Perceived Crowding and Subjective Well-Being Among Local Residents in Peripheral Areas on Senja

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# Perceived Crowding and Subjective Well-Being Among Local Residents in Peripheral Areas on Senja

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Abstract

Percived crowding as a result of tourism is a growing phenomenon in small communities in Norway. The purpose of this research is to identify the effects of perceived crowding on the subjective well-being of local inhabitants in peripheral areas on Senja. Determining how crowding affects the subjective well-being of local residents could help both tourism developers and local governments to reduce the potential negative effects of tourism. It could also help the local population understand what effect crowding has on the individual.

The study took place in three carefully chosen locations on Senja where the number of visitors outnumbers the number of residents during the summer season. Data was collected through in-depth interviews of 12 local inhabitants. Due to the Covid-19 situation, the data was collected through phone interviews. The interview guide was structured according to Castillo-Montoya’s (2016) four phase process. To measure the quality of life among the local inhabitants I employed an adapted version of Watson, Clark, and Tellegen’s (1988) positive and negative affect scale (PANAS). To measure the local inhabitants’ overall satisfaction with life, Diener and Pavot’s (2009) SWLS scales were adapted into open-ended interview questions. To establish a group standard for determining the perception of crowding among the informants, Shelby and Heberline’s (1984) measurement tool was utilized.

Impacts of tourism were identified and to be able to explain the effects of these impacts, they were placed in the World Tourism Organization’s (1998) carrying capacity model. By structuring the impacts this way, an overview of what impacts of tourism were fully or in part affecting the subjective well-being of the participants of the study was created. After the impacts were explained, the concrete effects of crowding were identified and discussed in relation to the self-reported life satisfaction and quality of life of the interview
subjects. Which lead to the conclusion that for the informants in the present study, perceived crowding lead to a short-term decrease in hedonic aspects of their subjective well-being.
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Acknowledgments

When I started this journey almost two years ago, the tourism and hospitality industry was booming, and the possibilities seemed endless. However, during the last few months, the challenges the industry is facing have grown and the once prosperous industry is more uncertain than ever. Due to the Covid-19 situation, this research has been made more difficult than first anticipated, although this might be the kick the industry needs to take actions towards a more sustainable development.

It is said no man is an island, and during the process of this research, I can attest to that. This research would not have been completed without the assistance and support of many.

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I hope this research paper can contribute to the knowledge of how the increase in tourism in destinations without the infrastructure to handle it affects the local residents.
1. Introduction

Norway is a country that consists of many small cities, towns, villages, and hamlets. Many of which are made up of less than 100 people. The island Senja is one of these places. Even if it is the second-largest island in Norway, it is populated with less than 8000 full-year residents that are spread across villages throughout the island. There is no accurate statistic of how many people visit Senja every year, but statistics from Statistikknett Nord-Norge (2020) show that there was 37,682 registered visitor nights on the island. As a result, the visitor to resident ratio is 4.5 visitors for every resident on the island. In some of the villages, the tourist/resident ratio is 1000/1. Bøvær, a village located right next to national tourist route Senja, is one of the most popular villages on the island. The beautiful white sand beach and the wild untamed nature of Bøvær draw up to 30,000 visitors every year. In Bøvær, the visitors outnumber residents 5000/1, as the local population is only 13. With a visitor to resident ratio this high, it raises the question of whether the local inhabitants have a “pain limit” in terms of the number of visitors, whether they perceive crowding as an issue and whether such perceived crowding has any effect on their subjective well-being.

1.1 Background

The main goal of this thesis is to get insight into people’s perception of crowding and how the perceived crowding affects the subjective well-being of local inhabitants in small towns and villages in rural areas in Northern Norway. In recent years, quality of life factors, such as subjective well-being (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005), and tourism impacts, such as crowding (Ap & Crompton, 1998; Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995; Mccool & Martin, 1994), have received increased interest from both media outlets and tourism scholars alike.
Most of the scientific literature on the subject has, however, focused on the perspective of the tourist, or the tourism provider. Few have taken the subjective well-being of local populations into account (Helgadóttir, Einarsdóttir, Burns, Gunnarsdóttir, & Matthíasdóttir, 2019; Nawijn & Mitas, 2012). Therefore, this thesis will only focus on crowding from the perspective of the local inhabitants. There are three important reasons for this choice. Firstly, it is important due to its exploratory nature. There are currently no existing theoretical models that explain the relationship between tourism impacts such as crowding and the subjective well-being of local residents. There are social exchange theories that try to explain the general cost-benefit relationship between tourism and host communities (Ap, 1992; Bimonte, D’Agostino, Grilli, & Pagliuca, 2019). They have, however, mainly been conducted from the perspective of the tourism industry, tourism development, or from the perspective of the tourist. Secondly, the tourism industry needs to understand how tourism development can impact the perception of local communities if the development is not monitored and controlled (Bimonte et al., 2019). Thirdly, inhabitants of highly-visited rural villages need to be aware of how tourism can impact them on a subjective level and how tourism can influence their life satisfaction (Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013; Lyubomirsky, 2001).

