being? What do you enjoy most/least? What are the benefits/drawbacks? What are the challenges/difficulties? Do you intend to live in Queenstown long-term? Why or Why not?), and more specific questions to capture aspects of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (What brings you joy in life here in Queenstown? To what extent do you feel able to live your life the way you want? Do you feel close and connected to people who are important to you? Do you have a positive impact on the people around you? What gives you a sense of deep purpose or meaning?). The discussions were face-to-face as the focus groups were conducted around February 2020, prior to the global pandemic and the pandemic restrictions in New Zealand. This ensured a more intimate data collection process as opposed to online discussions. The focus group conversations were recorded in audio format with the participants' consent. The discussions were then transcribed verbatim for analysis, using the services of a professional research transcription company.

A focus group analysis approach, microinterlocutor analysis (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009), was used to help identify the key themes that emerged from the data. This innovative focus group technique allowed the research team to record illustrative quotes as well as nonverbal elements from the focus groups, enhancing the explanatory power of the findings. Sporadic nonverbal elements (such as hand gestures and facial expressions) were noted by the principal researcher next to each participant's key points, as outlined in the findings section below.

Thematic content analysis was then implemented to generate the themes (Patton, 2002; Veal, 2017). To ensure the rigor of the research findings, the study followed the validity and reliability process outlined by Kidd and Parshall (2000). First, a researcher experienced in qualitative methods, psychological well-being, and tourism research

was engaged to moderate the focus group discussion, to enhance the trustworthiness and rigor of the research. Second, an independent coder was utilized in the analysis process to ensure internal consistency in the data. Following the generation of transcripts, the principal researcher identified codes in a deductive manner. Distinct themes were then identified based on the tenets of the SDT (autonomy, relatedness, and competence), and cross-checked with the transcript to ensure that the themes accurately encapsulated participants' responses. Throughout the analysis process, researchers engaged in iterative cycles of debriefing and coding. Third, to improve the dependability and confirmability of the focus group findings, an audit trail was employed. This is a systematic documentation system that captures all aspects of the research project, including the theoretical, methodological, and analytical choices made by the researchers, as outlined by Schwandt (2001). The principal investigator developed the audit trail, which was then cross-checked for accuracy by sending the focus group transcripts to randomly selected participants. This process helped foster trustworthiness in relation to the methods and findings. The findings, together with the participants' quotes, are presented in the following section. In line with the microinterlocutor approach, nonverbal elements (e.g., hand gestures and facial movements), as observed by the principal researcher, are noted next to each quote to reveal to readers the dynamic nature of these discussions. The nonverbal elements are shown next to the participant ID (e.g., ID 1, 2, 3).

Profile of Participants

Table 1 illustrates the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants. These characteristics include gender, profession, industry, and years of residency in Queenstown and New Zealand. Seventy-one percent (15) of the respondents were female and 29% (6) were male. Most of the respondents were active workers (72%) with the rest being retirees (28%). The respondents were made up of diverse professions in the legal service industry, health, engineering, construction industry, and the tourism and hospitality industry. Many of the

Table 1
Profile of Focus Group Participants

ID	Gender	Profession	Industry	Years of Residency in Queenstown	Years of Residency in New Zealand
1	M	Project management (casual)	Engineering	2.5	20+
2	F	Marketing manager (casual)	Tourism	10–20	20+
3	F	Retired	N/A	25	55
4	M	Retired	Tourism	45	45
5	F	Retired (marketer)	Tourism	20+	20+
6	F	Walking guide (casual)	Tourism	20+	20+
7	F	Retired (radiologist)	Health	20+	20+
8	F	Retired (legal practitioner; 40 years)	Legal services	20+	20+
9	F	Tour operator	Tourism	11	20+
10	M	Tour director	Tourism	11	20+
11	F	Entrepreneur and Councilor (Airbnb, Holiday Homes)	Tourism/hospitality	20+	20+
12	F	HR manager	Hospitality	20+	20+
13	F	Hotel staff	Hospitality	10–20	20+
14	F	Café operator	Hospitality	1–5	1–5
15	F	Tourism staff	Tourism	20+	+20
16	F	Shopkeeper (casual)	N/A	10–20	+20
17	M	Librarian	Tourism	20+	+20
18	M	Tourism staff	Tourism	20+	+20
19	M	Restaurant staff	Hospitality	10–20	10–20
20	F	Tourism staff	Tourism	20+	+20
21	F	Building and construction operator	Construction industry	20+	+20

respondents at the time of the interview had spent more than 20 years in Queenstown (69%). The tourism community under investigation is heavily reliant on the tourism industry, as evidenced by Table 1, which highlights that the majority of the participants were employed in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Findings

Overall, the findings showed that the psychological well-being of the community was principally associated with the satisfaction of one's basic psychological needs for autonomy (a eudaimonic well-being element), competence (a eudaimonic well-being element), and relatedness, which is a combined hedonic–eudaimonic aspect of psychological well-being, based on SDT. In this study, autonomy meant having a sense of personal volition in daily life at this nature-based tourism destination without too many external influences infringing on local's daily activities and choices; competence referred to the ability to efficiently interact with one's environment and exercise individual capabilities; while relatedness was a feeling of being connected to one's family, friends, having a sense of belongingness in a community. Interestingly, this was also reflected in participants' reports of a sense of connection to the natural environment. An additional theme, beyond SDT's three basic psychological needs, was also identified: beneficence. This theme refers to a sense of having a positive impact on others and includes actions that connote acts of mercy, kindness, generosity, and charity (Beauchamp, 2008). The following section explains the four themes in detail.

