



**Universitat de les
Illes Balears**

Facultat d'Economia i Empresa

Memòria del Treball de Fi de Grau

Tourist behaviour and environmental protection

Neus Lladó Colombàs

Doble Grau de Administració d'Empreses i Turisme

Any acadèmic 2019-20

DNI de l'alumne: 43192327Y

Treball tutelat per Sofia López Rodríguez

Departament d'Economia de l'Empresa

S'autoritza la Universitat a incloure aquest treball en el Repositori Institucional per a la seva consulta en accés obert i difusió en línia, amb finalitats exclusivament acadèmiques i d'investigació	Autor		Tutor	
	Sí	No	Sí	No
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Paraules clau del treball:

Environment, tourism, environmentally responsible behaviour, tourist behaviour

Table of Contents

Abstract	3
1. Introduction	3
2. Pro-environmental behaviour as ethical consumption	4
3. Tourist behaviour	6
4. Tourism and environment	7
5. Tourist environmentally responsible behaviour	8
5.1. Drivers of tourist ERB	9
5.1.1. Attitudes, norms, values and identity	9
5.1.2. Sociodemographic aspects	11
5.1.3. Environmental knowledge and awareness	12
5.1.4. Habits and routines	13
5.1.5. Holiday characteristics	13
5.1.6. Trip experiences	14
5.2. Barriers to tourist environmental responsible behaviour	16
6. Discussion and implications	19
7. Conclusions	22
References	23

Index of Figures

Figure 1: Trip experiences and ERB	15
Figure 2: Tourist ERB determinants	20

Abstract

Available information and visible effects of climate change have resulted in the recent years in a growing awareness of environmental issues and commitment to protect the Earth's ecosystems. Consequently, engagement of environmentally responsible behaviours has reached daily routines and even special activities as travelling, and environmentally friendly products have appeared in almost every context to satisfy the wish of a sustainable consumption. However, as environmental responsible behaviour appears to be context dependant, there have been found differences in actions engaged at home and while travelling. Thus, this paper gathers and analyses the main drivers and barriers to tourist environmentally responsible behaviour to understand the causes of context differences and be able to propose measures to implement at the destination to enhance them.

1. Introduction

Tourism is a key industry in the global economy as it is the third largest export category (UNWTO, 2019b). In 2018, revenues for international tourism accounted for USD 1,7 trillion (UNWTO, 2019b). However, destinations are usually more attractive to tourists because of its natural and socio-cultural characteristics, and, as they become more popular its environment is deteriorated (Hillery et al., 2001). Tourism has a huge dependence on non-renewable energies and at the beginning of this decade it was the source of 5% of the total greenhouse emissions (UNWTO, 2012).

The growing awareness of environmental issues, globalization and the growing trends of tourism have shown that to maintain the tourism industry environmental conservation is needed (Uriely et al., 2007). As a result, some sustainable alternative products as ecotourism, responsible tourism, green tourism and sustainable tourism have appeared. The UNWTO (2012) puts green tourism on the same level than sustainable tourism and defines them as "tourism activities that can be maintained, or sustained indefinitely in their social, economic, cultural and environmental contexts".

The increasing demand of sustainable tourism products indicates that a significant number of tourists would like to protect the environment they are visiting (Uriely et al., 2007). Nonetheless, in the tourism sector, the availability of sustainable products has grown much slower than in other sectors as housing and feeding (Martens & Spaargaren, 2005).

Previous studies prove that there's an attitude-behaviour gap between intentions and actual purchasing decisions (Bray et al., 2011). This gap appears when individuals are concerned about sustainability, climate change and environmental impacts but it is not translated into real actions (Antimova et al., 2012). But in the case of tourism we also find a gap between tourist behaviour at home and at the destination (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009). As climate change is a global issue, it is

interesting to investigate why this difference of behaviour depending on the consumer location exists.

As a consequence, the aim of this study is to answer the following question: *Do tourists have a different behaviour towards environment protection at home and at the destination?* To get to answer this question previous research studies will be reviewed, compared and analysed in order to detect and summarise factors explaining this behaviour and propose managerial improvements for the destinations.

2. Pro-environmental behaviour as ethical consumption

Nowadays, consumers are more concerned about the impacts of production and consumption. As a result, demand of socially responsible products has grown, creating new opportunities for companies and, at the same time helping governments and NGOs to reach sustainability goals (Ingenbleek et al., 2015).

Therefore, the concept of ethical consumption has appeared and has been studied by multiple authors. According to Cooper-Martin (1993), “ethical consumer behaviour refers to decision making, purchases, and other consumption experiences that are affected by the consumer’s ethical concerns” (p.113). As it can be seen, ethical consumption is a wide concept, but most researchers in this area have focused on fair trade products, boycotts, sustainable consumer behaviour and how to encourage this behaviour through marketing (Newholm & Shaw, 2007).

According to Ingenbleek (2015), when customers choose buying a socially responsible product there are not only trying to satisfy their need but also thinking in the consequences of their purchasing decisions. This buyer social responsibility denotes that the consumer is able to perceive the consequences of its behaviour, that he obtains information about the social issues related to product consumption and about products that minimize these issues, that he chooses the products he buys taking into account ethical characteristics and that he is satisfied with the consumption and would recommend and repeat his purchasing decision.

Some theories of consumer behaviour as the Theory of Reasoned Action state that intention is the most powerful determinant of behaviour (Madden et al., 1992). Nevertheless, intentions to maintain a socially responsible are not always translated into acts. There’s a gap between consumer’s positive attitude towards ethical products and the actual consumption behaviour which is a relevant issue for researchers’ studies (Carrington et al., 2016). This gap is known as “attitude-behaviour and intention behaviour gap” (Bray et al., 2011).

Moreover, some authors uphold that the gap is impossible to be removed. The concerned consumer feels guilty for not purchasing the most ethical option and/or questioning whether he is doing the right thing or not, and in the end, he continues purchasing trying to make the best choice, sustaining consumerism and, at the same time, the gap (Carrington et al., 2016).

The intention behaviour gap was reflected in a large-scale study conducted by Cowe and Williams (2000), where 30% of respondents defined themselves as “ethical purchaser” while Fair Trade products and other considered ethical products only account for 3% of total purchases. The reasons for the existence of the behaviour gap are thought to be higher prices of ethical products, lack of information, inertial in purchasing behaviour and cynicism (Bray et al., 2011). Other authors (Leggett et al., 2003) state that this gap can exist due to social desirability bias, which means that respondents answer trying to show a more socially desired behaviour that does not fit with their own reality. Social desirability bias appears when the respondent is asked about an unethical behaviour (Chung & Monroe, 2003), as it could be environmentally unfriendly behaviour against environmentally responsible behaviour.

Focusing in the main subject of this paper, environmental responsibility was defined by Storne, Barnes and Montgomery (1995, p. 601) as “a state in which a person expresses an intention to take action directed towards remediation of environmental problems, acting not as an individual concerned with his own economic interests, but through a citizen consumer concept of societal-environmental well-being”. Following this definition, an environmental responsible individual, as an ethical consumer, make a decision thinking what is more convenient for the society, not for himself. But, in this case, the individual focuses specifically on the impacts of his actions on the environment. This trade-off between personal convenience and societal interest was also explained by Herberger (1975) decades ago with the example of choosing between throwaway and returnable bottles.

Environmentally responsible behaviour (ERB) exists for different reasons. As environment is deteriorated two of individuals who support protecting the environment emerge: ecocentric individuals state that nature must be protected due to its intrinsic value while anthropocentric individuals think nature should be protected due to its value for human life and activities (Gagnon Thompson & Barton, 1994).

But ERB is not a single specific behaviour, indeed, research studies have focused in diverse specific behaviours considered included in the definition of environmentally responsible ones. For example, Thapa (2010) considers five dimensions of environmental behaviours: recycling, green consumerism, political activism, educational and community activism. Meanwhile, Stern (2000) considers four environmentally significant behaviours: environmental activism, nonactivist behaviours in the public sphere, private-sphere environmentalism and other behaviours not included in the previous categories.