1.2 Defining the Scope of the Thesis

The topic of this master thesis is perceived crowding and subjective well-being. I will attempt to explain the cause and effect relationship between perception of crowding and the subjective well-being of local residents in communities where the number of visitors per year outnumbers the number of local inhabitants. The field of study will be sociology, tourism, and psychology. Through this thesis, I want to find out if the ratio of visitors and local inhabitants
plays a major role, and if so, what role in terms of subjective well-being amongst the inhabitants in these communities.

The main goal for the research is not to be able to generalize, it is to discover. Through this thesis, I hope to be able to show what effects perceived crowding has on the individual residents’ subjective well-being, if they indeed do perceive crowding to be an issue.

1.3 Research Question

The main research question of this thesis is:

“How does perceived crowding affect the subjective well-being of local inhabitants in small communities on Senja?”

To answer this research question, I have chosen to divide the main research question into three sub-questions that build on each other: To be able to identify the effects of crowding, I first have to determine the extent to which there is a perception of crowding among the local inhabitants. Secondly, if the local residents do indeed experience crowding, what are the consequences of crowding? And do these consequences affect the subjective well-being of the inhabitants? In this thesis I thereby seek to explore the following three sub-questions:

- To what extent is there a perception of crowding among local inhabitants on Senja?
- What are the consequences of perceived crowding?
- Do these consequences affect the subjective well-being of the local inhabitants?
1.4 Outline of the Thesis

This paper consists of six chapters, starting with the introduction which provides the background for the theme of this thesis and introduces the research questions. This section is followed by an extensive literature review in chapter 2, which covers the impacts of tourism, crowding as a consequence of tourism, and how crowding can be measured. It also contains an introduction to the different aspects of subjective well-being, as well as a short presentation of how subjective well-being will be measured in this thesis. The chapter concludes with a review of the literature on how subjective well-being is affected by crowding. Chapter two is followed by the methodology chapter (chapter 3), where the methodological approach and design applied in this thesis is presented together with the employed sampling strategy. The chapter also includes a brief discussion on issues of validity and reliability.

The fourth part consists of a presentation of the findings from the data-collection face. The data is presented in four parts. First, the findings related to infrastructure and regulations, or lack thereof, is presented. Followed by a presentation of the environmental, economic, and social impacts of tourism on local communities on Senja. The findings that identify crowding as an impact are singled out as a separate impact. Findings pertaining to subjective well-being are also presented separately.

Chapter 5 contains a discussion on how the empirical data relates to the theoretical constructs of both the impact; perceived crowding, and the concept; subjective well-being. It also introduces carrying capacity as a framework to discuss the empirical findings on tourism impacts and how they affect the informants. The strengths and weaknesses of the thesis are also discussed in this section. Chapter 6, contains a conclusion, were the main research question is answered, together with a short discussion on limitations, future research, and
implication of this thesis. The implications that are presented are both theoretical, methodological, and managerial.
2. Literature Review

The main objective of this chapter is to give a comprehensive literature review on the concept of subjective well-being, and the impacts of tourism and crowding. Reviewing the available literature on impacts of tourism and quality of life, and identify the effect crowding has on an individual’s subjective well-being through exploring the connection between, quality of life, life satisfaction, and subjective well-being.

The chapter is divided into three sections, the first section provides a review of the impacts of tourism, before zooming in on the concept of crowding and proposing a method for measuring perceived crowding. The second section provides a review of the concept of subjective well-being separately from quality of life and life satisfaction and suggests a method for measuring subjective well-being through a combination of the PANAS scale (Watson et al., 1988) and the SWLS scale (Diener & Pavot, 2009) The third section attempt to draw the connections between the tourism impact crowding and its effect on local resident’s subjective well-being.

2.1 Impacts of Tourism

Numerous studies identify tourism impacts as a side effect of tourism development and according to Kim, Uysal and Sirgy (2013), tourism impacts can be analysed from a social, economic, or environmental perspective.

The economic impact has commonly been seen as a positive impact (Ap, 1992; Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995; Kim et al., 2013; Yu, Charles Chancellor, & Tian Cole, 2011). It can help improve the standard of living (Ap, 1990; Kim et al., 2013) through creating jobs (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Yu et al., 2011) and bringing in tax revenue (Ap, 1992; Yu et al., 2011). The negative economic impacts of tourism, however, include increased cost of...
living (Ap, 1992; Bimonte et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2011) and an increased cost of housing (Ap, 1990).

