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# Linking Regenerative Travel and Residents' Support for Tourism Development in Kaua'i Island (Hawaii): Moderating-Mediating effects of Travel-Shaming and Foreign Tourist Attractiveness

## Abstract

'Leaving the place behind, better than before' is the regenerative state-of-mind approach to reset, rethink and move forward, beyond sustainable tourism. Despite growing global attention, empirical evidence supporting tourism developments through regenerative travel remains extremely rare. Moreover, rampant incidents of travel-shaming across tourism destinations undermine foreign tourist attractiveness, ultimately affecting residents' support for tourism developments. To address this overlooked and potential research gap, the present study develops and tests a holistic moderated-mediation model of resident's support for tourism development, involving regenerative travel, travel-shaming and foreign tourist attractiveness. Drawing on study data from 463 islanders in Kauai (Hawaii) and the use of structural equation modeling via Mplus, the study provides pioneering evidence on the effects of regenerative travel on residents' support for tourism development, under moderating-mediating influence of travel-shaming and foreign tourist attractiveness. The present study implications extend to the development and validation of a new scale for regenerative travel. The study findings offer strategic insights and directions for imagining new business models, resources, and relationships within regenerative tourism in the post-pandemic world.

**Keywords** Regenerative travel, foreign tourist attractiveness, travel shaming, residents' support for tourism development, social exchange theory, emotional solidarity theory, and social disruption theory.

## 1. Introduction

Regenerative travel is creating a sense-making narrative to mobilize tourism transformations (e.g., holistic value co-creation and reinventive thinking) beyond the scope of sustainable travel and tourism (e.g., protective versus reinventive tourism mindset). In essence, advancing from sustainable to regenerative travel behavior is critical to address the urgent calls for action on climate crisis and depleting planetary resources (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021; Gretzel et al., 2020). Emerging from a year-long lockdown, the global tourism industry has experienced an unprecedented and devastating shortfall of 381 million international arrivals, 62 million lost jobs, and a massive decline of USD 4.5 trillion of tourism-led contributions to the global GDP (UNWTO, 2020; WTTC, 2021). Despite the widely debated curse of the global travel shutdown, its positive impact on the environment as well as the local communities has been portrayed as a blessing to some (Eroglu, 2020; Fotiadis et al., 2021; Koh, 2020). Regenerative mindset enables tourism to become more meaningful by creating opportunities for destinations to heal, also to counterbalance social, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism transformations (Ateljevic, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021; Gretzel et al., 2020). Regenerative travel holistically addresses the tourism impacts on the environment, entire communities, as well as the destination itself through a lens of regenerative living systems (Brouder et al., 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021). Undoubtedly, sustainability-focused tourism practices have practically slowed down the state of degradation at destinations (Duxbury et al., 2021). However, the restorative and regenerative capabilities within the tourism ecosystem (e.g., net benefit model inclusive of all tourism stakeholders) have been largely ignored (Ateljevic, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021). Being the focal recipient and one of the most influential stakeholders, local residents directly experience the economic, environmental, and social impact of tourism developments at their host destinations (Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Hence, the strategic nature of resident support for tourism developments becomes even more demanding when destinations experience

1  
2 overtourism or lack of tourism (Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020). Tourism scholars have  
3  
4 continued to explore residents' perceptions from a wide-range of interests, e.g., resident-  
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6 tourist value co-creation, place image, tourism impacts, tolerance, reluctance to embrace  
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8 foreign tourists, sustainable tourism, tourist attractiveness and residents' expressed support for  
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10 tourism development (Joo et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
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15 In a highly competitive global tourism landscape, destinations have historically attracted  
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17 foreign tourists through various brand-related marketing campaigns (e.g., naturally beautiful  
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19 scenery, sandy beaches, iconic cities, world-famous landmarks, and cultural heritage, etc.),  
20  
21 and more recently through travel incentives (e.g., tourism compensation, travel bubbles, and  
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23 open quarantine arrivals with vaccine passports) (Sharma et al., 2021; Sharun et al., 2020;  
24  
25 Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Foreign tourists have always been the prime customer, also the major  
26  
27 source of global tourism activities and revenues. Recent studies have highlighted foreign  
28  
29 tourist attractiveness as a significant factor (Zaman & Aktan, 2021) in gauging support for  
30  
31 various developments at host destinations (Erul & Woosnam, 2021). However, extremely  
32  
33 limited studies have attempted to examine foreign tourist attractiveness by taking into account  
34  
35 the resident's perspective, especially under rising anti-tourist resident sentiments (e.g., travel  
36  
37 shaming, and 'your vacation is my home' campaigns) (Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
38  
39 Besides an enormous shock of lost tourism revenues, the local residents' resistance to tourism  
40  
41 influx has further expanded due to the rising fears of highly contagious new COVID-19  
42  
43 variants (e.g., delta and omicron) (Joo et al., 2021; Zaman et al., 2021). Moreover, the global  
44  
45 pandemic fatigue has sparked a new wave of travel shaming across destinations where  
46  
47 travelers are subjected to expressed anger, negative sentiments and/or direct criticism  
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49 (Cresswell, 2020; Joo et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021; Zaman et al., 2021). Before the start of the  
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51 pandemic, travel shaming was generally directed towards individuals who infrequently  
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53 traveled; however, the recent version blames individuals for their ongoing travel during the  
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1  
2 pandemic (Skinner, 2021). Hence, travel shaming has emerged as a potential challenge for  
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4 destination planners while they gear up preparations to welcome back tourists once travel  
5  
6 become more safe, and less restricted (Fotiadis et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2021; Skinner,  
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8 2021).  
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12 As regenerative travel has gained traction in the global tourism industry (e.g., rise of eco-  
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14 luxury boutique hotels), it has also reignited the scholarly focus on regenerative tourism  
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16 (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021). However, to date, such futuristic claims on  
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18 regenerative tourism remain a mystery and without empirical evidence (Duxbury et al., 2021).  
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21 Moreover, extremely limited studies have examined the influential role of foreign tourist  
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23 attractiveness in supporting tourism developments, especially when foreign tourist  
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25 attractiveness is potentially exposed to positive (i.e., regenerative travel) and negative (i.e.,  
26  
27 travel shaming) influencers (Duxbury et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). To  
28  
29 overcome this potential research gap, the present study makes a pioneering effort to  
30  
31 investigate the effects of regenerative travel (RT) on the residents' support for tourism  
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33 development (RSTD), under the mediating influence of foreign tourist attractiveness (FTA)  
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35 and moderating effect of travel shaming (TS). Besides new empirical evidence on the  
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37 relationships between RT, FTA, TS and RSTD using a broad theoretical lens (i.e., stakeholder  
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39 theory, social exchange theory, social disruption theory, and emotional solidarity theory), the  
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41 novelty of present research is the development and validation of the first scale to measure  
42  
43 regenerative travel. The present study's aim is to guide policy makers and tourism  
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45 practitioners, as well as create awareness among tourists and residents to accelerate ground-  
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47 breaking changes at tourism destinations that leave the place better off (every time) whenever  
48  
49 visited (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021).  
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## 2. Theoretical background and Hypotheses Development

### 2.1. Regenerative Travel

The notion of ‘regenerative travel’ was discussed firstly by Arfwedson (1994), who proposed that protected areas and heritage sites can be used to assist local economies in their transition towards sustainable development models. In scholarly definition, regenerative tourism addresses the inherent inadequacies of the concept of sustainability as the former proposes inherently self-renewing systems to accelerate the revitalization of cultural and natural environments through tourism (Arfwedson, 1994; Dowling, 2000; Lyle, 1996). To that end, regenerative tourism diverges from the traditional sense of sustainable tourism as it focuses on actively enhancing the positive impact of tourism rather than minimizing the negative impacts (Town & Owen, 2005). Therefore, in regenerative travel, the focus is not on the sustainability of tourism per se but on how tourism can be utilized to enhance local well-being, and promote sustainability and revitalization of destinations (Duxbury et al., 2021). Despite the early efforts decades ago, the literature on regenerative travel has remained largely silent until very recently, when attention has started to be paid again to warrant foreseeable tourism development in the post-pandemic era (Brouder et al., 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021; Sheller, 2020). Parallel with this trend, the creation of new regenerative travel approaches and models was also proposed by international organizations to warrant resilient and sustainable tourism development while also involving global challenges such as climate change (UNESCO, 2020; UNWTO, 2020a). Based on the diverse economies framework (Gibson-Graham, 2008), Cave and Dredge (2020) illustrated the plausibility of regenerative travel to withstand unforeseen crises, proposing co-existence of alternative practices (through a merger of capitalist, non-capitalist, and innovative practices) for resilient tourism development. Taking advantage of the various applications of post-mechanistic economic framework (i.e., freedom of choice, cognitive relativity, creativity, social interconnectedness and communication), regenerative motives can overcome the incapacibilities of contemporary

1  
2 economic science while ensuring responsible use of tourism resources (Fuchs & Baggio,  
3  
4 2017; Fuchs et al., 2021). Therefore, regenerative travel extends the boundaries of traditional  
5  
6 tourism by proposing a more inclusive framework, which calls for diverse stakeholders'  
7  
8 collaboration for sustainable tourism development. In this regard, apart from the positive  
9  
10 environmental and monetary benefits, regenerative travel is expected to provide social gains  
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12 such as mutual learning, knowledge, and experience exchange between residents, tourists, and  
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14 other relevant stakeholders (Matunga et al., 2020).  
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17  
18 Kaua'i island (Hawaii) is one of the groundbreaking destinations that is embracing  
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20 regenerative tourism through a strategically envisioned direction in its three-year destination  
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22 management action plan (Laird, 2021). Kaua'i, also well-known as the 'Garden Island' is the  
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24 oldest and fourth-largest in the Hawaiian Islands chain. Besides being famed for its filming in  
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26 most popular movies (e.g., Jurassic Park, Pirates of the Caribbean, Indiana Jones, and Fantasy  
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28 Island), Kaua'i also offers historical landmarks (e.g., the monument of Captain James Cook at  
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30 Waimea beach that marks his landing site on January 19, 1778). Kaua'i also has the most  
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32 accessible beaches (e.g., the coastline stretching 111 miles), hiking tracks, and rivers amongst  
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34 all Hawaiian Islands (Yee, 2018; HTA, 2021; Adam, 2021). The annual number of tourists  
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36 reached an all-time high figure of 10 million in 2019, hence attracting approx. USD 18 billion  
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38 of tourism revenues (HTA, 2021; Adam, 2021). The influx of tourists in Kauai (around  
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40 101,425 visitors) during December 2021 outpaced its small population of approximately  
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42 72,000 inhabitants (HTA, 2021). Importantly, there remains huge skepticism about resident's  
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44 readiness to welcome foreign tourists and reestablishing their support for tourism  
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46 development, especially after experiencing an extensive year of solitude (e.g., empty beaches,  
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48 restaurants, shopping malls, and reduced traffic, etc.) (Fotiadis et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2021;  
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50 Sharma et al., 2021). Hence, regenerative tourism with a closely aligned residents' support for  
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52 tourism development is fundamental to safeguard Kauai's natural resources (e.g., largest  
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2 coffee plantation within the United States), also preserve its native ecosystem (e.g.,  
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4 endangered species, unique wildlife, and tropical rainforests, etc.) (Duxbury et al., 2021).  
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## 7 8 **2.2. Foreign Tourist Attractiveness**

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10 A foreign tourist has been defined as ‘an individual visiting a place other than their home  
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12 country for the purpose of holidays, recreation, or medical treatment, etc.’ (OECD, 2021).  
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15 According to UNWTO (2020), the growth of international tourism has outpaced the  
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17 worldwide economies, which has necessitated the need for more sustainable growth policies.