As tourism context differs from the habitual context for individuals, some of these mentioned dimensions, usually separating activism from quotidian actions are not as significant for the study of tourist behaviour. Activism actions, for instance, which commonly need time and are frequently organised by associations, are less likely to be engaged by tourists. Thus, in the tourism context, small actions are the ones preferred to analyse ERB (waste treatment, electricity and water consumption and ecological products' purchases among others).

3. Tourist behaviour

Tourist behaviour has frequently been analysed separately from consumer behaviour because of the specific characteristics related to tourism. But we cannot generalise and say that all tourists will act the same way as different types of tourists have been identified. Plog (1974) described two types of personalities which led tourists to choose different destinations and activities: psychocentric are inhibited, nervous, non-adventurous and constricted, while allocentric tourists are adventurous and self-confident. Psychocentric individuals are connected to mass tourism and allocentric individuals are connected to new experiences and destinations. Those other tourists with a mixed personality are mid-centrics (Plog, 1974).

According to the study conducted by Debbage (1991), tourists travelling further are more likely to behave as allocentric tourists. On the other hand, tourists travelling short distances act as “psychocentric” tourists. That would mean that the destination, and, specifically, how far from the tourist place of origin the destination is, has influence on the tourist behaviour during its holiday. Notwithstanding, other authors state that the holiday destination does not influence tourist behaviour (Krippendorf, 1987).

Krippendorf (1987), claimed that tourists behave as if they were home, they cannot change their habits and needs in such a simple way. However, according to more recent studies, people tend to act less ethically during their holiday trips than in their daily routine. There are different hypothesis that try to explain why environmental behaviour could be different at home and at a trip destination. On the one hand, it could be thought that tourists behave more properly at home because the impacts would directly affect them. But, on the other hand, it also make sense to think that they will behave respectfully at the destination as they are guests (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009).

This assumption that tourists will behave correctly at the destination is usual, but some factors as dissatisfaction and negative emotions, attitudes and perceptions lead to misbehaviour (Cohen et al., 2014). Misbehaviour was defined by Fullerton and Punj (2004, p. 1239) as “behavioural acts by consumers, which violate generally accepted norms of conduct in consumption situations”. Some examples of misbehaviour in tourism are sexual tourism, alcohol and drugs use, gambling, violence, shoplifting and other types of vandalism.

During their holidays, some tourists engage in behaviours that they would avoid in their daily routine and are not accepted at home by their own rules and moral conduct (Uriely et al., 2011). Some authors as Wang (2000) affirm that tourism can somehow encourage misbehaviour as social norms and values are suspended. However, Uriely et al. (2011), tourism is a platform for not only deviant behaviours but also normative behaviours. That could be explained because tourism motivations and behaviours are determined by unconscious processes (Tran & Ralston, 2006).

Other factors that could influence behaviour during holidays could be gender or age. However, Carr (1999) suggests that these differences between men and women or age ranges are becoming indistinguishable.

4. Tourism and environment

Tourism is an activity associated to big environmental impacts as air pollution, natural habitat loss, water scarcity, soil erosion, marine pollution and so on (Ozturk et al., 2016). Popular destinations become overcrowded and suffer more environmental problems due to the increased pollution (European Commission, 2004). As a consequence, a large amount of destinations are currently trying to find an equilibrium point between tourism activity development and environmental protection (Kim, 2012).

Transport is one of the leading polluting activities related with tourism. Most tourists travel by plane or car (OECD, 2016), which are big polluters. The recommended way to travel to protect the environment is by train or coach (UNWTO, 2019a), but these means of transport are only used by 3% and 7% of tourists, respectively (UNWTO, 2019c). The use of one mean of transport or another differs by nationalities, being Swedish tourists, the Europeans who choose more frequently rail trips (Schmidt, 2002). According to Budeanu (2007), the underuse of public transportation can be explained by the limited time of the trip.

Climate change is considered a crisis event in tourism as it may reduce global or regional GDP (Hall, 2010) and, at the same time, it may result into a tourism demand decrease as individual wealth would have diminished. Climate change is an actual concern for many citizens, and its impacts influence their purchasing decisions.

Weather and climate are considerable factors for tourists not only when deciding their destination and the time they will expend at it, but also during the trip as they will influence their experience (Scott & Lemieux, 2010). Therefore, due to climate change destinations demand may vary and most visited destination nowadays may suffer a decrease of tourist arrivals while other destinations emerge. Some destinations are more sensitive to climate change (sun and beach destinations, national parks, ski resorts...) and will be more affected by tourist perceptions of environmental change (Scott, Jones, & Konopek, 2008).

Nevertheless, how climate change will affect a destination may be unpredictable because there is a wide range of variables that determine tourist (or consumer) decisions (Gössling & Hall, 2006). For example, some studies have stated moderate warming scenarios in North American scenarios would increase tourists arrivals (Scott, Jones, & Konopek, 2007), however an extreme heatwave scenario would reduce tourist arrivals (Richardson & Loomis, 2004).

Literature regarding environmental impacts is usually helpful for governments and policy makers as it identifies actions to enhance sustainable behaviour (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009). Local governments may introduce mitigation policies to protect the local environment. These policies are usually tax and market-based

instruments which increase travel costs and awareness of travel emissions and impacts (Gössling et al., 2012). But, despite the implementation of taxes and other instruments to protect the environment, most citizens think that governments are not doing enough to fight climate change (Lorenzoni et al., 2007).

Tourist is one of the main actors in environment deterioration, but their attention is not drawn to their responsibility and as a result they act in a carefree way (Krippendorf, 1987). To consolidate ecological values in a destination, besides tourist commitment to the environment protection, orientation towards the consumer is needed (Uriely et al., 2007).

5. Tourist environmentally responsible behaviour

According to the Expectancy Theory developed by Vroom (1964), individuals behave in a specific way because of the consequences they expect from their behaviour. Following this theory tourists concerned with the environment would engage a more ERB in front of tourists that see the impact of their actions just as a drop in the ocean.

Consumers behaving ethically try to substitute individual politicised consumption for collective political action, and in the tourism industry this is represented by the purchase of ecotourism products (Butcher, 2008). In a survey conducted in 2005, 38% of the respondents said they would pay more if their trip was organised following sustainable standards, but actually only 5% bought responsible tourism packages or used environmentally friendly transportation (Chafe, 2005).

Even some authors have affirmed it is reasonable that individuals who behave in an environmentally responsible way at home will also engage ERB while travelling if they have the chance to do so (Dolnicar, 2010), it has been proved that this behaviour differs from home to tourism context and even the most committed individuals find it difficult to maintain this behaviour during holidays (Barr et al., 2010). Nonetheless, we could find an opposite case where tourists care about the environmental impacts of their actions even if they have limited options at the destination. Miller, Merrilees and Coghlan (2015) explained this behaviour introducing the term “tourist social responsibility”.

Dolnicar and Grün (2009) observed that environmentally friendly behaviour is context dependant, as most respondents admitted having a more unfriendly behaviour during holidays than at home. Not all the individuals change their behaviour patterns while travelling, but those who did, shifted to a less environmentally friendly behaviour.

In order to analyse this casuistry, next sections are going to review which have been found to be the determinants of tourist environmentally responsible behaviour, starting with the drivers that enhance it, and continuing with the barriers that prevent tourists engaging ERB.

5.1. Drivers of tourist ERB

Several authors have studied pro-environmental behaviour to understand its determinants and the reasons for the found context variances. In these studies, it has mostly been proved that individual's attitudes, personality traits and socio-cultural factors explain environmental responsible intentions, and, even these intentions do not fully materialize they do influence ERB. These drivers affect both general ERB and site-specific ERB (as in our case of study ERB at tourist destinations).