Autonomy

Autonomy, an experience where individuals engage in behaviors that reflect their interests or values (Buzinde et al., 2014), was identified as one of the key dimensions of the psychological well-being of the host community members. Overall, the findings supported the conclusion of Ahn et al. (2019) that autonomy positively influences hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. The majority of the focus group participants highlighted the flexibility of work activities in Queenstown (especially in terms of flexible working hours) as contributors to their sense of autonomy, allowing them to act with a sense of choice (Deci & Ryan, 2008b).

> There are different lifestyles in Queenstown when it comes to . . . work or home life. There's a certain flexibility that comes with working in Queenstown where, . . . you can kind of go at 4 o'clock, or 3:30. For most people . . . there is flexibility, and they're always has been. (ID 5—raises eyebrows and gently moves hands while emphasizing the point)

> I feel in control . . . we are given the tools to be creative at work and make all decisions which make me feel a sense of control over my life. (ID 3—talks confidently while smiling)

Some frustration was at times evident in the participants' discussions of psychological well-being, especially in relation to their expressions of autonomy. Although the participants acknowledged that it was their choice to be in Queenstown, they outlined financial constraints (especially the high cost of living) as negatively impacting their sense of autonomy. The focus group participants stated that although they have autonomy in their day-to-day lives, they felt powerless and disenfranchised in terms of decision-making at the political level in terms of shaping the future of Queenstown.

> We're disenfranchised. That's the right word for it. Because what happens is, we've seen all these workshops, these charades, and all of these "we want to hear what you say," and the common theme we get is really, "Come in. Say what you're going to do. Write it down, so we can ignore you properly." (ID 13—leans back, puts hands behind the head to show discomfort while talking—others listen attentively)

Relatedness

Over half of the participants emphasized the importance of family bonds and friendships to their psychological well-being. They described how living in a dynamic community like Queenstown enables them to interact and build relationships with their loved ones over time.

> I have a family here. . . . So, that assists very much in my well-being, because it's a support network that's in place . . . long-established friendship

also . . ., that goes back many years, and it is a huge amount to us and this community in particular. And traditional kind of society, and community with that range of demographics in there and it kind of creates that real local community that you tend to have. (ID 3—waves hands and raises voice pitch to emphasize the point)

Relatedness was also discussed in a wider context for the majority of the participants, with references to cross-cultural opportunities as a way of achieving well-being. Queenstown is a community of multiculturalism—the town provides a setting for bonding and meeting new and interesting people. In this way, Queenstown helps the participants achieve a sense of community cohesion.

I think being in a town, is so multicultural. It's very easy to, to grow like, fondness. You get in touch with people from different levels. Because they are from random cultures and backgrounds. Feeling close and connected to people . . . helps to survive in Queenstown, I think it's important. (ID 1—stresses the point while others nod)

A sense of relatedness to nature was also revealed. The majority of the participants explained that the ability to connect with nature through outdoor recreation serves as having a strong positive impact on their psychological well-being. They described Queenstown as an epitome of natural open space and a healthy environment (clean and fresh air). The participants further outlined examples of nature-based activities they enjoy such as cycling, sailing, hiking, kayaking, swimming, tennis, skating, skiing, snowboarding, and mountain biking.

My main support things are the natural environment and easy access to it, the trails off-road for commuting and for recreation, the clear air, and clean water, great range of cafes, range of activities you can access . . ., skiing and skating and walking and cycling. (ID 4—makes the point with a neutral tone)

I get my pleasure and my satisfaction from just the fact that I've chosen to be here and because of the environment. Because the air here is fresh and good. It sure is a good place, for us. (ID 16—maintains good eye contact with the group—others nod)

At times this sense of connection to nature took on the form of a spiritual relationship with the general natural aesthetics of Queenstown.