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19 In particular, popular destinations such as Barcelona and Venice are becoming notorious due  
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21 to overtourism, which has induced mounting anti-tourism movements and hostile feelings  
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23 towards foreign tourists (Kim et al., 2020; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Therefore, once viewed as  
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25 a significant driver of economic, social development, foreign tourists are blamed for having  
26  
27 ruined the authenticity of destinations (Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020).  
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31 As interpreted through the lens of social exchange theory, individuals seek to maximize their  
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33 benefits while minimizing costs when they decide to start and maintain social and business  
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35 relationships. Thus, the reciprocal relationship is continued only when the perceived benefits  
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37 surpass the costs (Lambe et al., 2016; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Kim et al. (2020) used the  
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39 social exchange theory as a benchmark to develop the tourist attractiveness concept, where  
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41 the authors defined tourist attractiveness as the ability of tourists to attract, praise and seek  
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43 attention of the host community at resident’s destination (Zaman & Aktan, 2021). In their  
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45 study focusing on Jeju (a resort island in South Korea) residents’ assessment of Chinese  
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47 tourists, the tourist attractiveness was conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct, where  
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49 tourist compatibility was deemed as the major component of tourist attractiveness. In essence,  
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51 intimacy and sentimental compatibility are often referred to as a precondition for tourist-  
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53 resident interaction, thus accounting for the core of perceived tourist attractiveness (Woosnam  
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55 & Norman, 2010; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). To that end, the present study adopts a  
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2 unidimensional operationalization of tourist attractiveness, where only the residents'  
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4 perceived tourist compatibility was highlighted.  
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### 7 8 **2.3. Travel Shaming**

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10 Laros and Steenkamp (2005) in their seminal work proposed a hierarchical model of  
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12 consumer emotions, that specified the feeling of shame as a major component of consumers'  
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14 negative affect dimension. In particular, when a consumption behavior is not viewed as  
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16 acceptable within the lens of social norms, values, etc., a person might start to feel shame,  
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18 which could lead to the rise of other negative sentiments such as fear and anger (Koshkaki &  
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20 Solhi, 2016). As the major constituent of other negative emotions, shame has been utilized by  
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22 many marketers to unveil the patterns of various consumer behaviors, including unhealthy  
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24 diet, heavy drinking, hedonic product consumption, mobile phone choice, etc. (Chun et al.,  
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26 2005; Han et al., 2014; Koshkaki & Solhi, 2016; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Besides the  
27  
28 literature investigating shame under different contexts, the Swedish teenage climate activist  
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30 Greta Thunberg has led the rise of a new trend named the "flight shame movement", which  
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32 aimed to generate social pressure to reduce gas emissions released by the airline industry  
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34 (Lew, 2020; Mkono et al., 2020). It also did not take much time after her sail from the U.K to  
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36 the U.S to reach a tipping point where more people become aware of the harms of flying  
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38 (Lew, 2020), and traveling by plane has begun to be associated with feelings of shame and  
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40 guilt (Flaherty & Holmes, 2020; Mkono et al., 2020). Most recently, such a tipping point  
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42 seems to be occurring in traveling again, but this time due to health risks associated with the  
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44 Covid-19. During the pandemic, individuals have been empowered with the responsibility and  
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46 knowledge that they not only have to protect their health but also the health of others around  
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48 them. Because traveling is considered dangerous for the risk of disseminating the virus,  
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50 people are even legally enforced to stay at home and not travel, neither visit family and  
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52 friends unless it is inevitably necessary (Budd & Ison, 2020). On the other hand, those who  
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2 travel are fiercely stigmatized for being negligent, ignorant, and selfish, which spurs a broad  
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4 spectrum of moral and emotional conflict for travelers during the pandemic (Compton, 2020;  
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6 Jackson, 2021). As a newly recognized phenomenon despite its roots in the consumer  
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8 behavior literature (Koshkaki & Solhi, 2016; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005), travel shaming can  
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10 be defined as expressed criticism and negative social assessment of others who travel during  
11  
12 the pandemic. Thus, once receiving positive responses for sharing vacation pictures, people  
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14 who travel during the pandemic become the victims of travel shaming and being openly  
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16 criticized by their social network for not paying necessary attention to the public health  
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18 (Grant, 2021).  
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#### 24 **2.4. Residents' Support for Tourism Development**

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26 As explained by social disruption theory, when local communities experience rapid tourism  
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28 growth, the destination's authenticity (e.g., local customs and traditions) will be eventually  
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30 eroded, hence leading to a gradual depreciation in residents' support for tourism development  
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32 (Park & Stokowski, 2009). Also, in the most popular model of Doxey, residents are claimed  
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34 to go through different cycles, i.e., initially reflecting enthusiasm towards tourism, and  
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36 subsequently leading to anti-tourism sentiments, depending on the perceived tourism benefits  
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38 and expected costs (Doxey, 1975). The widely dominant social exchange theory (SET) in the  
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40 tourism literature provides a theoretical explanation for this phenomenon within the context of  
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42 residents' supportive behavior towards tourism development (Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Eslami  
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44 et al., 2019; Qin et al., 2021; Sharpley, 2014). SET manifests that residents' perspective of  
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46 tourism development is a function of the degree of exchange during host-resident interaction.  
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51 In particular, in case the economic, social, and environmental benefits surpass the costs of  
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53 tourism, residents will have a heightened positive evaluation of tourism development. In  
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55 contrast, residents are likely to stand against tourism development when their perceived losses  
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57 are substantially higher than the benefits (Stylidis, 2018; Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
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1  
2 Residents' support for tourism development has become more crucial, especially during the  
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4 COVID-19 pandemic. A very recent study illustrated that regardless of the economic benefits  
5  
6 of tourism, due to heightened risk perceptions, residents perceived tourism as dangerous,  
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8 which led to resistance against tourism development (Joo et al., 2021). In addition, as the key  
9  
10 stakeholders of tourism, despite suffering from the decrease of tourism revenues, residents  
11  
12 can also be deemed as partially responsible for the non-flattening curve of new infections  
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14 (Qiu et al., 2020). Therefore, during the pandemic, residents need to take more active roles  
15  
16 than before in promoting social, environmental, health, and financial sustainability in their  
17  
18 destinations (Ramkissoon, 2020). Besides, tourism policymakers must also be aware of the  
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20 risk of discrimination since tourists with particular origins could be discriminated against by  
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22 the residents, which could devastate sustainable tourism development (Tse & Tung, 2020).  
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## 28 **2.5. Regenerative Travel and Residents' Support for Tourism Development**

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30 Regenerative travel offers destinations (especially those suffering from over-tourism) to  
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32 achieve a net positive impact on local communities by swiftly moving away from the  
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34 traditional consumption model toward regeneration (Ateljevic, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020;  
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36 Duxbury et al., 2021). Residents' supportive behavior has been central for tourism  
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38 development at any destination, especially tourism capitals (e.g., Barcelona, Amsterdam, and  
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40 Prague) that have recently experienced anti-tourism protests and backlash prompted by locals'  
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42 mounting concerns about overtourism (Henley, 2020). Numerous studies have highlighted the  
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44 resident's behavioral response (either supportive or forming resistance) to tourism  
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46 developments based on residents' perception of tourist's motives and behaviors (e.g., value  
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48 co-creation and emotional solidarity versus violating local laws, causing irreparable damage  
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50 to ancient structures, disrespecting local culture, landmarks and attractions) (Kim & Kang,  
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52 2020; Lan et al., 2021; Shen, Luo & Zhao, 2017; Tsaur, Yen & Teng, 2018; Wan, Hui & Qiu,  
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54 2021; Woosnam, 2012; Zaman, & Aktan, 2021). As argued by the stakeholder theory,  
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1  
2 residents' views about tourism have to be systematically integrated with key tourism  
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4 stakeholders (i.e., tourism planners and tourists) to ensure healthy tourism development (Erul  
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6 et al., 2020; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Prior literature on residents' support for tourism  
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8 development has highlighted that once residents appreciate tourists' contribution to their host  
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10 destination economy and quality of life, they tend to develop stronger emotional bonds with  
11  
12 visitors (Erul et al., 2020; Woosnam, 2012; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Besides, sharing similar  
13  
14 beliefs and behaviors such as respecting nature, enjoying similar recreation and beach  
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16 activities, etc. offered by the destination will create an emotional link between locals and  
17  
18 visitors, which will ultimately trigger greater support for various tourism developments  
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20 (Garau-Vadell et al., 2018; Woo et al., 2018; Woosnam & Norman, 2010).  
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26 Regenerative travel is related to the extent to which tourists participate in activities that  
27  
28 preserve and flourish the natural, social and economic standards of a destination, thereby  
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30 increasing the local's quality of life (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021). Therefore,  
31  
32 drawing upon the theory of emotional solidarity, one can argue that regenerative travel  
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34 behavior bolsters residents' sense of emotional closeness towards tourists, which can lead to  
35  
36 extended support by residents for tourism development (Erul et al., 2020). Besides, prior  
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38 studies have provided ample evidence that support for tourism development was shaped to a  
39  
40 great extent by the residents' perceived social, economic, and environmental impacts of  
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42 tourism (Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020; Tournois & Djeric, 2018). In line with these theoretical  
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44 insights, the first hypothesis is framed as follows:  
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50  $H_1$ : Regenerative travel positively affects residents' support for tourism development.  
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## 53 54 **2.6. Regenerative Travel and Foreign Tourist Attractiveness**