However, even these factors will affect ERB whatever the context is, their power to predict ERB will differ. For example, Dolnicar (2010) stated that ERB at home is mostly influenced by moral obligations, environmental concern, age, altruistic values and place attachment; but at the destination two determinants are capable to predict most tourist ERB: income and moral obligation.

Moreover, it has been found that different types of holidays influence different behaviours and destination characteristics must also be taken into account. This last determinant would be considered a contextual factor, and, in fact, those would be the most important to analyse in order to understand divergencies between home and destination behaviour.

Overall, attitudinal factors are found to predict ERB in a stronger way. However, for specific behaviours more difficult to be engaged because of its costs or skills needed, contextual factors and personal capabilities predict better the resultant behaviour (Stern, 2000). Nevertheless, there is no universal classification of drivers of tourist ERB and the following proposed classification of drivers in this paper has the intention to put together the findings of previous research studies and find connections between them.

5.1.1. Attitudes, norms, values and identity

Lee et al. (2013) stated that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived control related to a behaviour can predict behavioural intentions, which can explain behaviour variances. Stern (2000) specified that attitudinal factors affecting ERB are environmentalist predisposition, behaviours-specific norms and beliefs, nonenvironmental attitudes and perceived costs and benefits of actions. The clearest determinant is that individuals with positive attitudes towards ERB are more likely to engage ERB (Iwata, 2001). But moreover, the same author found that careful shopping attitudes as purchasing long-term use products are also strongly related with ERB.

Attitudes and personality traits related to nature appreciation are more positively associated with ERB. According to Thapa (2010), individuals with ecocentric and dualcentric attitudes are likely to participate in green consumerism. On the other hand, individuals with technocentric or anthropocentric attitudes are not likely to engage environmental responsible behaviours. One characteristic of ecocentric

individuals is that they take more seriously risk probability and consequences of their acts on the environment, which has been found to predict ERB (Xu et al., 2018).

Similarly, Lee and Jan (2015) discovered that biospheric value, which was defined by Stern and Dietz (1994) as “individual’s assessment of phenomena based on costs and benefits to ecosystems”, do influence in a positive way ERB. Furthermore, the authors considered that biospheric value is an even stronger predictor of ERB than environmental attitude. Environmental identity is strongly related to biospheric value and is a predictor of ERB (Gatersleben et al., 2014).

Doran and Larsen (2016) declared that personal norms as feeling a moral obligation to protect (or avoid damaging) the environment are strongly related with the intention to use eco-friendly alternative in their trip. In addition, the authors found that the belief of others acting in an environmentally responsible way during their trips also enhances the intentions to use eco-friendly travel options and could influence the engagement of tourist ERB related with high financial costs. Thus, both personal and social norms were found to influence tourist environmentally friendly intentions, even personal norms had a stronger power.

Gatersleben (2014) suggested that both personal norms and identities have a higher significance when the individual feels free to act and his behaviour is not constrained by external factors. In these cases, behaviours are guided more by how the individual sees himself, becoming self-identity an important predictor of ERB. However, in their study, Litvin and Goh (2002) could not validate the hypothesis that during holidays tourists purchases are conditioned by their self-concept choosing products and brands they feel identified to as it happens at home. In fact, this could be related to an existence of more constraints in a tourism context than in a home context.

Individuals with values related to unconditional concern for others are strongly related with prosocial behaviour as ERB (Thielmann et al., 2020). According to Hedlund et al. (2012), those individuals with self-transcendent value orientation (associated with universalism and benevolence) are more concerned about the environment than individuals with self-enhancement value orientation (associated to hedonism, achievement and power). This coincides with Hedlund’s (2011) previous study, where he found that individuals who value equality, social justice and peace on earth are more concerned about environmental consequences of their holiday choices. Moreover, he stated that this universalism was more important to individuals living in countries with a higher degree of gender equality.

Finally, it has to be mentioned that dishonest behaviours affect self-concept, and thus, if an environmentally focused individual, does not engage ERB during holidays it can affect his self-concept. However, it is difficult to assess which behaviours affect the individual self-concept as it is different for each one. For

example, throwing a plastic bottle into the ocean would probably affect more a very committed individual, than for an individual who denies the existence of climate change. In this regard, Mazar et al. (2008) affirm that when an individual has more attention to standards, the threshold up to which individuals can act in a dishonest way without affecting their self-concept will be lower, and as a consequence, it becomes easier to affect his self-concept.

5.1.2. Sociodemographic aspects

Siew Wai and Bojei (2015) determined that sociological factors as age, gender, educational level and social role can determine the strength of the attitude-behaviour gap. But other studies have also concluded that sociological factors explain ERB context differences. For example, Mehmetoglu (2010) concluded that even sociodemographic aspects influence tourist ERB, they are stronger predictors of this type of behaviour in the home setting.

In his study, Xu et al. (2018) found that women are more likely to engage ERB, but age do not act as a behaviour predictor and Mehmetoglu (2010) indicated that age is a determinant in the home context but has no relation on tourist ERB. On the other hand, Hetlund et al. (2012) considered that sociodemographic factors should be analysed along with identities. In their joint analysis, they found that older individuals, women and individuals with low income who are concerned for the environment while choosing their holiday accommodation are likely to have a self-transcendent value orientation and they engage ERB due to altruistic reasons.

According to Juvan and Dolnicar (2017), younger individuals who live in urban areas and individuals implicated in environmental-related organizations tend to purchase more carbon offsets. However, carbon offsetting does not reduce environmental impacts of their trips, it is a financial assistance to support the implementation of solutions. Therefore, more than an ERB it could be considered a way to compensate the feeling of guilt for their environmentally unfriendly actions. Indeed, they even found that active members of environmental organizations who engage an ERB at home, do not maintain this behaviour during their trips.

Income has been defined as one of the two main determinants of tourist ERB (Dolnicar, 2010) affecting it positively, while at home it seems not to be a significant factor (Mehmetoglu, 2010). And educational level is also related with tourist ERB. In particular, higher levels of formal education are related with the choice of environmentally certified providers in the tourism context (Juvan & Dolnicar, 2017).

Finally, regarding political orientation, it has been determined that more conservative individuals behave in a less environmentally responsible way both at home and at the chosen destination (Mehmetoglu, 2010).

5.1.3. Environmental knowledge and awareness

Personal capabilities as behaviour-specific knowledge and skills are another significant factor explaining ERB (Stern, 2000). Tourist perceptions toward climate change affect responsible behaviour intention (Han et al., 2016). Specifically, environmental knowledge increases environmental sensitivity and place attachment, and, as a result, individuals with higher environmental knowledge enjoy more the environment of the destinations and are more concerned to protect it and minimize their impacts on it, leading to an increase in ERB (Cheng & Wu, 2015).

Nonetheless, Miller et al. (2010) found that there is a general low understanding of environmental impacts generated by the tourism industry, frequent concept confusions and difficulty to understand intangible impacts in comparison to tangible impacts as waste treatment.

Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) do not establish a direct relationship between environmental knowledge and ERB, but consider a complex relationship between environmental knowledge, attitudes and values and emotional involvement that they call “pro-environmental consciousness”.

On the other hand, environmental concern has been proved to influence positively ERB in the different contexts (Mehmetoglu, 2010), but it does not depend totally on knowledge, as part of the population with environmental knowledge is not concerned about the impacts on it for diverse reasons. For instance, Miller et al. (2010) stated that some individuals are not concerned as they think that global warming “is not going to happen within their lifetimes”.

Environmentally concerned tourists reflect this concern in their choices. According to Hedlund (2011), they are more likely to accept economic sacrifices in order to protect the environment and also to choose sustainable tourist products.

Environmental concern has been found to influence diverse travelling decisions. Hedlund et al. (2012) concluded that the decision which is more influenced by environmental concern is destination choice and the less influenced is the departure time. And, in particular, as concerned tourists enjoy outdoor activities and usually care about unspoiled environments during their trips, it is likely that they choose nature-based destinations (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009).