With Queenstown . . . it contributes to a spiritual or emotional level, and that's rather important. We have a large spiritual community here, and healers are attracted to it. There's a feeling. In this part of New Zealand. (ID 7—communicates with a low voice pitch in a relaxed manner)

Although the literature normally sees relatedness as an experience of closeness and satisfying bonds with other humans (Buzinde et al., 2014), the findings here complement other studies that have revealed that connection with the natural environment is equally as important as the human connection (Filep et al., 2022; Thomsen et al., 2018). Nature connectedness is an individual's subjective sense of his or her relationship with the natural world (Martin et al., 2020), while spirituality is an inner resource that drives people to a continuous search for purpose and meaning of self in life (Kale, 2004). People having exposure to nature have reported an increased level of spirituality and people who resonate emotionally with nature tend to function well psychologically (Howell et al., 2011). Ecological-self theory proposes that human connection with nature and living things positively impacts individuals' well-being whereby well-being is experienced through spiritual interconnectedness with all living things (Bragg, 1996). Nevertheless, existing studies on human–nature relationships in tourism tend to apply the term well-being synonymously with related concepts such as resilience, mental health, and self-esteem (Richardson et al., 2021). Such definitional contests have led to conceptual ambiguity surrounding the connection with nature as an explicit dimension of psychological well-being.

Competence

The third identified dimension was competence. According to Buzinde et al. (2014), people experience competence when they are effective and valued in challenging tasks or pursuits. Competence was constantly discussed alongside work accomplishments, with most participants indicating that they felt competent through their accomplishments in paid work and volunteering.

I feel a sense of accomplishment in what I have done previously, and I still enjoy what I do. (ID 20—raises tone while communicating)

So, I make me—whatever job I do—I make the best of it, to try and make it satisfying. (ID 21—communicates with a neutral tone)

I feel competent, and when I do, I know that you know, I'm respected—what I do in my industry. We mentor people, we have students who come through. There are some incredible people, encouraging people. (ID 11—waves hands to emphasize the point)

For about half of the participants, competence was discussed with references to getting one out of his/her comfort zone.

It (Queenstown) is a place where you have to make those opportunities for yourself. . . . I feel like one of the reasons I started my business was that I wanted those opportunities, and so you create them. So, you can, because it is a community that is flexible, and that has the support systems that allow you to do that. (ID 8—attentively looks at different participants while making the point)

Others talked about the sense of competence in the context of their participation in and mastery of Queenstown's iconic sport and recreation activities.

Mountain sports, yes. Skiing or just getting out of your comfort zone, and, and that brings in a sense of accomplishment. An opportunity to do things here, that you wouldn't be able to do in other places that can bring a sense of accomplishment. (ID 11—waves hands to emphasize the point)

By identifying competence as a major driver of the psychological well-being of the host community residents, the findings support the conclusions of Thal and Hudson's (2019) research in wellness tourism that clearly established the links between greater competence and psychological well-being, albeit in a tourist experience context.

Beneficence

Lastly, an additional well-being dimension, beneficence as the subjective feeling or evaluation of an individual's positive impact on others was identified. Beneficence was most frequently discussed with reference to both community volunteering and environmental volunteer work. The following were typical references to beneficence.

We found it interesting to be equal to integrate into the community, and we did that by joining groups and volunteering. (ID 9—talks with a neutral tone).

I'm not working at the moment. As such I'm doing a lot of voluntary stuff. And, I guess it's great to have that impact on people's lives . . . so I feel positive knowing you have a support system within the community. (ID 6—talks softly and maintains good eye contact with the group)

We came here because of the beauty and the access to natural resources, parks, and walking trails in the community itself . . . I think we're involved in a lot of volunteer organizations here, and the enthusiasm and the support that residents have for these projects is astonishing, truly. (ID 14—articulates clearly and lowers voice speed)

Hepach et al. (2012) suggested that human beings might be equipped with an inherent prosocial tendency for benevolent acts. The satisfaction of beneficence identified in this study supports the studies of Aknin et al. (2013), Martela and Ryan (2016), and Martela et al. (2018) that the sense of beneficence is connected to well-being, positive affect, and meaning in life. Although volunteering was generally seen as a beneficial activity to the overall sense of psychological well-being by the majority of the participants, some participants also mentioned volunteer fatigue, pressure to volunteer, and lack of volunteer engagement due to lack of time.

We have a committed community in itself. . . . we get involved with volunteering organizations here to help with community activities . . . I am always happy to see the support that residents have for these projects. (ID 1—makes eye contact with the group smiling together)

No, but there's a lot of fatigue around that, as well. I mean, I used to get asked like five, six times a week, just for financial support, or vouchers, and all this kind of stuff. (ID 7—smiles and looks at others for a reaction)

Discussion and Conclusion

The current study aimed to explore the underlying dimensions of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being of individual tourism host community members

in a prominent nature-based tourism destination: Queenstown, New Zealand. The data revealed strong themes reflecting relatedness to other people and nature, as well as autonomy, competence, and beneficence. Figure 2 presents the summary of the findings in a conceptual framework to illustrate the themes of autonomy, relatedness, and competence, as well as the additional well-being dimension of beneficence, which were reported to support the psychological well-being of host community members in this nature-based destination. Additional subthemes, such as meaning, sense of solitude, community growth, and safety are also highlighted as key dimensions of community well-being.