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56 Applying Durkheim's theory of emotional solidarity to tourism, Woosnam et al. (2009)  
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58 proposed that the degree of shared behavior, beliefs, and positive interactions between tourists  
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1  
2 and locals positively influences the resident-tourist sense of emotional solidarity (Qin et al.,  
3  
4 2021). Therefore, when residents and tourists are believed to share the same norm (i.e., local  
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6 lifestyles and nature have to be respected and preserved), residents tend to build emotional  
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8 solidarity with tourists (Woosnam, 2011), which in return enhances residents' perceptions of  
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10 tourism (Woosnam, 2012). Within this perspective, in a study investigating residents' views  
11  
12 of tourists in Bangkok, environmental and socio-cultural behaviors exhibited by tourists were  
13  
14 found to significantly affect residents' overall evaluation of foreign tourists. In particular,  
15  
16 residents viewed tourists very positively if they opted for local foods and used public  
17  
18 transportation while having a negative assessment when tourists recklessly used natural  
19  
20 resources or violated on-site hygiene regulations (Gong et al., 2019). Thus, residents'  
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22 perception of tourists is largely dependent on tourists' behavior at the destination as well as  
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24 residents' perceived economic, social and environmental benefits from tourism (Erul &  
25  
26 Woosnam, 2021; Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020).

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33 The prominent theories of emotional solidarity and social exchange are deemed relevant to  
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35 deliberate on the underlying relationship between tourists' regenerative behavior and  
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37 residents' perceived tourist attractiveness. According to the theory of emotional solidarity, if  
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39 tourists are engaged in regenerative behavior with no stake in the outcome (i.e., enhancing the  
40  
41 environment, local quality of life, etc.), residents will potentially develop emotional solidarity  
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43 with the tourists, which can in return positively contribute to residents' tourist perceptions  
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45 (Woosnam, 2011b, 2012). Also, regenerative travel substantially augments the residents'  
46  
47 perceived benefits because it aims to generate and maximize positive impacts rather than  
48  
49 narrowly minimizing the negative consequences of tourism (Town & Owen, 2005). Based on  
50  
51 the theoretical lens of SET, regenerative travel behavior can showcase holistic and positive  
52  
53 developments in social, economic, and cultural environments at host destinations that can  
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55 ultimately enhance residents' perception towards tourism as well as the tourist (Erul &  
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2 Woosnam, 2021). Martin et al. (2018) analyzed perceptions of residents in Cantabria (i.e., a  
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4 region in northern Spain), and highlighted varying impacts of tourism-related benefits on the  
5  
6 residents' attitude toward tourists. These were operationalized by the extent to which residents  
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8 view their interaction with tourists as pleasant, enjoyable, positive and funny. The findings  
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10 highlighted significant relationships between the residents' attitudes toward tourists and their  
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12 perceived economic and socio-cultural benefits, whereas the negative environmental  
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14 consequences associated with tourism were found to weaken residents' tourist image  
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16 perceptions. Based on these stated theoretical explanations, the second hypothesis is framed  
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18 as:  
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24 H<sub>2</sub>: Regenerative travel positively affects foreign tourist attractiveness.  
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## 28 **2.7. Foreign Tourist Attractiveness and Residents' Support for Tourism Development**

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30 By utilizing social exchange theory, the dominant literature has depicted residents' supportive  
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32 behaviors towards tourism development as largely dependent on their positive and/or negative  
33  
34 perceptions about tourism (Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020; Tosun et al., 2020). In this respect,  
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36 while negative consequences of tourism such as increases in rents or erosion of local culture  
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38 can disrupt residents' supportive behaviors towards tourism development (Erul & Woosnam,  
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40 2021; Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020), improvements in locals' quality of life bolster positive  
41  
42 attitudes toward tourism (Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Tournois & Djeric, 2018). Despite the vast  
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44 amount of studies empirically validating the impact of residents' tourism perceptions, the  
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46 literature largely lacks research that definitively addresses the vital role of residents'  
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48 perceptions on an individual tourist level within the context of support for tourism  
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51 development (Kim et al., 2020; Sharpley, 2014; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). However, in a most  
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53 recent study conducted on the residents of Cappadocia in Turkey (i.e., designated World  
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55 Heritage UNESCO site), Zaman and Aktan (2021) found positive and mediating effects of  
56  
57 foreign tourist attractiveness on the residents' supportive behaviors towards tourism  
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1  
2 development. Zaman and Aktan (2021) empirically established that when the residents  
3  
4 perceive foreign tourists as friendly and/or attractive, as well as hosting them is a pleasant  
5  
6 experience, it consequently translated into residents' supportive behaviors towards tourism  
7  
8 development. Moreover, their findings also highlighted the influential role of residents' place  
9  
10 image that can undermine the significant relationship between residents' perceived foreign  
11  
12 tourist attractiveness (Zaman & Aktan, 2021) and expressed intentions to support tourism  
13  
14 development (Erul & Woosnam, 2021). Thus, residents' strong positive perceptions of their  
15  
16 place image (e.g., in Cappadocia) diminished the positive effects of foreign tourist  
17  
18 attractiveness on residents' supportive behavior toward tourism development. Based on these  
19  
20 theoretical justifications and directions taken from prominent studies, the third hypothesis is  
21  
22 framed as:  
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29 H<sub>3</sub>: Foreign tourist attractiveness positively affects residents' support for tourism  
30  
31 development.

## 32 33 34 **2.8. Moderating effects of Travel Shaming**

35  
36 Parallel with the growing health concerns associated with the emerging variants of COVID-19  
37  
38 (e.g., omicron and delta), traveling (once seen as a symbol of social status) has spurred large  
39  
40 criticism, and those who travel during the pandemic are condemned for supposedly being  
41  
42 irresponsible and ignorant (Compton, 2020; Grant, 2021; Jackson, 2021). Therefore, people  
43  
44 who were thought not to fully comply with the new norms and traveling restrictions were  
45  
46 demonized and drew negative emotional reactions such as anger. Emotions have always lied  
47  
48 at the core of consumer behavior studies (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005),  
49  
50  
51 whereas it is surprisingly little to no information about the role of emotions in the context of  
52  
53 residents' tourism perceptions and expressed support for tourism development (Erul &  
54  
55 Woosnam, 2021; Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020; Qin et al., 2021). Recent tourism literature has  
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1  
2 extended the traditional cost-benefit framework of SET by involving the role of emotions in  
3  
4 predicting residents' tourism perceptions (Zheng et al., 2020, 2021).  
5  
6  
7

8  
9 Travel and tourism behavior has been stigmatized during the pandemic, and not tolerated by a  
10  
11 considerable portion of the local communities (Qin et al., 2021; Zaman et al., 2021). In a  
12  
13 recent study conducted on the residents of Qingyan (China), Qin et al. (2021) illustrated that  
14  
15 resident's tolerance towards tourism significantly moderates the relationship between  
16  
17 residents' personal benefits from tourism and perceived tourism impact. This implies that in  
18  
19 case the residents are not tolerant and have negative sentiments towards tourism, they tend to  
20  
21 negatively evaluate tourists and tourism impact on the destination, although tourism makes  
22  
23 them better off. In a similar vein, it is expected that although regenerative travel enhances  
24  
25 residents' perceived benefits, travel shaming might decrease their tolerance, which  
26  
27 consequently deteriorates their perception of tourism as well as tourists (Qin et al., 2021;  
28  
29 Zaman et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2021).  
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36  
37 Zheng et al. (2019) analyzed residents in Yangshuo (a city in southern China) and found that  
38  
39 their emotions (such as worry and anger) negatively mediated the relationship between  
40  
41 perceived desirability of tourism outcomes and residents' perception towards tourism. In other  
42  
43 words, even if tourism is considered beneficial, residents' negative emotions towards tourism  
44  
45 could thwart tourists' perception and intention to support tourism development (Zheng et al.,  
46  
47 2019, 2020, 2021). This is not surprising as tourism could provoke diverse emotions from  
48  
49 sadness to gratefulness, based on the degree to which tourism impacts are perceived as  
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51  
52 pleasant and relevant to personal goals (Zheng et al., 2021). Based on the social disruption  
53  
54 theory, it can be speculated that residents' negative emotions (towards those who travel  
55  
56 during the pandemic) can negatively influence their perceptions of tourists (Compton, 2020;  
57  
58 Skinner, 2021; Zaman et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019). Generally, traveling during the  
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1  
2 pandemic (especially unvaccinated travelers) is not acceptable and deemed shameful by some  
3  
4 local residents (Zaman et al., 2021). Hence, travel shaming can alter and/or diminish the  
5  
6 positive impact of regenerative travel (as perceived by residents) on foreign tourist  
7  
8 attractiveness (Grant, 2021; Martin et al., 2018; Zaman et al., 2021). Based on these  
9  
10 justifications, the fourth hypothesis is stated below:  
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16 H<sub>4</sub>: Travel shaming moderates the effects of regenerative travel on foreign tourist  
17  
18 attractiveness.  
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## 20 21 **2.9. Mediating effects of Foreign Tourist Attractiveness**