However, it has been found that environmental awareness is not a precedent of all kinds of ERB. According to Barr et al. (2010), the most concerned individuals

engage ERB at the destination and attend more environmental activities, but they are also who travel the furthest and are not willing to avoid flying or reduce their trips. In addition, they agree an implementation of taxes on flights but would decide to pay them and continue flying as much as they currently do.

5.1.4. Habits and routines

According to Miller et al. (2015) habits are considered a dominant antecedent of tourist ERB as even the context is different, pro-environmental behaviours are the same at home and at the destination. For instance, the authors found that in urban destinations energy consumption and purchases of “green” products at the destination depend heavily on habits and routines. On the other hand, they found that recycling and use of green transport had a much weak dependence on habits, suggesting that these activities and the facilities associated to them were different than at home.

Nonetheless, other authors consider old behaviour habits as a barrier to tourist ERB (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002) as tourists want to engage the same behaviour at the destination when sometimes facilities and systems are different there.

5.1.5. Holiday characteristics

Individual aspects influence its behaviour both at home and at the destination. For this reason, differences in an individual’s behaviour during his holidays may be explained by the change of context.

There are different motivations for travelling. It is commonly assumed that all individuals want to travel, however, some individuals do not feel comfortable during their trips (Todd, 2001) and this insecurity can lead to an unusual behaviour in comparison to home habits. In addition, holidays are not always motivated by the search of leisure time, in some cases, individuals are forced to travel for working or health reasons.

In the case of business travel, it has been proved that tourists maintain a less environmentally friendly behaviour compared to their home behaviour. Tourists admit this change and usually attribute it to the boss or company that has arranged their trips, although they have significant power to change some of their practices (Geerts, 2014). Even it is true than transport and accommodation decisions are made by the company, small decisions with big environmental significance that take place at the destination as electricity and water consumption or recycling decisions still depend on the tourist.

Company has also been seen as a determinant of behaviour during holidays as travelling with relatives seems to enhance ethical behaviours (Buccioli et al., 2013). This fact could be explained by the aim to be a referent for younger

members of the family and educate them or to show maturity and responsibility to adult members.

And, finally, the destination itself affects ERB. On one hand, as aforementioned, the lack of facilities at a destination reduces the ERB of its visitors. But, on the other hand, in most cases, the destination to visit is chosen by the tourist and this decision can show an inclination to ERB. In most studies where the authors focus on a specific destination to analyse tourist ERB, they choose fragile environments as nature-based destinations (Han et al., 2016; T. H. Lee et al., 2013), islands (Cheng & Wu, 2015) or wetlands (T. H. Lee, 2011; Xu et al., 2018). As destination environment is a predictor of travel behaviour (Sirgy & Su, 2000) and as fragile environments are more affected by climate change and other impacts, it makes sense that most researchers have focused in studying tourist ERB in destinations which have environment and nature as its main attraction.

In addition, the decision to choose ecotourism as holiday experience shows that the tourist appreciates nature and wants to protect the environment where he is travelling to (Chiu et al., 2014). In comparison to mass tourists, ecotourists take more seriously their decisions and their consequences (Xu et al., 2018). Also in opposition to ecotourism, in mass tourism it has been found that ERB is less likely to be engaged than at home with the exception of those truly committed (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009).

Another type of destinations worth to mention are urban destinations. According to Miller et al. (2015), in urban destinations attitudes are a less important predictor of ERB, which is influenced in a stronger way by habits and facility availability. Moreover, the author found that in this kind of destinations tourists move in a more sustainable way than at home as they use more public transport, bicycles and also walk more.

Finally, domestic destinations are considered more environmentally sustainable as transport impacts to get to the destination are reduced. However, the reason to choose this type of destinations is hardly ever just environmental concern, but the sum of this reason to the ease of these trips and the desire to avoid long trips (G. Miller et al., 2010).

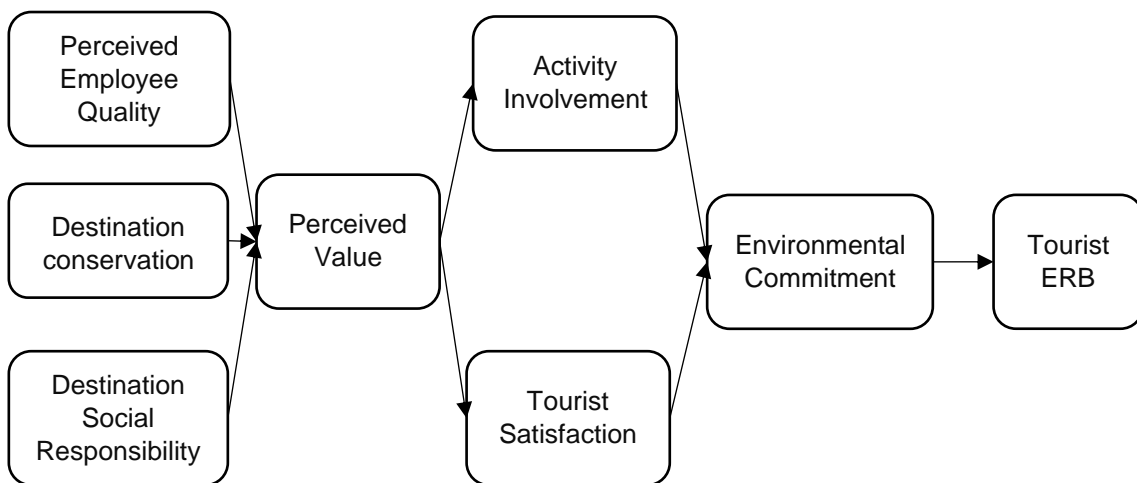
5.1.6. Trip experiences

Experiences during the trip influence tourist behaviour at the destination. Positive trip experiences enhance the adoption of ERB (Xu et al., 2018). Specifically, Chiu et al., (2014) stated that the higher the perceived value of the experiences, the higher the environmentally responsible behaviour. Similar findings were described by Han et al. (2016), who described that both perceived value and tourist satisfaction influence in a positive way ERB and destination conservation is one of the factors leading to an increase of satisfaction and consequently, ERB.

In the same line, He et al. (2018) added perceived employee quality as an antecedent for perceived value and tourist ERB and Chiu et al. (2014) included activity involvement in the equation as a result of an increased perceived value. Finally, Su and Swanson (2017) proposed an increase of social responsibility investments at a destination in order to enhance tourist engagement and ERB.

Based on the aforementioned studies, the relationship between the perceived value from the trip experiences and tourist environmentally responsible behaviour could be portrayed as in the following **Figure 1**.

Figure 1: Trip experiences and ERB



Source: Own elaboration

It must be mentioned that perceived value may be influenced by more factors, but perceived employee quality, destination conservation and destination social responsibility are the ones identified by the authors as antecedents of tourists ERB. For example, tourist emotions during their trip influence their ERB. Specifically, positive emotions raise customer identification with the destination, and thus, result into higher commitment and ERB. However, negative emotions do not imply a proportional negative impact on ERB (Su & Swanson, 2017). Nevertheless, these emotions may be evoked not only by destination characteristics but also by personal factors as a conversation with a relative, news received from home, health conditions, and so on.

Another important factor that influence tourist experiences and, as a result, tourists ERB, is whether there is a previous experience of the tourist at the destination. That is to say, tourist behaviour will be influenced by if the trip is a first visit or if the individuals are repeating the visit at the destination. Indeed, when a tourist decides to come back to a destination already visited it is probably

because he was satisfied in his previous visit. However, ERB in repeat tourists has been barely studied. Two of the few authors who included a compared analysis of first-time and repeat tourists in his research study, Su and Swanson (2017), found that first-time tourists are affected in a stronger way by destination social responsibility, as they are less familiar with the destination. Moreover, they also stated that negative emotions influence more repeat tourists on ERB, as first-time visitors focus more on destination attributes.