The study found that residents' PWB was related to their ability to fulfill basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, which aligned with SDT findings in other domains. While SDT has been extensively empirically tested in PWB studies (Prentice et al., 2019), the theory has not been used in tourism research to examine host community well-being. Consequently, the study extends the conceptualization of the SDT theory that relatedness goes beyond human relationships and acknowledges that relatedness can occur in a human–nature connectedness. The identification of the additional well-being theme of beneficence supported the conclusions of studies conducted in nontourism contexts, which have found that beneficence can contribute to one's sense of well-being (Martela & Ryan, 2016; Martela & Sheldon, 2019; Titova & Sheldon, 2022). By identifying that beneficence promotes one's psychological well-being in a nature-based context, this study extends the SDT theory by incorporating beneficence as part of the three main components of self-determination theory. This study also identified that quality interactions among different cultural groups and residents contributed to the residents' sense of well-being, which is in line with the results of Greenfield et al. (2009), Howell et al. (2011), and Trigwell et al. (2014). Furthermore, following Buzinde et al. (2014), this study revealed the importance of residents' relationships with the natural environment (e.g., to lakes, mountains, and forests). These findings further extend literature documenting how the aesthetic, spiritual, and novel elements of the natural environment may help to promote self-awareness, resilience, and the ability to relieve stress (Griffin et al., 2015).
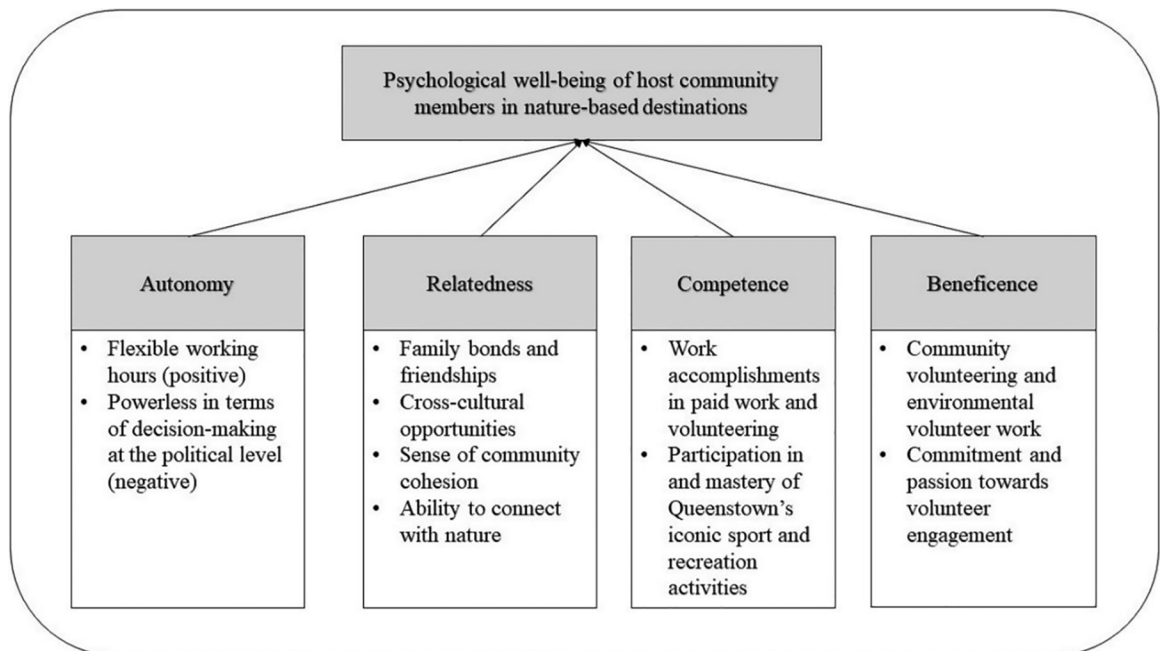

Figure 2. Conceptual model.

In addition to the theoretical implications mentioned above, practical recommendations can be devised based on the results of this study. The study offers practical implications for a range of key stakeholders, such as local and national government policymakers, tourism businesses, and destination community groups. The study provides government policymakers with an enhanced understanding of key factors underpinning destination community members' well-being, which can inform the development of more sustainable destination management policies at regional and national levels. For local tourism businesses, the study highlights the importance of prioritizing the psychological well-being of local residents as tourism begins to grow again in the post-COVID-19 era, and key factors to focus on that will support psychological well-being. For example, most businesses in Queenstown are small to medium-sized enterprises that serve both the local community and tourists. Businesses should focus on adapting their products and services to enhance psychological needs such as relatedness, competence, and autonomy for both visitors and community members. In addition, community groups can also benefit from developing programs and services that foster the dimensions identified herein that support psychological well-being. (For a range of practical examples of strategies for supporting basic psychological needs across diverse contexts, refer to texts such as Cheon et al., 2018; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2017.)