22  
23 Based on the theory of emotional solidarity, it can be speculated that tourists engagement in  
24  
25 regenerative behavior (i.e., enhancing the environment, local quality of life, etc.) while on  
26  
27 vacation can lead residents to develop emotional solidarity with the tourists (Woosnam,  
28  
29 2011a, 2011b, 2012). As a consequence, residents can potentially perceive foreign tourists as  
30  
31 more positive and pleasant to spend time together with (Gong et al., 2019; Martin et al.,  
32  
33 2018). Furthermore, the fact that tourists are perceived as attractive can also enhance  
34  
35 residents' supportive behavior towards tourism development. Most recently, Zaman and  
36  
37 Aktan (2021) highlighted that when foreign tourists are perceived as friendly and pleasant to  
38  
39 have them around, residents have a heightened level of motivation to support tourism  
40  
41 development. Seminal research by Kim et al. (2020) depicted that whenever locals considered  
42  
43 tourists being respectful and responsible to local life, the residents mirrored positive emotions  
44  
45 towards tourists. In particular, the influential role of tourism stakeholders (as explained by the  
46  
47 stakeholder theory), the residents develop favorable impressions of tourists if they are  
48  
49 engaged in value co-creation (e.g., sustain and protect local life, environment and culture)  
50  
51 during the social exchange process (Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Since RT inherently adopts green  
52  
53 and socially responsible practices, regenerative tourist behaviors are more likely to be  
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1  
2 perceived as responsible, which could increase the resident's perception of foreign tourist  
3 attractiveness (Kim et al. 2020; Ateljevic, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020). Consequently,  
4  
5 residents' support for tourism development will also be triggered owing to positive  
6  
7 perceptions about foreign tourists (Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
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12 Since foreign tourist attractiveness is significantly related to both regenerative travel and  
13  
14 residents' support for tourism development (Ateljevic, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020; Zaman &  
15  
16 Aktan, 2021), one can assume (based on emotional solidarity and SET theory) that foreign  
17  
18 tourist attractiveness mediates the effects of regenerative travel on residents' support for  
19  
20 tourism development. Prior marketing literature has also validated the mediating role of  
21  
22 attractiveness, where perceived attractiveness mediated the relationship between behavioral  
23  
24 outcomes (i.e., brand loyalty and resilience to negative information) and consumers'  
25  
26 perceived functional and social benefits (Elbedweihy et al., 2016; So et al., 2017). Since  
27  
28 regenerative travel also generates inherent social and economic benefits, it is hypothesized  
29  
30 that the influence of regenerative travel on the residents' support for tourism development is  
31  
32 mediated by perceived foreign tourist attractiveness. Based on these critical arguments, the  
33  
34 fifth hypothesis is framed as:  
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40 H<sub>5</sub>: Foreign tourist attractiveness mediates the effects of regenerative travel on residents'  
41  
42 support for tourism development.  
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46 Based on the examination of the fragmented literature and potential research gap (e.g., limited  
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48 scholarly focus, lack of empirical evidence and non-existent measurement for regenerative  
49  
50 travel), the conceptualized model of RSTD in Kauai (Hawaii) involving RT, FTA and TS has  
51  
52 been developed and graphically presented as Figure 1.  
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58 \*\*\* Insert Figure 1 about here \*\*\*  
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### 3. Methods

#### 3.1. *Sampling and Procedure*

The present study's target population consisted Kauai residents who were at least 18-years of age and/or older; also, they were residing in Kauai for a minimum period of one complete year. A growing majority of tourism scholars have employed non-probabilistic sampling in recent studies (Darvishmotevali & Altinay, 2022; Rather, Hollebeek & Rasoolimanesh, 2021; Tse & Tung, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Considering the unprecedented challenges of profiling and contacting Kauai residents during the ongoing global pandemic of COVID-19 (Zaman et al., 2021), a non-probabilistic sampling procedure (as opposed to predetermined probability) was considered appropriate, as it specifically aligned with the present study's research objectives, including resident's availability, motivation to participate, subjective judgment, and other desirable non-statistical criteria (e.g., high representation, speed, cost-effectiveness, accessibility, and early response time) (Nugroho & Numata, 2020; Tse & Tung, 2021; Uprichard, 2013; Zaman et al., 2021). The sampling frame was selected based on the purposive sampling that facilitated the participation of Kauai residents who may be most affected by the specific issues investigated through the current research (Etikan et al., 2016; Nugroho & Numata, 2020). In addition, the purposive sampling technique was considered more useful for testing the theoretical framework and identifying the phenomena in a broader population context (Etikan et al., 2016). Due to the COVID-19 pandemic induced restrictions and public health emergency in the United States, the study data from Kauai residents were collected during March and April 2021 using an online survey (via Google form) by means of direct communications through emails and social media platforms (LinkedIn and Facebook) (Zaman et al., 2021).

In particular, the administrators of the Facebook (FB) groups of Kauai Community (9.7k members) and Kauai Life (42.9k members) allowed sharing of the survey invitation on their

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respective FB group, which significantly increased the number of our surveyed participants. The survey also clearly mentioned its invitation to the Kauai residents, to ensure the non-participation of those FB members who were tourists, rather Kauai residents. Moreover, the survey description, questions, and the required demographic information also discouraged the participation of non-Kauai residents. The contact addresses of the principal researcher(s) were also made available to the respondents, who were motivated to contact the researcher(s) if they had any questions and/or confusion regarding the survey. Importantly, various procedural remedies during the data collection procedure (including shorter scales, language simplicity, confidentiality of responses, respondents' anonymity, no right or wrong answers, and respondent's lacking awareness of the conceptual model) provided adequate assurances for overcoming any possible issue of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Lastly, the present study calculated the adequate sample size required for SEM based on the recommended yardstick, including Cochran's equation (382 respondents), also Krejcie and Morgan's formula (382 respondents), respectively (Nugroho & Numata, 2020; Slabbert et al., 2020). None of the survey forms were discarded as all survey questions were labelled as mandatory, and the participants had to answer all questions in order to complete the survey. The participants also had the opportunity to quit the survey at any time, hence, it was ensured that the survey responses of only the interested participants (N=463) who had accessed the survey link and finished the online survey within the stipulated timeframe (5 to 10 minutes) were carefully recorded (Zaman et al., 2021). Eventually, verified survey responses of 463 islanders in Kauai were considered best suited (Nugroho & Numata, 2020; Slabbert et al., 2020) to empirically examine the hypothesized relationships between RT, FTA, TS, and RSTD, respectively.

### 3.2. *Measures*

The present study examined the fragmented literature on the latent constructs that facilitated the adaptation of measurement scales for foreign tourist attractiveness (comprising six-items) and residents' support for tourism development (comprising four-items) (Kim et al., 2020; Styliadis et al., 2014, 2016; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Travel shaming (comprising nine-items) was designed based on theoretical insights from recent research (Cresswell, 2020; Skinner, 2021). In contrast, the measure for regenerative travel (comprising seven-items) was developed based on guidance from seminal research (Ateljevic, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021). Expert-level assessments on the presentation of scales by eleven judges, including six members of the tourism faculty (to judge content validity), and five practitioners in the tourism industry (to judge face validity) (Adam et al., 2020). Necessary restructuring to ensure scale alignment was carefully performed based on the examiner's detailed feedback. These procedures facilitated adequate assurances for the psychometric properties of the developed and adapted scales (Adam et al., 2020; Bashir et al., 2021), also to proceed with the next step of the assessments, i.e., data normality estimations, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), multicollinearity and discriminant validity verifications, and finally covariance based structural equation modeling (SEM) for the hypotheses testing (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Khwaja & Zaman, 2020). Lastly, all latent constructs were measured through a five-point Likert scale (i.e., ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree).

### 3.3. *Data Analysis*

Structural equation modeling (SEM) based applications have expanded substantially in recent years (Khwaja & Zaman, 2020; Wang & Wang, 2019). The present study used MPlus, a fully integrated 'state-of-the-art' latent variable modeling program (*version 7*) to run the factor analysis (both exploratory and confirmatory), also the step-wise assessments of the

1  
2 measurement model and structural model, respectively (Narayanan, 2012; Wang & Wang,  
3  
4 2019). In contrast to some of the most popular statistical programs (e.g., AMOS, SmartPLS,  
5  
6 and LISREL, etc.), Mplus provides more robust estimations (e.g., integrated modeling  
7  
8 framework to handle latent, categorical, continuous, observed, and auxiliary variables) for  
9  
10 covariance-based structural equation modeling (as known as CB-SEM), especially for testing  
11  
12 hypotheses in complex models (e.g., moderated-mediation, mediated-moderation and multi-  
13  
14 level models) (Javadizadeh, 2020; Narayanan, 2012; Wang & Wang, 2019; Zaman et al.,  
15  
16 2021). Narayanan (2012) compared eight popular softwares for CB-SEM using multi-criteria  
17  
18 (including documentation to parameter estimation). Mplus was identified as a superior  
19  
20 software due to its unique and unified modeling features (e.g., conventional SEM, multilevel,  
21  
22 growth curve, latent class analysis with and/or without covariates, growth and finite mixture).  
23  
24 In addition, Narayanan (2012) reported that Mplus is the only software for SEM that handles  
25  
26 multiple imputation estimates in three-phases (i.e., imputation, analysis, and pooling). The  
27  
28 initial stage data analysis for the present study included descriptive statistics on the socio-  
29  
30 demographic profiles of the Kauai residents (as shown in Table 1) who had volunteered to  
31  
32 fully complete the survey.  
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40 \*\*\* Insert Table 1 about here \*\*\*  
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#### 43 **4. Results**

44  
45 Four hundred and sixty-three (463) islanders in Kauai (Hawaii) participated in the present  
46  
47 study. Before testing the hypothetical associations among the latent constructs, the SEM pre-  
48  
49 requisites (i.e., data normality estimations) were carefully conducted (Ullman & Bentler,  
50  
51 2003). Table 2 depicted the descriptive statistical outcomes indicating multivariate data  
52  
53 normality. Hence, the data normality estimations representing values of standard deviation (by  
54  
55 maximum threshold value<1), skewness (by threshold range between +2 and -2), and kurtosis  
56  
57 (by threshold range between +3 and -3) established that there were no data normality issues  
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1  
2 and/or concern, as all values remained within their permissible range (Hair et al., 2016; Ullman  
3 & Bentler, 2003). Harman's single factor (HSF) test has been extensively applied by leading  
4 tourism scholars to report the non-existence of common method bias (CMB) in recent studies  
5 (Aleshinloye et al., 2021; Zheng, Luo & Ritchie, 2021). In the present study, the HSF  
6 extraction with principal component analysis (PCA) confirmed a maximum extracted variance  
7 of 29.16% (as explained by a single factor) that was far below the cut-off value of 50%,  
8 hence, validating the absence of CMB (Zheng, Luo & Ritchie, 2021). Before proceeding to  
9 factorial estimates, the overall sample (n=463) was split into two sub-datasets, i.e., test sample  
10 (n=232) and validation sample (n=231). Subsequently, EFA was conducted on the test  
11 sample, while CFA was conducted on the validation sample. This recommended procedure  
12 assured avoidance of biased model estimates and 'double-dipping' on the same individuals'  
13 data. In addition, the CFA estimates did not include a priori modeling for hypothesis testing,  
14 by avoiding the exact same dataset being utilized twice, conceptually and statistically (Hair et  
15 al., 2016; Ullman & Bentler, 2003). Lastly, no missing values were detected in the final  
16 dataset (N=463), based on univariate (item-wise) and multivariate (boxplot) analysis (Hair et  
17 al., 2016; Khwaja & Zaman, 2020; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).