The differentiation between first-time and repeat tourists could also help to relate a factor considered to predict resident ERB but difficult to be found in a tourism context: place attachment. Place attachment positively affects conservation commitment and ERB (T. H. Lee, 2011). However, place attachment is not usually used to predict tourist ERB as it is a characteristic associated with the habitual place of residence or environment of the respondent. Nonetheless, differentiating first-time visitors than repeat tourists could help connecting tourist attachment to the destination and ERB, as those tourists that decide to visit frequently the same destination will tend to feel more attached to it. This positive relationship between loyalty to a destination, place attachment and ERB has also been described in the study conducted by Lee, Pei, Ryu and Choi (2019).

Finally, some authors have discovered a relationship between trip experiences and not only tourist ERB, but also ERB at home. Lee and Jan (2015) contended that travel experiences in nature-based destinations increase individual's biospheric value, empathy and environmental commitment, resulting into an increased ERB of the individual both at destinations and in their daily lives. Similarly, it has been found that sustainable tourism development attitudes enhance ERB of individuals in their home community (Cheng et al., 2019). Thus, as home routines and habits influence tourist behaviour, trip experiences can also affect behaviours back at home.

5.2. Barriers to tourist environmental responsible behaviour

Acting in a dishonest way has a negative impact on individuals self-concept which is more appreciated than external rewards. However, there is always a limit, and when external benefits are really high, individuals would maintain a dishonest behaviour despite the opportunity cost (Mazar et al., 2008). For this reason, some concerned individuals do not engage ERB in specific contexts. To be able to analyse this situation more in detail, the studied barriers to tourist ERB will now be described.

In the study conducted by Lorenzoni, Nicholson-Cole and Whitmarsh (2007) it was found that there are two types of barriers for citizens to engage with environmental responsibility and climate change: individual barriers and social barriers. As another example, Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) focused on internal barrier describing existing values that prevent learning, existing knowledge that

contradict environmental values, emotional blocking of environmental values or attitudes, emotional blocking of new knowledge, existing values that prevent emotional involvement, lack of knowledge, lack of environmental consciousness and lack of internal incentives among others.

Geerts (2014) described four reasons that prevent ERB in business travel that also apply to leisure travel: lack of facilities, added friction, lack of time and added financial costs. However, these constraints also exist at home and some of them seem not to justify a behavioural change. For example, lack of facilities can be a proper argument in rural or exotic destinations, but it is probably not a problem in most cases of urban tourism. Nonetheless, lack of proper facilities is usually considered as an important barrier to tourist ERB. In this sense, Miller et al, (2015) stated that the use of green means of transport is the behaviour that depends more strongly on the availability of appropriate facilities.

Tourists deny feeling guilty about their behaviour while travelling maintaining that the shift in their behaviour is caused by the lack of infrastructure in the host city (Dolnicar & Grün, 2009). According to Tanner, Kaiser & Kast (2004), consumer behaviour is more influenced by the local environment than by socioeconomic factors. For example, in rural environments it is easier to purchase unpacked products than in urban destinations, but it is harder to buy labelled food (as organic or fair-trade emblems) (Tanner et al., 2004). According to Del Chiappa and Correia (2018), lack of trust in the offer is an important barrier which we could connect to lack of facilities. It is likely that the offer is available, but that tourists do not trust it. Lack of trust in the offer is translated into the perceived lower quality of sustainable products in comparison to traditional products. In addition, it has been found that there is a group of individuals which are actually booking services from certified sustainable tourism providers but are unaware of it (Tölkes, 2020).

Sustaining the theory of added friction and added time as a barrier to tourist ERB, Miller et al. (2015) found that recycling habits are less maintained during vacations than other environmentally responsible habits. This could be explained by the understanding of the recycling system followed at home, as pick-up services door-to-door, already internalised by the individual, requiring a minimal cognitive effort. Getting information on destination's recycling systems requires an extra effort and time that some tourists will not accept if there are not sufficient (internal or external) incentives.

In a similar way, some concerned tourists state they do not try to avoid (neither reduce) flying practices because their perceived personal benefits are higher not doing so (Cohen et al., 2011). They do not have enough incentives to avoid this behaviour as the importance of holidays for them is high (Hares et al., 2011). Likewise, and in connection with added financial costs mentioned by Geerts (2014), Miller et al. (2010) described that the lack of financial incentives could be an important barrier in terms of small actions at the destination. As hotel guests do not pay directly for the energy and the water they use, they do not see the need to save these resources and increase their consumption in comparison to home.

Another barrier found is the decreased perceived control at the destination. Dolnicar (2010) affirmed that the most environmentally friendly tourists are those who also engage ERB at home, being this behaviour and intrinsic characteristic on them. And, as there is not a complete overlap, the reason of a less environmentally friendly behaviour in a tourism context could be explained by the lack of infrastructure. At home, individuals have more control over their behaviour and can choose to maintain ERB, but at the destination they are conditioned by infrastructural factors beyond their control. For instance, some studies as the one performed by Gatersleben et al. (2014), concluded the importance of perceived behavioural context, being this one the strongest predictor for recycling, avoiding car use, avoiding flying to destinations and engaging more sustainable behaviours.

Miller et al. (2015) introduced a barely studied barrier to tourist ERB: “having a break”. The authors suggest that during their holidays, individuals may want to have a break also from environmental duties. In fact, this behaviour is related to moral licensing, and, in other contexts, it has been found to be one of the main justifications to dishonest behaviour (Shalvi et al., 2015). Moral licensing in tourism ERB explains behaviours as the shown by Miller et al. (2010) who set forth the feeling of some individuals that they had the right to act in an environmentally unfriendly way because they have engaged ERB at home the rest of the year.

Barr et al. (2010) suggested that for these individuals who justify their environmentally unfriendly behaviour through moral licensing, their responsible lifestyle at home does not respond to an attachment to nature or to environmental concern, but to as a way to trade-off their practices during holidays. This could be related with the thoughts of Dolnicar and Grün (2009), who stated that individuals feel morally obliged to behave in an environmentally friendly way at home but, as Krippendorf (1987) suggested, they act in a selfish and worry-free way in the destination looking for their own happiness. Similarly, a high importance given to fun and excitement by individuals is another barrier to ERB in a tourism context (Mehmetoglu, 2010) as individuals will prefer to enjoy their limited time and do not think about environmental responsibilities.

Moreover, Dolnicar (2010) found another important barrier to tourist ERB: place attachment. Place attachment is a key determinant of ERB and the lack of identification of tourists with the region they are visiting could be, along with the decrease of behavioural control, the main reason explaining a less environmental responsible behaviour while travelling.

Del Chiappa and Correia (2018) also considered unwillingness to change as a specific barrier to tourist ERB. Unwillingness to change could imply that the individual also engages an environmentally unfriendly behaviour at home, and the authors suggest that this barrier can be associated with the thought that individual actions are just a drop in the ocean and do not make any difference. Feeling that their actions are insignificant, or that is other's responsibility, are barriers also studied by other authors. Mehmetoglu (2010) suggested that tourists consider that environmental issues are responsibility of the local

community. Miller et al. (2010) stated that individuals usually identify governments and political representatives as the first responsible. but they usually consider that other individuals in other areas are not taking action. And, according to Lorenzoni et al. (2007), lack of action by the government (local, national or international), by business and industry are social perceived barriers.