Although the effects of the global pandemic (such as low visitor numbers) are still being felt in Queenstown at the time of writing, following the return of international tourists it will be imperative to develop critical strategies to influence the residents' quality of life. Clearly, enabling relatedness, autonomy, competence, and beneficence among the local community should be a priority for local government authorities and tourism planners to safeguard the psychological well-being of residents. There are several ways this task could be achieved. One strategy is to involve locals in additional tourism employment opportunities with flexible part-time or fractional arrangements, which enhances their sense of autonomy. Promotion of volunteering initiatives by the local council and the involvement of host community members in challenging recreational activities

enables them to build a sense of beneficence and to feel more competent in the community. Throughout the focus group discussions, in addition to sharing their state of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, respondents also expressed drawbacks, challenges, difficulties, and frustrations. These included high costs of living, not being able to influence policies and shape the future of the community, and fatigue in volunteering. Tourism policymakers should therefore consider improving the channels for consultation and genuinely engaging the community in decision-making. Community consultancy is an important factor in the dissemination of local knowledge as it not only enhances knowledge sharing but also promotes adequate development (Ruhanen et al., 2021). Enforcing smaller tour groups and providing additional parking options helps to avoid traffic congestion and minimize crowding, which was at times mentioned by the participants as a key frustration. The government could also further develop zonal approaches whereby wilderness areas are closed to guided tours and certain activities are forbidden (e.g., helicopter tours)—this would maintain the sense of serenity and enable greater connections with the natural landscapes that these Queenstown locals benefit from.

Taken together, the findings of this study have revealed crucial dimensions that underpin the psychological well-being of host community members in a nature-based tourism destination. The study was limited by the exploratory research design focused on one particular community. To complement the qualitative nature of this study, future research should also examine the relative importance of key psychological well-being dimensions identified in the current study across broader populations of destination community members. This could be achieved by adapting existing measures of psychological well-being such as the SDT for the tourism context (Wininger, 2007). This approach would also enable comparisons of the relative importance and salience of specific psychological well-being dimensions of psychological well-being across diverse destinations, and over time. In addition, studies should explore the relatedness dimension of SDT, to see if this concept may extend to nonhuman forms of relatedness (e.g., relatedness to fauna and flora), which may be particularly relevant to the well-being of community members in nature-based destinations.

The data utilized in this study were also collected prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, which had significant impacts on the tourism industry and Queenstown residents. Therefore, future studies should build upon this research by gathering postpandemic data to investigate the psychological well-being of residents as tourism is rapidly recovering in this tourism destination (Wang et al., 2022). Mixed methods studies, which combine qualitative and quantitative approaches within a single study and/ or longitudinally, may be particularly well suited to deepen our understanding and models of psychological well-being for nature-based destination communities. While the current study drew primarily from SDT frameworks to examine the psychological well-being of host community members, future studies may supplement this by integrating alternative well-being models such as the recently developed DREAMA (detachment-recovery, engagement, affiliation, meaning and achievement) model (Filep et al., 2022) to examine how these different dimensions contribute to tourist well-being.

References

Ahn, J., Back, K. J., & Boger, C. (2019). Effects of integrated resort experience on customers' hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *43*(8), 1225–1255. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348019861740

Aknin, L. B., Barrington-Leigh, C. P., Dunn, E. W., Helliwell, J. F., Burns, J., Biswas-Diener, R., Kemeza, I., Nyende, P., Ashton-James, C. E., & Norton, M. I. (2013). Prosocial spending and well-being: Cross-cultural evidence for a psychological universal. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(4), 635–652. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031578

Angradi, T. R., Launspach, J. J., & Debbout, R. (2018). Determining preferences for ecosystem benefits in Great Lakes Areas of Concern from photographs posted to social media. *Journal of Great Lakes Research*, *44*(2), 340–351. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jglr.2017.12.007

Beauchamp, T. (2008). The principle of beneficence in applied ethics. *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*. https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/principle-beneficence/

Benjamin, D. J., Heffetz, O., Kimball, M. S., & Szembrot, N. (2014). Beyond happiness and satisfaction: Toward well-being indices based on stated preference. *American Economic Review, 104*(9), 2698–2735. http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/aer.104.9.2698

Bragg, E. A. (1996). Towards ecological self: Deep ecology meets constructionist self-theory. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *16*, 93–108. https://doi.org/10.1006/jevp.1996.0008

Buckley, R. (2006). Adventure tourism research: A guide to the literature. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *31*(2), 75–83. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2006.11081265

Buckley, R. (2009). *Ecotourism: Principles and practices*. CABI.

Buzinde, C. N., Kalavar, J. M., & Melubo, K. (2014). Tourism and community well-being: The case of the Maasai in Tanzania. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *44*, 20–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.08.010

Carey, M. A., & Asbury, J. E. (2016). *Focus group research*. Routledge.

Charmaz, K. (2001). Qualitative interviewing and grounded theory analysis. In J. F. Gubrium, & J. A. Holstein (Eds.). *The handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 675–694). SAGE.