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40 \*\*\* Insert Table 2 about here \*\*\*

#### 41 42 43 **4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)**

44  
45  
46 The widely known Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's test (also known as KMO test; representing  
47 minimum threshold value > 0.6) and Bartlett's sphericity test (representing maximum threshold  
48 value < 0.05) provided the pre-requisite measure (i.e., data suitability) for the factor analysis  
49 estimations of RT, FTA, TS, and RSTD respectively (Pett et al., 2003). As represented in  
50 Table 3, the results established that the KMO and Bartlett's test values remained within the  
51 acceptable criteria for all latent constructs. Taking into account two newly developed scales  
52 (i.e., regenerative travel and travel shaming), it was deemed mandatory to conduct exploratory  
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1  
2 factor analysis (EFA). In this step, the maximum likelihood estimation based on EFA  
3  
4 examined the shared variance among the studied constructs. The EFA outcomes reflected the  
5  
6 non-existence of commonalities and/or cross-loadings, thereby confirming that each item  
7  
8 loaded properly on their respective factors (Bashir et al., 2021; Pett et al., 2003).  
9

10  
11  
12 \*\*\* Insert Table 3 about here \*\*\*  
13

#### 14 15 16 **4.1 Measurement Model**

17  
18 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been widely applauded as the prestige of covariance-  
19  
20 based structural equation modeling (SEM). As graphically illustrated in Figure 2 and  
21  
22 represented in Table 4, the CFA outcomes (denoted by  $\lambda$ ) revealed item loadings much higher  
23  
24 than the minimum threshold (i.e., loadings > 0.30) (Khwaja & Zaman, 2020; Lowry & Gaskin,  
25  
26 2014). Likewise, the corresponding values for exploratory factor analysis (denoted by  $\rho$ ) were  
27  
28 also found to be way above the cut-off point (i.e.,  $\rho > 0.4$ ) (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Various  
29  
30 estimations representing the goodness of fit indices for CFA, including absolute fit indices ( $\chi^2$   
31  
32 = 610.118,  $df = 289$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.111$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ,  $GFI = 0.907$ ,  $AGFI = 0.887$ ,  $RMSEA = 0.049$ ,  
33  
34  $SRMR = 0.044$ ) and incremental fit indices ( $CFI = 0.954$ ,  $NFI = 0.916$ , and  $TLI = 0.948$ ),  
35  
36 adequately met their acceptable range (Bashir et al., 2021; Khwaja & Zaman, 2020). The  
37  
38 construct validity, as well as the scale reliabilities, were also significantly established based  
39  
40 on CFA estimates falling within the acceptable range (i.e.,  $\lambda > 0.30$ ), also Cronbach's alpha  
41  
42 values greater than 0.70 across all scales (Hair et al., 2016; Khwaja & Zaman, 2020; Lowry &  
43  
44 Gaskin, 2014). Alongside EFA and CFA, the measurement model assessments revealed  
45  
46 average variance extracted (AVE) values of RT, FTA, RSTD and TS as 0.507, 0.582, 0.570  
47  
48 and 0.505 respectively, which were higher than the recommended range (AVE > 0.50).  
49  
50 Moreover, the composite reliability (C.R) values of RT (0.875), FTA (0.832), RSTD (0.873)  
51  
52 and TS (0.894) were also higher than the recommended threshold (CR > 0.70). Hence, the  
53  
54 convergent validity of all scales (RT, FTA, TS and RSTD) (shown in Table 4) was  
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1 statistically established. Furthermore, table 5 provides the statistical confirmation for the  
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3  
4 discriminant validity (and absence of multicollinearity issue) across the developed and  
5  
6  
7 adapted scales (Khwaja & Zaman, 2020; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014), as the AVE square root  
8  
9  
10 values (presented diagonally in bold) were higher than the inter-correlations among the  
11  
12  
13 studied constructs (Khwaja & Zaman, 2020). Lastly, discriminant validity was also well  
14  
15  
16 established through variance inflation factor (VIF) values of FTA (1.305), TS (1.068) and RT  
17  
18  
19 (1.266) that were estimated within the permissible range ( $VIF < 3$ ) (Khwaja & Zaman, 2020;  
20  
21  
22 Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).

22 \*\*\* Insert Figure 2 about here \*\*\*

23 \*\*\* Insert Table 4 about here \*\*\*

24 \*\*\* Insert Table 5 about here \*\*\*

## 31 **4.2 Structural model**

32  
33 Before proceeding to hypotheses testing (with CB-SEM), the estimations representing the  
34  
35  
36 goodness of fit indices for SEM, including absolute fit indices ( $\chi^2 = 631.900$ ,  $df = 291$ ,  $\chi^2/df$   
37  
38  
39 = 2.171,  $p = 0.000$ ,  $GFI = 0.904$ ,  $AGFI = 0.884$ ,  $RMSEA = 0.050$ ,  $SRMR = 0.056$ ) and  
40  
41  
42 incremental fit indices ( $CFI = 0.951$ ,  $NFI = 0.913$ , and  $TLI = 0.945$ ) were well-established as  
43  
44  
45 all estimates were within their acceptable range (Khwaja & Zaman, 2020; Lowry & Gaskin,  
46  
47  
48 2014). As graphically presented in figure 3, the present study examined the structural path  
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50  
51 relationships amongst the latent constructs (i.e., RT, FTA, TS, and RSTD) by using  
52  
53  
54 bootstrapping technique with 1,000 resampling iterations (Hair et al., 2016; Ullman &  
55  
56  
57 Bentler, 2003). The structural path coefficients, as well as their corresponding level of  
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59  
60 significance (determined by p-values and t-statistics), revealed that RT has a positive  
( $\beta=0.177$ ) and significant effect ( $t\text{-value}=3.528$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.05$ ) on RSTD, hence hypothesis  
one was statistically supported (Hair et al., 2016; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). This implies that



1  
2 the residents' supportive behavior toward tourism development can be significantly enhanced  
3  
4 in response to the foreign tourist's regenerative travel behavior. Similarly, the results provided  
5  
6 statistical support for accepting the second hypothesis, as RT also showed a positive  
7  
8 ( $\beta=0.644$ ) and significant effect ( $t\text{-value}=5.548$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.05$ ) on FTA (Zaman & Aktan,  
9  
10 2021). This finding suggests that residents would feel higher levels of FTA, if and when the  
11  
12 foreign tourists are more engaged in regenerative travel activities. As a consequence of  
13  
14 resident's higher level of FTA, it may subsequently translate into resident's greater support  
15  
16 for tourism development. The study results also establish this link through the acceptance of  
17  
18 the third hypothesis that statistically confirmed a positive ( $\beta=0.443$ ) and significant effect ( $t\text{-}$   
19  
20  $\text{value}=7.497$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.05$ ) of FTA on RSTD. In addition, the fourth hypothesis, which stated  
21  
22 that TS significantly moderates RT and FTA, was also statistically supported. The results  
23  
24 revealed that TS negatively ( $\beta=-0.112$ ) and significantly ( $t\text{-value}=-2.555$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.05$ )  
25  
26 moderates RT and FTA. This implies that the effects of RT on FTA may weaken in the  
27  
28 presence of TS, especially when the foreign tourists are greatly exposed to TS incidents by the  
29  
30 residents (Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). The SEM based hypotheses testing results  
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32 have been tabulated, and presented in Table 6.  
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41 \*\*\* Insert Figure 3 about here \*\*\*  
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46 Moreover, the results also provided statistical support for accepting the fifth hypothesis as  
47  
48 FTA significantly mediated ( $\beta=0.265$ ;  $t\text{-value}=4.344$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.05$ ) RT and RSTD (Zaman &  
49  
50 Aktan, 2021). This implies that RT has a direct as well as an indirect effect (through FTA) on  
51  
52 RSTD. The direct effects of RT on RSTD remained statistically significant, while its indirect  
53  
54 effect (through FTA) was also found to be significant. Hence, the results established that FTA  
55  
56 'significantly and partially' mediated RT and RSTD (Hair et al., 2016). SEM-based overall  
57  
58 study results on the five hypotheses have been tabulated and presented in Table 6. Lastly, as  
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1  
2 shown in figure 3, the calculated coefficient of determination (represented by  $R^2$ ) values for  
3  
4 FTA ( $R^2=0.24$ ) and RSTD ( $R^2=0.24$ ) confirmed adequate explanations for the variance and  
5  
6 predictive power of the study model (Hair et al., 2016; Khwaja & Zaman, 2020). This implies  
7  
8 that both RT and TS collectively explained 24% of the variance in FTA. Likewise, RT and  
9  
10 FTA collectively explained 20% of the variance in RSTD (Hair et al., 2016; Zaman & Aktan,  
11  
12 2021). Eminent scholars have presented a mixed interpretation of the recommended range for  
13  
14 the coefficient of determination, e.g.,  $R^2 \geq 0.10$  is deemed adequate (Breiman & Friedman,  
15  
16 1985; Falk & Miller, 1992),  $R^2 \geq 0.26$  is substantial (Cohen, 1992; 2013),  $R^2$  between 0.13  
17  
18 and 0.25 is moderate (Cohen, 1992; 2013),  $R^2=0.33$  is moderate (Chin, 1998) and  $R^2=0.25$  is  
19  
20 weak (Hair et al., 2016). Importantly, a bare minimum 10% coefficient of determination ( $R^2 \geq$   
21  
22 0.10) has been recommended as adequate for social sciences research setting, as human  
23  
24 behavior cannot be predicted accurately (Breiman & Friedman, 1985; Cohen, 1992; 2013;  
25  
26 Falk & Miller, 1992; Li et al., 2021; Yu, Sirgy & Bosnjak, 2021). Leading tourism scholars  
27  
28 have also recently reported a coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) in the range of 12.6% to 16.7%  
29  
30 (Zheng, Luo & Ritchie, 2021), 16.14% to 24.74% (Li et al., 2021), 16% to 23% (Erul &  
31  
32 Woosnam, 2022) and 11.9% to 12.5% (Chark, King & Tang, 2022) to establish the legitimacy  
33  
34 of their empirical findings, also supported by various “goodness of fit” indices for CFA and  
35  
36 SEM (Li et al., 2021; Zheng, Luo & Ritchie, 2021).  
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46 \*\*\* Insert Table 6 about here \*\*\*