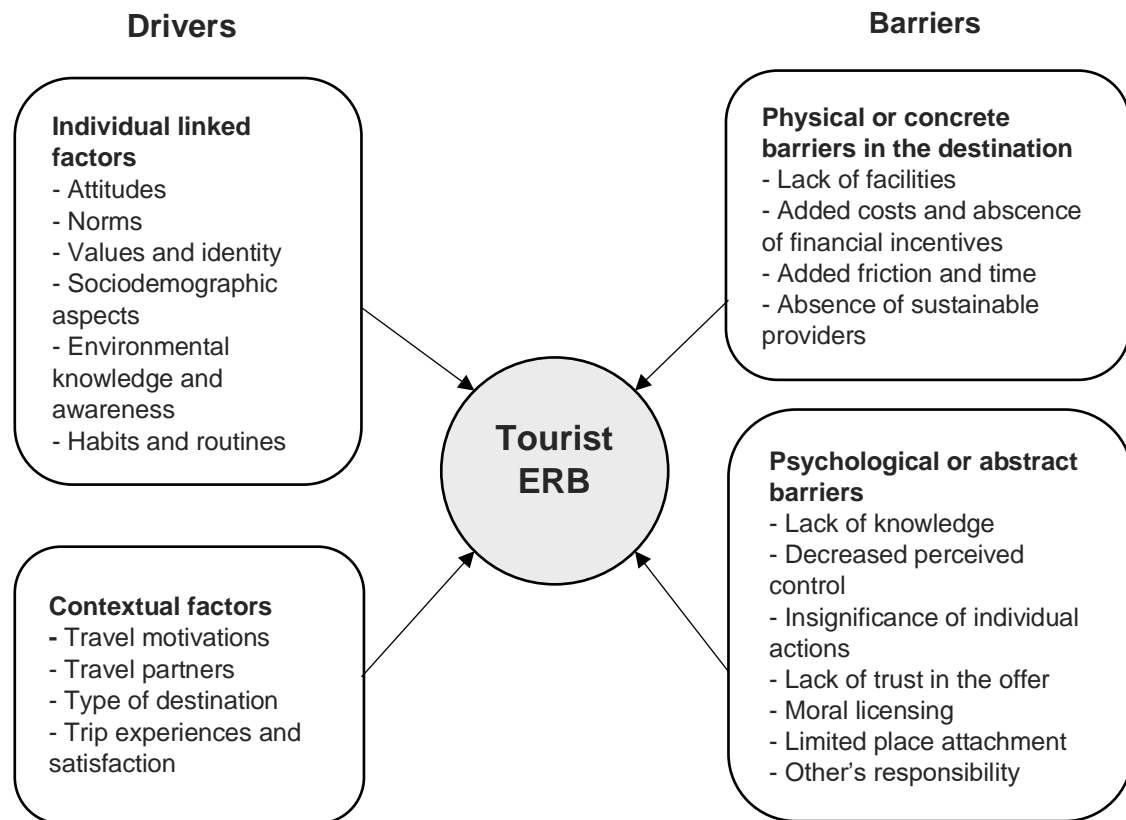
Finally, some authors add lack of knowledge as a barrier to tourist ERB. This lack of knowledge goes beyond groups of individuals rejecting the existence of climate change as general knowledge influences both home and tourism context. Lack of knowledge in this context refers to ignorance in terms of tourism impacts. Miller et al. (2010) described that there is a general low level of connection between the understanding of the environment and the impacts tourism industry has on it and some of the impacts, as aviation impacts, are seen as distant. Moreover, they found that individuals who at home engage behaviours as turning off lights to save energy or saving water, feel these actions are not relevant on holidays.

Environmental misbehaviour is sometimes explained by the lack of information of tourists, but some studies show that even if tourists had full information a behavioural change would neither be found (Becken, 2007). For example, some researches have state that knowledge on gas greenhouse emissions is not translated into a decrease on the demand of air tickets (McKercher et al., 2010). Moreover, according to Lorenzoni et al. (2007) there is available information for those individuals who want it but some related issues are: lack of knowledge about where to find information, lack of desire to seek it, perceived information over-load, not credible sources, perceived lack off relevant information or information only available to experts.

6. Discussion and implications

Environmentally responsible behaviour has been broadly studied to understand what drives an individual to engage this kind of behaviour. The concept has been more recently introduced in tourism research studies with an overall conclusion of a decrease of ERB during holidays. This fact has raised researchers' interest in the specific drivers of ERB in tourism context and have also identified constraints to this behaviour.

Figure 2: Tourist ERB determinants



Source: Own elaboration

Multiple drivers and barriers have been found to influence tourist ERB, however, some of them have a greater power predicting tourist behaviour. As shown in **Figure 2**, drivers of tourist pro-environmental behaviours can be divided into two groups: those inherent in the individual and those linked to the specific context. Drivers linked to the individual himself, as attitudes, have been considered most important drivers for ERB at home. Nonetheless, during holidays, as the individual is in an unfamiliar place and situation, those external, contextual factors will be more important and will explain most differences between home and at the destination behaviour.

But, as in fact pro-environmental behaviours are less engaged in holidays in comparison to daily routines, it could be actually more important to focus on which are the barriers in order to be able to find solutions for this type of misbehaviour. Barriers found are quite diverse and could be divided into “physical or concrete” barriers and those “psychological”. Lack of facilities, added friction and added costs, for example, are existing barriers for all individuals, while moral licensing or the feeling of triviality of oneself actions will not be found on all the tourists, but just on specific groups. However, in the end, some of those “physical” barriers can be simple justifications of an individual to avoid the feeling of guilt and be,

ultimately, justifications that sound more ethic to the individual than just moral licensing.

These physical barriers seem to be easier to solve as facilities can be created, costs can be reduced, and some environmentally friendly actions to not take more than one minute to be completed. But in the case of psychological barriers, there is a much deep work to do.

First, it is important to create awareness of tourist related environmental impacts as it has been shown that there is a low understanding of these context-related impacts. In this direction, authors as Wang et al. (2019), have suggested that enhancing the understanding of environmental background of tourists and showing them which are tasks they can perform to protect the environment would strengthen their ERB. Secondly, destination conservation must be enhanced, and not only persuading the tourist to protect the environment. Public and private investments in ecosystems' protection are highly perceived by the tourists and do have positive effects on their behaviour.

Thirdly, as Juvan and Dolnicar (2017) stated, there are two main effective ways to reduce tourism environmental impacts: reducing the number of holidays and using environmentally sustainable means of transport to get to the destination. As many destinations may not want to have a decrease on tourist arrivals, they have to appeal to the second option if they want to protect the environment. Moreover, a higher availability of sustainable means of transport would also enhance residents ERB.

Fourth, travels motivated by different reasons should be treated in different ways. Specifically, business travel differences arise from the choice of means of transport and accommodation based on business needs and made, in general, by someone who is not travelling. For this reason, tourism players should offer appealing sustainable options for corporations. Nonetheless, most simple behaviours affecting the environment as personal waste treatment or water and electricity consumption will still depend on tourists' decisions.

And finally, one of the most complex behaviours to change are those recently mentioned, related to resources consumption, especially in accommodation sites. In their research, Dolnicar et al. (2017), experimented tourist ERB behaviour with the implementation of stickers aiming to reduce electricity consumption and towel use and found that pro-environmental appeals did not improve those environmental behaviours in hotel guests, although other authors had proved an improvement of ERB in a home context. In conclusion, they found that the effectiveness of these measures is also context dependent. But, as one of the barriers to these behaviours are the lack of incentives (especially financial incentives), new related solutions could be proposed and experimented.

For instance, in previous research studies it has not been investigated how financial incentives could enhance tourist ERB. Awarding prizes, discounts or

free nights to more responsible hotel guests could incentive tourists saving electricity and water they are not directly paying to, reducing their environmental impacts and reducing also hotel chains expenses. As most researchers focus on giving recommendations to destinations governments and other public institutions, the study of solutions to implement by private firms could provide new information and interesting results.

7. Conclusions

Previous research studies have proved that tourists tend to behave in a less environmentally friendly manner when they are away from home. This variance is mostly explained by contextual factors as the availability of infrastructure and facilities, the lack of knowledge about the region and the limited time to enjoy it. But psychological factors as the limited place attachment felt regarding the destination or moral licensing also work as barriers to ERB even in destinations with plenty of facilities and tourists with plenty of time (taking long holidays) and knowledge.

To sum up, it has been found that tourists have no incentives, or not enough, to behave in an environmentally friendly manner, even at home they do not need these incentives to engage ERB. But, in the end, environmental concern is growing more and more. Thus, it is an opportunity for public and private institutions to find effective measures to enhance tourist ERB and, consequently, improve destination conservation and tourist experiences.