Chawla, L., Keena, K., Pevec, I., & Stanley, E. (2014). Green schoolyards as havens from stress and resources for resilience in childhood and adolescence. *Health & Place*, *28*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2014.03.001

Cheon, S. H., Reeve, J., & Ntoumanis, N. (2018). A needs-supportive intervention to help PE teachers enhance students' prosocial behavior and diminish antisocial behaviour. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, *35*, 74–88.

Clark, Y., Augoustinos, M., & Malin, M. (2016). Lateral violence within the Aboriginal community in Adelaide: "It affects our identity and wellbeing". *Journal of Indigenous Wellbeing*, *1*(1), 43–52.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. SAGE.

Creswell, J. W., & Tashakkori, A. (2007). Differing perspectives on mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *4*(1), 303–308. https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689807306132

Da Mota, V. T., & Pickering, C. (2020). Using social media to assess nature-based tourism: Current research and future trends. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, *30*, 100295. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2020.100295

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*(4), 227–268. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008a). Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological well-being across life's domains. *Canadian Psychology*, *49*(1), 14–23. https://doi.org/10.1037/0708-5591.49.1.14

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008b). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 9*, 9–11. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9018-1

Del Chiappa, G., & Presenza, A. (2013). The use of network analysis to assess relationships among stakeholders within a tourism destination: An empirical investigation on Costa Smeralda-Gallura, Italy. *Tourism Analysis*, *18*(1), 1–13.

Farkić, J., Filep, S., & Taylor, S. (2020). Shaping tourists' wellbeing through guided slow adventures. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *28*(12), 2064–2080. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1789156

Filep, S. (2014). Moving beyond subjective well-being: A tourism critique. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *38*(2), 266–274. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348012436609

Filep, S., & Deery, M. (2010). Towards a picture of tourists' happiness. *Tourism Analysis, 15*(4), 399–401. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354210X12864727453061

Filep, S., Moyle, B. D., & Skavronskaya, L. (2022). Tourist wellbeing: Re-thinking hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1177/10963480221087964

Fossgard, K., & Fredman, P. (2019). Dimensions in the nature-based tourism experiencescape: An explorative analysis. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, *28*, 100219. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2019.04.001

Frumkin, H., Bratman, G. N., Breslow, S. J., Cochran, B., Kahn, P. H., Jr., Lawler, J. J., Levin, P. S., Tandon, P. S., Varanasi, U., Wolf, K. L., & Wood, S. A. (2017). Nature contact and human health: A research agenda. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, *125*(7), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1289/EHP1663

Garg, P., & Rastogi, R. (2009). Emotional intelligence and stress resiliency: A relationship study. *International Journal of Educational Administration*, *1*(1), 1–16.

Greenfield, E. A., Vaillant, G. E., & Marks, N. F. (2009). Do formal religious participation and spiritual perceptions have independent linkages with diverse dimensions of psychological well-being? *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, *50*, 196–212. https://doi.org/10.1177/002214650905000206

Griffin, K. L., Meaney, K. S., & Podlog, L. (2015). Climb to freedom: Autonomy, competence, and relatedness in rock climbing. Poster presented at *SHAPE America National Convention and Exposition*.

Hall, C. M., Gossling, S., & Scott, D. (Eds.). (2015). *The Routledge handbook of tourism and sustainability*. Routledge.

Hanna, P., Wijesinghe, S., Paliatsos, I., Walker, C., Adams, M., & Kimbu, A. (2019). Active engagement with nature: Outdoor adventure tourism, sustainability and wellbeing. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 27*(9), 1355–1373. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2019.1621883

Hausmann, A., Toivonen, T., Slotow, R., Tenkanen, H., Moilanen, A., Heikinheimo, V., & Di Minin, E. (2018). Social media data can be used to understand tourists' preferences for nature-based experiences in protected areas. *Conservation Letters*, *11*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1111/conl.12343

Hepach, R., Vaish, A., & Tomasello, M. (2012). Young children are intrinsically motivated to see others helped. *Psychological Science*, *23*(9), 967–972. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797612440571

Houge Mackenzie, S., & Hodge, K. (2020). Adventure recreation and subjective well-being: A conceptual framework. *Leisure Studies*, *39*(1), 26–40. https://doi.org/10.1080/02614367.2019.1577478

Houge Mackenzie, S., Hodge, K., & Filep, S. (2023). How does adventure sport tourism enhance well-being? A conceptual model. *Tourism Recreation Research, 48*(1), 3–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2021.1894043

Houge Mackenzie, S., & Raymond, E. (2020). A conceptual model of adventure tour guide well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *84*, 102977. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102977

Howell, A. J., Dopko, R. L., Passmore, H. A., & Buro, K. (2011). Nature connectedness: Associations with well-being and mindfulness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *51*, 166–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.03.037

Hudon, D. (2022, March 12). Reinventing Queenstown. *Otago Daily Times*. https://www.odt.co.nz/regions/queenstown/reinventing-queenstown