## 47 48 5. Discussion

49  
50 The present study focused on the resident-centered tourism literature (Erul & Woosnam,  
51  
52 2021; Hateftabar & Chapuis, 2020; Zaman & Aktan, 2021) and explored the emerging  
53  
54 challenges of foreign tourist attractiveness, travel shaming, and the widely-debated  
55  
56 attributions of regenerative travel in building residents’ support for tourism development  
57  
58 (Ateljevic, 2020; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Recognizing the extensive scholarly  
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1  
2 focus on sustainable tourism (i.e., minimizing tourism-related damages) and substantial  
3  
4 ignorance of regenerative travel (i.e., maximizing tourism-led improvements) (Ateljevic,  
5  
6 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021), the current study made the first empirical attempt to examine  
7  
8 regenerative travel and its effects on foreign tourist attractiveness, and residents' support for  
9  
10 tourism development in Kauai island (Hawaii). The present study also integrated the  
11  
12 moderating role of travel shaming and mediating influence of foreign tourist attractiveness in  
13  
14 explaining the significant effects of regenerative travel in a holistic moderated-mediation  
15  
16 model of residents' support for tourism development (Duxbury et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2021;  
17  
18 Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Taking advantage of the recently developed foreign  
19  
20 tourist attractiveness scale (Zaman & Aktan, 2021), the present study also developed and  
21  
22 validated two new scales (i.e., regenerative travel and travel shaming) to examine the  
23  
24 significant variance explained by these potential factors for the residents' support for tourism  
25  
26 development (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Qin et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021).

27  
28 The study findings provide meaningful, interesting, and initial evidence on the significant  
29  
30 relationships among regenerative travel, residents' support for tourism development, travel  
31  
32 shaming, and foreign tourist attractiveness, which was never studied and/or verified in prior  
33  
34 literature (Duxbury et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). The present study's  
35  
36 pioneering finding establishes that regenerative travel can significantly and positively  
37  
38 influence residents' support for tourism development, both directly and indirectly (i.e.,  
39  
40 through the mediation of foreign tourist attractiveness). Although these significant  
41  
42 relationships were rarely studied in prior literature (Duxbury et al., 2021), the present study  
43  
44 findings are consistent with the scholarly arguments presented in the mainstream literature on  
45  
46 regenerative travel (Ateljevic, 2020), foreign tourist attractiveness (Zaman & Aktan, 2021),  
47  
48 and residents' support for tourism development (Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Hateftabar &  
49  
50 Chapuis, 2020). In addition, the current study's finding on foreign tourist attractiveness that  
51  
52 significantly mediates regenerative travel and residents' support for tourism development is  
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1  
2 consistent with recent studies (Zaman & Aktan, 2021) that examined the residents' support  
3  
4 for tourism development model involving foreign tourist attractiveness in a mediating role.  
5  
6 Hence, the study findings suggest that residents' support for tourism development is  
7  
8 significantly dependent on regenerative travel; however, the substantially positive and  
9  
10 mediating influence of foreign tourist attractiveness cannot be undermined (Ateljevic, 2020;  
11  
12 Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
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16  
17 Despite the significantly positive effects of regenerative travel on foreign tourist attractiveness  
18  
19 and residents' support for tourism development, also a significant mediation established by  
20  
21 foreign tourist attractiveness (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Zaman &  
22  
23 Aktan, 2021), the study findings also highlight the influential role of travel shaming that  
24  
25 should not be left unnoticed (Skinner, 2021). The study findings provide significant evidence  
26  
27 on travel shaming that negatively moderates regenerative travel and foreign tourist  
28  
29 attractiveness. This implies that too much travel shaming may weaken or delink regenerative  
30  
31 travel and foreign tourist attractiveness, which can ultimately trigger residents to reduce their  
32  
33 support for tourism development (Ateljevic, 2020; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
34  
35 Hence, the present study advances on the current knowledge by extending new evidence to  
36  
37 the dominant tourism literature and highlights travel shaming as a major threat that can  
38  
39 diminish residents' support for tourism development (Qin et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021),  
40  
41 especially in Kauai (Hawaii) where regenerative travel has been contemplated as a strategic  
42  
43 direction for Kauai's tourism (Laird, 2021).  
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### 49 ***5.1. Theoretical and Practical Implications***

50  
51  
52 Despite the growing literature on various underlying factors for residents' support for tourism  
53  
54 development, there is still a lack of empirical evidence on the widely-debated attributions of  
55  
56 regenerative travel, especially under constraints of emerging tourism challenges (i.e., travel  
57  
58 shaming and foreign tourist attractiveness) (Duxbury et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021; Zaman &  
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1  
2 Aktan, 2021). As asserted by numerous tourism scholars and experts, regenerative travel may  
3  
4 be the divine cure for global tourism destinations, also keeping into account the high-stake  
5  
6 involvement of host residents in supporting tourism developments (Ateljevic, 2020). The  
7  
8 present study provides the first empirical evidence on the significant effects of regenerative  
9  
10 travel on the residents' support for tourism development, allowing future studies to quantify,  
11  
12 extend or replicate this finding in a multi-destination context (Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Zaman  
13  
14 & Aktan, 2021). The present study findings provide interesting insights and extensions to the  
15  
16 underlying theories, e.g., social exchange theory (i.e., foreign tourist attractiveness emerging  
17  
18 from resident-tourist interaction and social exchange), stakeholder theory (i.e., resident's  
19  
20 evaluation of regenerative travel behavior), emotional solidarity theory (i.e., resident's  
21  
22 positive assessment of foreign tourist attractiveness based on regenerative travel behavior)  
23  
24 and social disruption theory (i.e., new knowledge on travel shaming based travelers ignorance  
25  
26 of local culture, health and safety protocols) (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Skinner, 2021; Zaman &  
27  
28 Aktan, 2021; Zaman et al., 2021).  
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35 The current study also accumulates tourism literature on regenerative travel and residents'  
36  
37 supportive behavior towards tourism development by highlighting the significant influence of  
38  
39 foreign tourist attractiveness (through its mediating effect) and travel shaming (through its  
40  
41 moderating effect) (Erul & Woosnam, 2021). Hence, the crucial role of foreign tourist  
42  
43 attractiveness and travel shaming may redefine the effects of regenerative travel and residents'  
44  
45 support for tourism development at various destinations (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Skinner,  
46  
47 2021; Styliadis, Sit & Biran, 2016; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Notably, the moderating influence  
48  
49 of travel shaming may decay the effect of regenerative travel on residents' support for tourism  
50  
51 development, as foreign tourist attractiveness continues to fade away (Woosnam & Norman,  
52  
53 2010; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Although residents' supportive behaviors towards tourism  
54  
55 development is a long-standing issue gaining utmost importance with recent studies, the  
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1  
2 present study significantly contributes to the scholarly dialogue by highlighting the role of  
3  
4 regenerative travel and the occurrence of travel shaming that may undermine foreign tourist  
5  
6 attractiveness (Sheller, 2020; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). While limited efforts  
7  
8 have been made to empirically examine foreign tourist attractiveness and its effects on  
9  
10 residents' support for tourism development (Zaman & Aktan, 2021), the information on the  
11  
12 influential role of regenerative travel and travel shaming remains largely ignored (Duxbury et  
13  
14 al., 2021; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Hence, the present study clarifies the  
15  
16 discrepant evidence on foreign tourist attractiveness by uncovering theoretical explanations  
17  
18 on regenerative travel and travel shaming that may make foreign tourists more or less  
19  
20 attractive (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Koren & Petó, 2020; Zaman & Aktan, 2021).  
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25  
26 Keeping guard of the residents' support for tourism development is highly critical for  
27  
28 practitioners today while they develop and implement policies to manage tourism destinations  
29  
30 (Qin et al., 2021). Contrary to the closed-doors policy during the heartbreaking COVID-19  
31  
32 tourism, the post-pandemic global tourism needs to welcome destination-healing mechanisms  
33  
34 (i.e., regenerative travel) inclusive of major stakeholders' involvement (i.e., foreign tourists  
35  
36 and residents) to gradually restore and develop destinations (Ateljevic, 2020; Brouder et al.,  
37  
38 2020). From the tourism planning and marketing standpoint, destinations can greatly benefit  
39  
40 by implementing and promoting regenerative tourism policies that can evoke foreign tourist  
41  
42 attractiveness among residents, also generate their support for tourism development. Not to be  
43  
44 confused with sustainable tourism, regenerative travel can be the catalyst to explore the  
45  
46 hidden gems of destinations while leaving the place behind, better than before (Ateljevic,  
47  
48 2020). Furthermore, destination marketers need to focus on residents' travel shaming  
49  
50 intentions, as it can significantly undermine the quality of resident-tourist interaction  
51  
52 especially the foreign tourist attractiveness (Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021; Zheng,  
53  
54 Luo & Ritchie, 2021). One possible way to reduce travel shaming incidents can be creating  
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1  
2 greater awareness and subsequent enforcement of the travel requirements and guidelines that  
3 align with the interest of both residents and tourists (Aleshinloye et al., 2021; Zaman et al.,  
4 2021). When foreign tourists have no fear of being travel shamed, then they are more likely to  
5 create a positive impact on residents and local communities by supporting various means of  
6 development (i.e., environmental, cultural, economic, and social developments) at tourism  
7 destinations (Sheller, 2020; Skinner, 2021; Zaman et al., 2021). Lastly, regenerative travel  
8 cannot singlehandedly build on the residents' support for tourism development unless  
9 substantial behavioral interventions are introduced to discourage travel shaming and  
10 subsequently promote foreign tourist attractiveness (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Kim et al., 2020;  
11 Skinner, 2021). Hence, taking advantage of these novel findings, tourism destinations  
12 expecting a massive tourism rebound (e.g., Hawaii, Spain, Italy and Turkey) and an influx of  
13 fully vaccinated travelers, can leverage regenerative tourism policies to ensure greener,  
14 smarter and less crowded destinations (Cave & Dredge, 2020; Duxbury et al., 2021; Zaman et  
15 al., 2021). Consequently, regenerative travel can restore resident's trust and support, as  
16 tourism will no longer be considered as a curse (e.g., adverse impact on social, economic and  
17 cultural environment), instead, a blessing for flourishing destinations through regeneration  
18 (Duxbury et al., 2021).