Most studies have looked for the main factors inducing to a lower environmentally responsible behaviour while travelling. However, few research studies have focused on experimenting new measures to diminish the importance of the barriers to tourist ERB. Moreover, as most studies focus on fragile environments which tend to attract environmental responsible tourists it could be interesting to address further research to mass tourism destination, which are usually considered where most tourism misbehaviour happens. Thus, relationships between other kinds of tourist misbehaviour and environmentally unfriendly actions could be evaluated.

Further research studies could focus on which measures improve tourist ERB, but could also study how implemented measures in their home community influence their behaviour in the destination. On the one hand, we could assume that as routines have influence on behaviour, tourists would maintain their habits while travelling. On the other hand, more strict regulations at home could lead to an increased moral licensing, as individuals could think they have done enough during the year and they have the right to take a break.

In addition, few researchers have decided to study how resident's ERB influence tourist ERB. It would be interesting to find out whether tourist ERB decreases in a higher degree in destinations where the local community is less concerned and

engage more environmentally unfriendly behaviours. As the connection between the destination attributes and tourists' characteristics has been already studied, including residents' characteristics in the equation could give more clues to find solutions to alleviate the gap between home and destination behaviours.

References

- Antimova, R., Nawijn, J., & Peeters, P. (2012). The awareness/attitude-gap in sustainable tourism: A theoretical perspective. *Tourism Review*, 67(3), 7–16.
- Barr, S., Shaw, G., Coles, T., & Prillwitz, J. (2010). "A holiday is a holiday": practicing sustainability, home and away. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 18(3), 474–481.
- Becken, S. (2007). Tourists' perception of international air travel's impact on the global climate and potential climate change policies. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(4), 351–368.
- Bray, J., Johns, N., & Kilburn, D. (2011). An Exploratory Study into the Factors Impeding Ethical Consumption. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 98(4), 597–608.
- Buccioli, A., Landini, F., & Piovesan, M. (2013). Unethical behavior in the field: Demographic characteristics and beliefs of the cheater. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 93, 248–257.
- Budeanu, A. (2007). Sustainable tourist behaviour – a discussion of opportunities for change. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 31(5), 499–508.
- Butcher, J. (2008). Ecotourism as Life Politics. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(3), 315–326.
- Carr, N. (1999). A study of gender differences: Young tourist behaviour in a UK coastal resort. *Tourism Management*, 20(2), 223–228.
- Carrington, M. J., Zwick, D., & Neville, B. (2016). The ideology of the ethical consumption gap. *Marketing Theory*, 16(1), 21–38.
- Chafe, Z. (2005). *Consumer Demand and Operator Support for Socially and Environmentally Responsible Tourism*.
- Cheng, T. M., & Wu, H. C. (2015). How do environmental knowledge, environmental sensitivity, and place attachment affect environmentally responsible behavior? An integrated approach for sustainable island tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(4), 557–576.
- Cheng, T. M., Wu, H. C., Wang, J. T. M., & Wu, M. R. (2019). Community Participation as a mediating factor on residents' attitudes towards sustainable tourism development and their personal environmentally responsible behaviour. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(14), 1764–1782.
- Chiu, Y. T. H., Lee, W. I., & Chen, T. H. (2014). Environmentally responsible behavior in ecotourism: Antecedents and implications. *Tourism*

- Management*, 40, 321–329.
- Chung, J., & Monroe, G. S. (2003). Exploring Social Desirability Bias. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 291.
- Cohen, S. A., Higham, J. E. S., & Cavaliere, C. T. (2011). Binge flying. Behavioural addiction and climate change. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(3), 1070–1089.
- Cohen, S. A., Prayag, G., & Moital, M. (2014). Consumer behaviour in tourism: Concepts, influences and opportunities. In *Current Issues in Tourism* (Vol. 17, Issue 10, pp. 872–909). Routledge.
- Cooper-Martin, E., & Holbrook, M. (1993). Ethical Consumption Experiences and Ethical Space. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 113–118.
- Cowe, R., & Williams, S. (2000). *Who are the ethical consumers?*, *Ethical Consumerism Report*, The Cooperative Bank.
- Debbage, K. (1991). Spatial Behavior in a Bahamian Resort. In *Annals of Tourism Research* (Vol. 18, Issue 2).
- Del Chiappa, G., & Correia, A. H. (2018). Factors Shaping Tourists' Inertia Towards Behaving Responsibly. In M. Kozak & N. Kozak (Eds.), *Tourist Behaviour* (pp. 49–63).
- Dolnicar, S. (2010). Identifying tourists with smaller environmental footprints. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(6), 717–734.
- Dolnicar, S., & Grün, B. (2009). Environmentally friendly behavior: Can heterogeneity among individuals and contexts/environments be harvested for improved sustainable management? *Environment and Behavior*, 41(5), 693–714.
- Dolnicar, S., Knezevic Cvelbar, L., & Grün, B. (2017). Do Pro-environmental Appeals Trigger Pro-environmental Behavior in Hotel Guests? *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(8), 988–997.
- Doran, R., & Larsen, S. (2016). The Relative Importance of Social and Personal Norms in Explaining Intentions to Choose Eco-Friendly Travel Options. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(2), 159–166.
- European Commission. (2004). *Feasibility and preparatory study regarding a multi-stakeholder European targeted action for Sustainable tourism & transport* (Vol. 2004, Issue 1).
- Fullerton, R. A., & Punj, G. (2004). Repercussions of promoting an ideology of consumption: Consumer misbehavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(11), 1239–1249.
- Gagnon Thompson, S. C., & Barton, M. A. (1994). Ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes toward the environment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 14(2), 149–157.
- Gatersleben, B., Murtagh, N., & Abrahamse, W. (2014). Values, identity and pro-environmental behaviour. *Contemporary Social Science*, 9(4), 374–392.

- Geerts, W. (2014). *Business Travel, Hotels, and Environmental Sustainability: An exploration of business travellers' environment-related practices at the travel destination*. University of London.
- Gössling, S., & Hall, C. M. (2006). Uncertainties in predicting tourist flows under scenarios of climate change. In *Climatic Change* (Vol. 79, Issues 3–4, pp. 163–173).
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., Hall, C. M., Ceron, J. P., & Dubois, G. (2012). Consumer behaviour and demand response of tourists to climate change. In *Annals of Tourism Research* (Vol. 39, Issue 1, pp. 36–58).
- Han, J. H., Lee, M. J., & Hwang, Y. S. (2016). Tourists' environmentally responsible behavior in response to climate change and tourist experiences in nature-based tourism. *Sustainability*, 8(7), 1–14.
- Hares, A., Dickinson, J., & Wilkes, K. (2011). Climate change and the air travel decisions of UK tourists. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 18, 466–473.
- He, X., Hu, D., Swanson, S. R., Su, L., & Chen, X. (2018). Destination perceptions, relationship quality, and tourist environmentally responsible behavior. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 28, 93–104.
- Hedlund, T. (2011). The impact of values, environmental concern, and willingness to accept economic sacrifices to protect the environment on tourists' intentions to buy ecologically sustainable tourism alternatives. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 11(4), 278–288.
- Hedlund, T., Marell, A., & Gärling, T. (2012). The mediating effect of value orientation on the relationship between socio-demographic factors and environmental concern in Swedish tourists vacation choices. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 11(1), 16–33.
- Herberger, R. A. (1975). The Ecological Product Buying Motive: A Challenge For Consumer Education. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 9(2), 187–195.
- Hillery, M., Nancarrow, B., Griffin, G., & Syme, G. (2001). Tourist perception of environmental impact. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), 853–867.
- Ingenbleek, P. T. M., Meulenbergh, M. T. G., & Van Trijp, H. C. M. (2015). Buyer social responsibility: a general concept and its implications for marketing management. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 31(13–14), 1428–1448.
- Iwata, O. (2001). Attitudinal determinants of environmentally responsible behavior. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 29(2), 183–190.
- Juvan, E., & Dolnicar, S. (2017). Drivers of pro-environmental tourist behaviours are not universal. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 166, 879–890.
- Kim, A. K. J. (2012). Determinants of Tourist Behaviour in Coastal Environmental Protection. *Tourism Geographies*, 14(1), 26–49.
- Kollmuss, A., & Agyeman, J. (2002). Mind the Gap: Why do people act environmentally and what are the barriers to pro-environmental behavior? *Environmental Education Research*, 8(3), 239–260.
- Krippendorf, J. (1987). *The holiday makers : understanding the impact of leisure*

and travel. Butterworth-Heinemann.