Huta, V., & Waterman, A. S. (2014). Eudaimonia and its distinction from hedonia: Developing a classification and terminology for understanding conceptual and operational definitions. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *15*(6), 1425–1456. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-013-9485-0

Infometrics. (2022). Regional Economic Profile - Queenstown-Lakes District. Population Growth. https://ecoprofile.infometrics.co.nz/queenstown-lakes%2Bdistrict/Population/Growth

Jaafar, M., Md Noor, S., Mohamad, D., Jalali, A., & Hashim, J. B. (2020). Motivational factors impacting rural community participation in community-based tourism enterprise in Lenggong Valley, Malaysia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *25*(7), 799–812. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2020.1769696

Jenkins, M. (2018). *Sustaining tourism growth in Queenstown*. Final report. https://www.qldc.govt.nz/media/nazhf4fd/1803-sustaining-tourism-growth-in-queenstown-final-report.pdf

Kale, S. (2004). Spirituality, religion, and globalization. *Journal of Macromarketing*, *24*, 92–107. https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146704269296

Keeler, B. L., Wood, S. A., Polasky, S., Kling, C., Filstrup, C. T., & Downing, J. A. (2015). Recreational demand for clean water: Evidence from geotagged photographs by visitors to lakes. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, *13*(2), 76–81. https://doi.org/10.1890/140124

Kidd, P. S., & Parshall, M. B. (2000). Getting the focus and the group: Enhancing analytical rigor in focus group research. *Qualitative Health Research*, *10*(3), 293–308. https://doi.org/10.1177/104973200129118453

Kruger, S., Sirgy, M. J., Lee, D. J., & Yu, G. (2015). Does life satisfaction of tourists increase if they set travel goals that have high positive valence? *Tourism Analysis*, *20*(2), 173–188. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354215X14265319207353

Kuenzi, C., & McNeely, J. (2008). Nature-based tourism. In O. Renn & K. D. Walker (Eds.), *Global risk governance* (International Risk Governance Council Bookseries, Vol. 1). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6799-0_8

Lee, S. J., & Kim, Y. (2015). Searching for the meaning of community well-being. In S. Lee, Y. Kim, & R. Phillips (Eds.), *Community well-being and community development* (Springer Briefs in Well-Being and Quality of Life Research). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-12421-6_2

Mackenzie, S. H. (2021). Emerging psychological well-being frameworks for adventure recreation, education, and tourism. In *Nature and health: Physical activity in nature* (pp. 147–159). Routledge.

Mackenzie, S. H., & Goodnow, J. (2021). Adventure in the age of COVID-19: Embracing micro adventures and locavism in a post-pandemic world. *Leisure Sciences*, *43*(1–2), 62–69. https://doi.org/10.1080/01490400.2020.1773984

Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). The coach-athlete relationship: A motivational model. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, *21*, 883–904.

Martela, F., & Ryan, R. M. (2016). The benefits of benevolence: Basic psychological needs, beneficence, and the enhancement of well-being. *Journal of Personality*, *84*(6), 750–764. https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12215

Martela, F., Ryan, R. M., & Steger, M. F. (2018). Meaningfulness as satisfaction of autonomy, competence, relatedness, and beneficence: Comparing the four satisfactions and positive affect as predictors of meaning in life. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *19*, 1261–1282. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-017-9869-7

Martela, F., & Sheldon, K. M. (2019). Clarifying the concept of well-being: Psychological need satisfaction as the common core connecting eudaimonic and subjective well-being. *Review of General Psychology*, *23*(4), 458–474. https://doi.org/10.1177/1089268019880886

Martin, L., White, M. P., Hunt, A., Richardson, M., Pahl, S., & Burt, J. (2020). Nature contact, nature connectedness and associations with health, wellbeing and pro-environmental behaviours. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *68*, 101389. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2020.101389

Matteucci, X., & Gnoth, J. (2017). Elaborating on grounded theory in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *65*, 49–59. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2017.05.003

Mehmetoglu, M., & Normann, Ø. (2013). The link between travel motives and activities in nature-based tourism. *Tourism Review*, *68*(2), 3–13. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-02-2013-0004

Moscardo, G. (2014). Tourism and community leadership in rural regions: Linking mobility, entrepreneurship, tourism development and community well-being. *Tourism Planning & Development*, *11*(3), 354–370. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2014.890129

Naidoo, P., & Sharpley, R. (2016). Local perceptions of the relative contributions of enclave tourism and agritourism to community well-being: The case of Mauritius. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *5*(1), 16–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2015.11.002

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Slate, J. R., Leech, N. L., & Collins, K. M. (2009). Mixed data analysis: Advanced integration techniques. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches*, *3*(1), 13–33. https://doi.org/10.5172/mra.455.3.1.13

Oteros-Rozas, E., Martín-López, B., Fagerholm, N., Bieling, C., & Plieninger, T. (2018). Using social media photos to explore the relation between cultural ecosystem services and landscape features across five European sites. *Ecological Indicators*, *94*, 74–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2017.02.009