## 41 **5.2. *Limitations and Future Research***

42  
43 Taking advantage of a potential research gap, the present study makes significant  
44 contributions by developing and validating a holistic (i.e., moderated-mediation) model of  
45 residents' support for tourism development, in addition to presenting two new scales (i.e.,  
46 regenerative travel and travel shaming) (Duxbury et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021;  
47 Zaman & Aktan, 2021). However, the present study also expresses some noteworthy  
48 limitations due to its specific scope and resource constraints. In view of the recent  
49 groundbreaking policies on regenerative tourism launched by the Kauai Tourism Authority,  
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1  
2 the present study considered Kauai residents as the most appropriate population and sampling  
3  
4 frame to analyze the conceptual model. Hence, the reflections on these latent constructs (i.e.,  
5  
6 RT, FTA, TS, and RSTD) by the Kauai residents, may generally differ from the non-Kauai  
7  
8 residents (Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Future studies may take advantage of multi-group  
9  
10 assessments by involving residents in a cross-county context (especially in Hawaii) and/or  
11  
12 cross-country perspective. Moreover, future studies may also analyze residents' support for  
13  
14 tourism development through the lens of social psychology theories (e.g., Elaboration  
15  
16 Likelihood Model, and Heuristic-Systematic Model), benefitting from a socio-demographic  
17  
18 focus (e.g., language, religion, ethnicity, occupation, and extent of urbanization), also taking  
19  
20 into account other underlying factors (e.g., community or place attachment, residents' quality  
21  
22 of life, personality, tolerance, and cultural values, etc.) (Duxbury et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2021;  
23  
24 Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Lastly, it would be interesting to explore the increasing awareness of  
25  
26 regenerative travel behavior across tourism stakeholders (i.e., tourists, residents, and tourism  
27  
28 planners) to better assess their implicit and explicit wisdom (e.g., balanced application of  
29  
30 cognitive, reflective, and affective characteristics) for selecting tourism destination brands  
31  
32 (Aktan, Zaman & Nawaz, 2021), as well as responsible consumption pattern of touristic  
33  
34 products and services (Ardelt, Ferrari, & Shi, 2020; Giesler & Veresiu, 2014; Zaman et al.,  
35  
36 2021).

### 37 **5.3. Conclusion**

38  
39 Regenerative travel is shaping critical conversations in global tourism to embrace new and  
40  
41 transformative solutions (e.g., net benefit model inclusive of all tourism stakeholders) to  
42  
43 address some of the intensifying threats to humankind (e.g., climate change, depleting  
44  
45 planetary resources, alarming scale of global warming and greenhouse gas emissions)  
46  
47 (Ateljevic, 2020; Cave & Dredge, 2020; Gretzel et al., 2020). While destinations aggressively  
48  
49 compete in attracting more foreign tourists as their major source of revenue, regenerative  
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1  
2 travel is being branded as the savior of global tourism in the post-pandemic world (Ateljevic,  
3  
4 2020; Kim et al., 2020; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). Experiencing a new wave of anti-tourist  
5  
6 sentiments (i.e., travel shaming) emerging globally across destinations, the residents' support  
7  
8 in tourism developments has become highly critical than ever before (Qin et al., 2021;  
9  
10 Skinner, 2021). Addressing the lack of empirical evidence, the present study explored the  
11  
12 effects of regenerative travel on the residents' support for tourism development under  
13  
14 moderating-mediating effects of travel shaming and foreign tourist attractiveness. Taking  
15  
16 advantage of the adapted scales (i.e., FTA and RSTD), the study also developed and  
17  
18 validated two new scales (i.e., RT and TS) to empirically confirm significant associations  
19  
20 among the latent constructs (i.e., direct effects of RT on RSTD, mediating effects of FTA, and  
21  
22 moderating effects of TS) (Ateljevic, 2020; Skinner, 2021; Zaman & Aktan, 2021). The study  
23  
24 findings offer initial evidence to guide academics, researchers, and tourism practitioners in  
25  
26 rendering their response to the emerging challenges, potential solutions, and underlying  
27  
28 relationships that significantly affect residents' support for tourism development in the post-  
29  
30 pandemic world (Fotiadis et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2021).  
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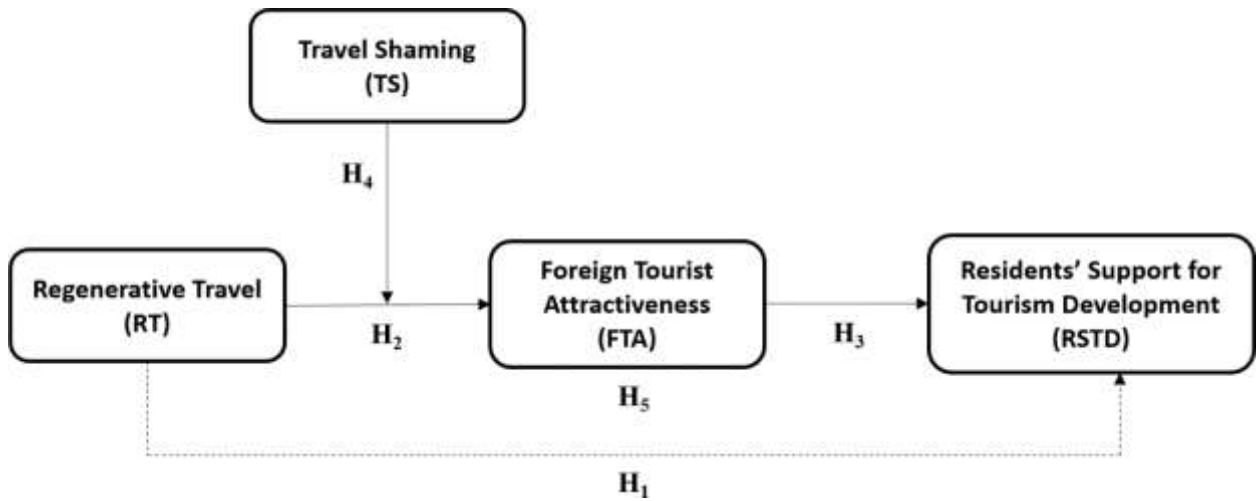