- Lee, T. H. (2011). How recreation involvement, place attachment and conservation commitment affect environmentally responsible behavior. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(7), 895–915.
- Lee, T. H., Jan, F.-H., & Yang, C.-C. (2013). Environmentally responsible behavior of nature-based tourists: A review. In *International Journal of Development and Sustainability* (Vol. 2, Issue 1).
- Lee, T. H., & Jan, F. H. (2015). The Effects of Recreation Experience, Environmental Attitude, and Biospheric Value on the Environmentally Responsible Behavior of Nature-Based Tourists. *Environmental Management*, 56(1), 193–208.
- Lee, Y. K., Pei, F., Ryu, K. sang, & Choi, S. (2019). Why the tripartite relationship of place attachment, loyalty, and pro-environmental behaviour matter? *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 24(3), 250–267.
- Leggett, C. G., Kleckner, N. S., Boyle, K. J., Duffield, J. W., & Mitchell, R. C. (2003). Social desirability bias in contingent valuation surveys administered through in-person interviews. *Land Economics*, 79(4), 561–575.
- Litvin, S. W., & Goh, H. K. (2002). Self-image congruity: a valid tourism theory? In *Tourism Management* (Vol. 23).
- Lorenzoni, I., Nicholson-Cole, S., & Whitmarsh, L. (2007). Barriers perceived to engaging with climate change among the UK public and their policy implications. *Global Environmental Change*, 17(3–4), 445–459.
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A Comparison of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Theory of Reasoned Action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 18(1), 3–9.
- Martens, S., & Spaargaren, G. (2005). The politics of sustainable consumption: the case of the Netherlands. *Sustainability: Science, Practice and Policy*, 1(1), 29–42.
- Mazar, N., Amir, O., & Ariely, D. (2008). The Dishonesty of Honest People: A Theory of Self-Concept Maintenance. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45(6), 633–644.
- McKercher, B., Prideaux, B., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2010). Achieving voluntary reductions in the carbon footprint of tourism and climate change. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(3), 297–317.
- Mehmetoglu, M. (2010). Factors influencing the willingness to behave environmentally friendly at home and holiday settings. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 10(4), 430–447.
- Michael Hall, C. (2010). Crisis events in tourism: Subjects of crisis in tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 13(5), 401–417.
- Miller, D., Merrilees, B., & Coghlan, A. (2015). Sustainable urban tourism: understanding and developing visitor pro-environmental behaviours. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(1), 26–46.

- Miller, G., Rathouse, K., Scarles, C., Holmes, K., & Tribe, J. (2010). Public understanding of sustainable tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(3), 627–645.
- Newholm, T., & Shaw, D. (2007). Studying the ethical consumer: a review of research. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 6(5), 253–270.
- OECD. (2016). *OECD Tourism Trends and Policies 2016 Policy Highlights*.
- Ozturk, I., Al-Mulali, U., & Saboori, B. (2016). Investigating the environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis: the role of tourism and ecological footprint. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 23(2), 1916–1928.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 14(4), 55–58.
- Richardson, R. B., & Loomis, J. B. (2004). Adaptive recreation planning and climate change: A contingent visitation approach. *Ecological Economics*, 50(1–2), 83–99.
- Schmidt, H.-W. (2002). Tourism and the Environment. In *Statistics in focus*.
- Scott, D., Jones, B., & Konopek, J. (2007). Implications of climate and environmental change for nature-based tourism in the Canadian Rocky Mountains: A case study of Waterton Lakes National Park. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 570–579.
- Scott, D., Jones, B., & Konopek, J. (2008). Exploring Potential Visitor Response to Climate-Induced Environmental Changes in Canada's Rocky Mountain National Parks. *Tourism Review International*, 12(1), 43–56.
- Scott, D., & Lemieux, C. (2010). Weather and climate information for tourism. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 1(1), 146–183.
- Shalvi, S., Gino, F., Barkan, R., & Ayal, S. (2015). Self-Serving Justifications: Doing Wrong and Feeling Moral. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 24(2), 125–130.
- Siew Wai, Y., & Bojei, J. (2015). Moderating Effects of Psychology Factors for Stewardship of Sustainable Behaviours: A Conceptual Framework. *International Journal of Business, Economics and Law*, 6(2).
- Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 340–352.
- Stern, P. C. (2000). New Environmental Theories: Toward a Coherent Theory of Environmentally Significant Behavior. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(3), 407–424.
- Stern, P. C., & Dietz, T. (1994). The Value Basis of Environmental Concern. *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(3), 65–84.
- Stone, G., Barnes, J. H., & Montgomery, C. (1995). Ecoscale: A scale for the measurement of environmentally responsible consumers. *Psychology & Marketing*, 12(7), 595–612.

- Su, L., & Swanson, S. R. (2017). The effect of destination social responsibility on tourist environmentally responsible behavior: Compared analysis of first-time and repeat tourists. *Tourism Management*, 60, 308–321.
- Tanner, C., Kaiser, F. G., & Wölfing Kast, S. (2004). Contextual conditions of ecological consumerism: A food-purchasing survey. *Environment and Behavior*, 36(1), 94–111.
- Thapa, B. (2010). The mediation effect of outdoor recreation participation on environmental attitude-behavior correspondence. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 41(3), 133–150.
- Thielmann, I., Spadaro, G., & Balliet, D. (2020). Personality and prosocial behavior: A theoretical framework and meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 146(1), 30–90.
- Todd, S. (2001). Self-concept: a tourism application. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 1(2), 184–196.
- Tölkes, C. (2020). The role of sustainability communication in the attitude–behaviour gap of sustainable tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 20(1), 117–128.
- Tran, X., & Ralston, L. (2006). Tourist preferences: Influence of unconscious needs. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(2), 424–441.
- UNWTO. (2012). Tourism in the Green Economy – Background Report. In *Tourism in the Green Economy – Background Report*. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO).
- UNWTO. (2019a). Baseline Report on the Integration of Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns into Tourism Policies. In *Baseline Report on the Integration of Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns into Tourism Policies*. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO).
- UNWTO. (2019b). World Tourism Barometer and Statistical Annex, November 2019. *UNWTO World Tourism Barometer*, 17(4), 1–44.
- UNWTO. (2019c). Transport-related CO2 Emissions of the Tourism Sector – Modelling Results. In *Transport-related CO2 Emissions of the Tourism Sector – Modelling Results*. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO).
- Uriely, N., Ram, Y., & Malach-Pines, A. (2011). Psychoanalytic sociology of deviant tourist behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(3), 1051–1069.
- Uriely, N., Reichel, A., & Shani, A. (2007). Ecological Orientation of Tourists: An Empirical Investigation. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 7(4), 161–175.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. Wiley.
- Wang, C., Zhang, J., Cao, J., Hu, H., & Yu, P. (2019). The influence of environmental background on tourists' environmentally responsible behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 231, 804–810.
- Wang, N. (2000). *Tourism and Modernity: A Sociological Analysis*. Pergamon.
- Xu, S., Kim, H. J., Liang, M., & Ryu, K. (2018). Interrelationships between

tourist involvement, tourist experience, and environmentally responsible behavior: a case study of Nansha Wetland Park, China. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 35(7), 856–868.