Pacheco, E. M. (2020). International student well-being and the influence of politics. In U. Gaulee, S. Sharma, & K. Bista (Eds.), *Rethinking education across borders*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-2399-1_11

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry: A personal, experiential perspective. *Qualitative Social Work*, *1*(3), 261–283. https://doi.org/10.1177/1473325002001003636

Prentice, M., Jayawickreme, E., Hawkins, A., Hartley, A., Furr, R. M., & Fleeson, W. (2019). Morality as a basic psychological need. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, *10*(4), 449–460. https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550618772011

Richardson, D. L., Clarke, N. D., Broom, D. R., Tallis, J., & Duncan, M. J. (2021). Life after lockdown: The role of sport, exercise and physical activity in ameliorating the mental health implications of COVID-19 restrictions. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, *39*(18), 2144–2146. https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2021.1923186

Ruhanen, L., Saito, N., & Axelsen, M. (2021). Knowledge co-creation: The role of tourism consultants. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *87*, 103148. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2021.103148

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*(1), 141–166. https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.141

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-determination theory: Basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. Guilford Press.

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(4), 719. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.69.4.719

Schwandt, T. A. (2001). *Dictionary of qualitative inquiry*. SAGE.

Seligman, M. E. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. Free Press.

Sin, N. L., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2009). Enhancing well-being and alleviating depressive symptoms with positive psychology interventions: A practice-friendly meta-analysis. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *65*(5), 467–487. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20593

Sirgy, M. J. (2019). Promoting quality-of-life and well-being research in hospitality research in hospitality and tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *36*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2018.1526757

Sirgy, M. J., & Cornwell, T. (2002). How neighborhood features affect quality of life. *Social Indicators Research*, *59*, 79–114. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016021108513

Suess, C., Baloglu, S., & Busser, J. A. (2018). Perceived impacts of medical tourism development on community wellbeing. *Tourism Management*, *69*, 232–245. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.06.006

Tenkanen, H., Di Minin, E., Heikinheimo, V., Hausmann, A., Herbst, M., Kajala, L., & Toivonen, T. (2017). Instagram, Flickr, or Twitter: Assessing the usability of social media data for visitor monitoring in protected areas. *Scientific Reports*, *7*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-18007-4

Thal, K., & Hudson, S. (2019). Using self-determination theory to assess the service product at a wellness facility: A case study. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights, 2*(3), 260–277. https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-03-2018-0020

Thomsen, S., Tavita, J., & Levi-Teu, Z. (2018). *A Pacific perspective on the living standards framework and wellbeing* (No. 18/09). New Zealand Treasury Discussion Paper.

Tieskens, K. F., Van Zanten, B. T., Schulp, C. J., & Verburg, P. H. (2018). Aesthetic appreciation of the cultural landscape through social media: An analysis of revealed preference in the Dutch river landscape. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, *177*, 128–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2018.05.002

Titova, L., & Sheldon, K. M. (2022). Thwarted beneficence: Not getting to help lowers mood. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *17*(1), 21–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2020.1858339

Trigwell, J. L., Francis, A. J. P., & Bagot, K. L. (2014). Nature connectedness and eudaimonic well-being: Spirituality as a potential mediator. *Ecopsychology*, December, 241–251. https://doi.org/10.1089/eco.2014.0025

Tuohino, A., & Honkanen, A. (2015). On the way to sustainable (well-being) tourism destination? The case of Savonlinna town in Finland. *Tourism Analysis*, *20*(4), 355–367. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354215X14400815080325

Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. (2016). Quality of life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *53*, 244–261. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.07.013

Van Heezik, Y., & Brymer, E. (2018). Nature as a commodity: What's good for human health might not be good for ecosystem health. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*, 1673. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01673

Veal, A. J. (2017). *Research methods for leisure and tourism*. Pearson.

Walden-Schreiner, C., Leung, Y. F., & Tateosian, L. (2018). Digital footprints: Incorporating crowdsourced geographic information for protected area management. *Applied Geography*, *90*, 44–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2017.11.004

Wang, H., Sha, H., Liu, L., & Zhao, H. (2022). Exploring the relationship between perceived community support and psychological well-being of tourist destinations residents. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Heath, 19*(21), 14–53.

Wininger, S. R. (2007). Self-determination theory and exercise behavior: An examination of the psychometric properties of the exercise motivation scale. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *19*(4), 471–486.

Wiseman, J., & Brasher, K. (2008). Community wellbeing in an unwell world: Trends, challenges, and possibilities. *Journal of Public Health Policy, 29*(3), 353–366. https://doi.org/10.1057/jphp.2008.16

Wolf, I. D., Croft, D. B., & Green, R. J. (2019). Nature conservation and nature-based tourism: A paradox? *Environments*, *6*(9), 104. https://doi.org/10.3390/environments6090104