Figure 1 Conceptual Model of RSTD

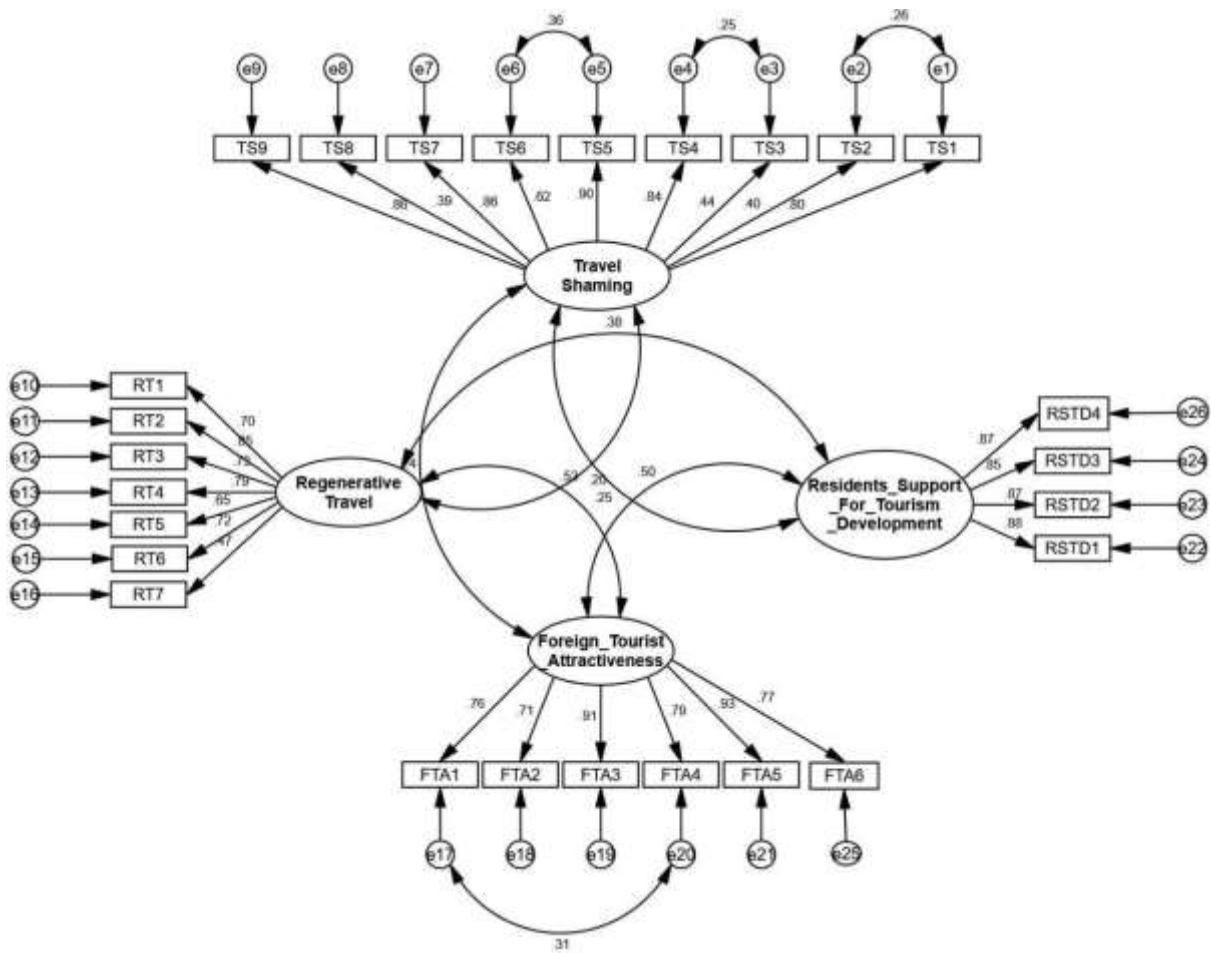


Figure 2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

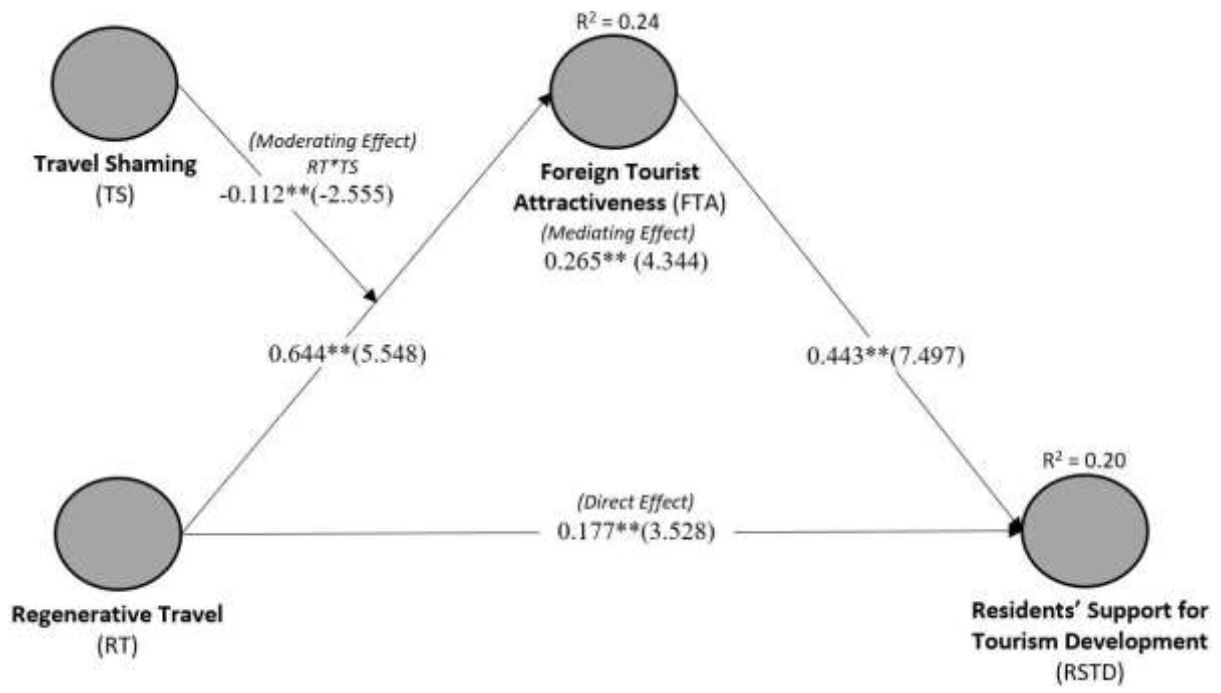


Figure 3 Structural Path Model

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Table 1

## Demographics Characteristics (N=463)

Description	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	163	35.2%
	Female	269	58.1%
	Prefer not to say	29	6.3%
	Other	2	0.4%
Age	18-24 years	66	14.3%
	25-34 years	81	17.5%
	35-44 years	127	27.4%
	45-54 years	122	26.3%
	55 years and over	67	14.5%
Education	High School or below	96	20.7%
	Bachelor's Degree (or equivalent)	260	56.2%
	Master's Degree (or equivalent)	93	20.1%
	Doctoral Degree (or equivalent)	14	3.0%
Length of	1 - 5 years	88	19.0%
Residence	6-10 years	61	13.2%
	Over 10 years	314	67.8%



Table 2

Descriptive Statistics (N=463)

Constructs	N	Variance	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
RT	463	0.486	0.69708	-0.299	0.113	0.529	0.226
RSTD	463	0.303	0.55049	-0.635	0.113	1.624	0.226
FTA	463	0.564	0.75110	0.442	0.113	0.341	0.226
TS	463	0.419	0.64724	-0.682	0.113	1.836	0.226

*Note: Regenerative Travel (RT), Foreign Tourist Attractiveness (FTA), Travel Shaming (TS), Residents' Support for Tourism Development (RSTD), Standard Deviation (SD).*

Table 3  
 Pattern Matrix- Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Constructs	Items	TS	RT	FTA	RSTD
Travel Shaming	TS1	0.799			
	TS2	0.402			
	TS3	0.456			
	TS4	0.856			
	TS5	0.916			
	TS6	0.657			
	TS7	0.854			
	TS8	0.406			
	TS9	0.859			
Regenerative Travel	RT1		0.774		
	RT2		0.836		
	RT3		0.794		
	RT4		0.724		
	RT5		0.583		
	RT6		0.716		
	RT7		0.558		
Foreign Tourist Attractiveness	FTA1			0.792	
	FTA2			0.630	
	FTA3			0.868	
	FTA4			0.833	
	FTA5			0.940	
	FTA6			0.760	
Resident's Support for Tourism Development	RSTD1				0.836
	RSTD2				0.919
	RSTD3				0.803
	RSTD4				0.846
<i>KMO and Bartlett's test</i>		0.769	0.863	0.902	0.889

Table 4

Measurement model (N=463)

Constructs and Items	label	$\rho$	$\lambda$
<b><i>Regenerative Travel</i></b> (CR=0.875; AVE=0.507; Cronbach's Alpha=0.868)			
<i>Foreign tourists visiting Kauai should participate more actively in...</i>			
Improving our social, economic and environmental conditions	RT1	0.774	0.704
Enhancing our natural and cultural environment	RT2	0.836	0.852
Enriching our local communities	RT3	0.794	0.730
Enhancing the quality of life for local people and communities	RT4	0.724	0.788
Activities that help in reversing the climate change	RT5	0.583	0.651
Making our place better for both current and future generations	RT6	0.716	0.724
Leaving our place 'better' than it was before	RT7	0.558	0.473
<b><i>Foreign Tourist Attractiveness</i></b> (CR=0.832; AVE=0.582; Cronbach's Alpha=0.839)			
I could be friends with a foreign tourist	FTA1	0.792	0.764
I would like spending time with foreign tourists	FTA2	0.630	0.709
Foreign tourists are pleasant to be around	FTA3	0.868	0.914
Foreign tourists are very friendly	FTA4	0.833	0.785
I enjoy friendly chats with foreign tourists	FTA5	0.940	0.932
In contrast to local tourists, I feel more attracted towards foreign tourists	FTA6	0.760	0.775
<b><i>Residents' Support for Tourism Development</i></b> (CR=0.873; AVE=0.570; Cronbach's Alpha=0.801)			
I support the current tourism developments in Kauai	RSTD1	0.836	0.880
Tourism should be further developed in Kauai	RSTD2	0.919	0.870
Local government should provide more funding to promote tourism in Kauai	RSTD3	0.803	0.847

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2 The volume of foreign tourists visiting Kauai should be increased RSTD4 0.846 0.872  
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6 ***Travel-Shaming*** (CR=0.894; AVE=0.505; Cronbach's Alpha=0.856;)  
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8 *I would make direct criticism of foreign tourists if they... ,*  
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10 Ignore local cultures and dress codes TS1 0.799 0.798

11 Violate local guidelines on health and safety TS2 0.402 0.403

12 Put other's safety at risk TS3 0.456 0.443

13 Behave irresponsibly during travel TS4 0.856 0.843

14 Do not adhere to our communal norms TS5 0.916 0.904

15 Violate entry restrictions at specific places TS6 0.657 0.621

16 Ignore restrictions on non-essential travel TS7 0.854 0.864

17 Practice nudity at public places TS8 0.406 0.388

18 Share photos of their travel on social media (e.g., Instagram, Facebook, etc.) TS9 0.859 0.862

19 during the COVID-19 pandemic  
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32 *Note. \*p<0.05; ρ = Factor loadings at ≥ 0.40 using EFA; λ̂ = standardized factors loadings using CFA; CR =*  
33 *Composite Reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; CB-SEM threshold based on Sample Size (N=463) λ >*  
34 *0.30 and ρ > 0.40.*

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Table 5

Multicollinearity and Discriminant Validity (N = 463)

	TS	RT	FTA	RSTD
TS	<b>0.711</b>			
RT	0.195	<b>0.712</b>		
FTA	0.242	0.532	<b>0.755</b>	
RSTD	0.250	0.376	0.498	<b>0.763</b>

Note: Regenerative Travel (RT), Foreign Tourist Attractiveness (FTA), Travel Shaming (TS), Residents' Support for Tourism Development (RSTD); Diagonal values (in bold) represent the square root of the estimated AVE values.

Table 6

Results of Hypotheses (N = 463)

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path ( $\beta$ )	t-statistics	p-values	Outcomes
		Coefficients			
H1	RT $\rightarrow$ RSTD	0.177**	3.528	<0.01	Accepted
H2	RT $\rightarrow$ FTA	0.644**	5.548	<0.01	Accepted
H3	FTA $\rightarrow$ RSTD	0.443**	7.497	<0.01	Accepted
H4	RT $\times$ TS $\rightarrow$ FTA	-0.112**	-2.555	<0.01	Accepted
H5	RT $\rightarrow$ FTA $\rightarrow$ RSTD	0.265**	4.344	<0.01	Accepted

Notes: \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; RT: Regenerative Travel, FTA: Foreign Tourist Attractiveness, TS: Travel Shaming, RSTD: Residents' Support for Tourism Development