Social impacts, both positive and negative, are often identified as a result of tourism. On the negative side of the scale, we find impacts such as traffic congestion (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kim et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2011), crowding (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Bimonte et al., 2019; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Kim et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2011) and pressure on infrastructure (Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995). There are also findings that suggest positive social impacts of tourism, such as access to recreational facilities (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kim et al., 2013) and better shopping (Ap, 1992). Research by Fennel and Weaver (2005) finds that the negative socio-cultural impacts can be drastically reduced if local residents have a significant amount of control over tourism development and are the main recipients of economic and other benefits.

Tourism also has both positive and negative environmental impacts. Preservation of the environment (Kim et al., 2013) is one of the positive environmental impacts. Even though tourism is thought to be a relatively clean industry (Kim et al., 2013), others have identified negative impacts such as degradation of nature (Yu et al., 2011), pollution (Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995; Yu et al., 2011), waste, reduction of environmental quality (Bimonte et al., 2019), littering, and destruction of natural beauty (Doğan, 1989).

According to Woo, Uysal and Sirgy (2018) how residents perceive the identified impacts of tourism, will influence their satisfaction in certain life domains such as well-being and overall life satisfaction. If residents have a positive perception of the impacts of tourism, the likelihood of them also being positively affected by tourism is greater. However, if their perception of the impacts of tourism is negative, chances are that the impacts will affect the residents negatively as well (Woo et al., 2018).
Just like any social activity, tourism comes with both positive and negative impacts, how much the impacts affect the residents depend on the number of tourists as well as the type of tourist (Doğan, 1989). Canavan (2014) states that the impacts of tourism are likely higher in peripheral areas and that impacts may have a greater negative effect on small, tightly knit communities.

2.1.1 Carrying capacity

Shelby and Heberline (1984, p. 441) defines carrying capacity as: “the level of use beyond which impacts exceed acceptable levels specified by evaluative standards” and describes it as: “ultimately a number, usually a number of individuals or groups expressed in relation to time and area dimensions”

According to the World Tourism Organization (1998) tourism carrying capacity is the maximum number of visitors a given destination or territory can bear without compromising its environmental, economic, and socio-cultural characteristics. And according to Bimonte and Punzo (2011), that implies that there are three individual factors that can be used to evaluate carrying capacity, namely: physical, economic, and social. The physical carrying capacity corresponds to environmental resources or territories and at what level of utilization generates irreversible damages. The economic factors correspond with a level of utilization that would decrease the perceived quality of the experience to the point where economic benefits from tourism would decline. Lastly, the social factor locates the point where the perceived social costs reduce the perceived benefits and consequently reduce the residents’ quality of life.

The actual physical carrying capacity is seldom reached even if the socially accepted, perceived carrying capacity might already be reaching saturation (Bimonte & Punzo, 2011).
The evaluation of carrying capacity will for the sake of this study be based on what is identified as socially acceptable levels of saturation among the local residents, and not the actual physical carrying capacity. The impact and evaluation will be separated (Shelby & Heberlein, 1984) and the perceived impacts will be used as indicators along with the subjective evaluation made by the informants during the interviews.

Zehrer and Raich (2016) state that carrying capacity which entails natural, economic, and social carrying capacity is related to perceived crowding and that physical carrying capacity is reached when all available areas are overcrowded.

2.2 Crowding as an Impact of Tourism

Crowding is one of several impacts of tourism that researchers have suggested as having negative social consequences (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004), and in tourism research, it has been a reappearing topic since the early 1970s (Oklevik et al., 2019). However, it is only more recently that it has been used synonymously with the term over-tourism (Helgadóttir et al., 2019).

Milano, Cheer and Novelli (2018, p. 2) defined over-tourism: “as the excessive growth of visitors leading to overcrowding in areas where residents suffer consequences of temporary and seasonal tourism peaks, which have enforced permanent changes to their lifestyles, access to amenities and general well-being”.

The focus on tourism impacts such as crowding through destination and tourism development leads to an assumption that communities have limits of tolerance and if these limits are superseded, the attitude of local residents might change from positive to negative
(Canavan, 2014). To create tourism resilience, one can avoid a change of attitude through maintaining the community’s quality of life at a desirable level (Lew & Cheer, 2018).

Neuts, Nijkamp and Van Leeuwen (2012, p. 651) explain tourism crowding as: “a stress situation which develops as a result of the interference of spatial limitations on social activities” and therefore claims that crowding is a psychological construct that relates to attitudes towards social density. Neuts Nijkamp and Van Leeuwen (2012) states that crowding is a consequence of psychological carrying capacity, and therefore it is both connected to a specific place as well as dependent on the personality of the individual perceiving the crowding.

2.2.1 Perceived crowding

Jin, Hu, & Kavan (2016) describes perceived crowding in tourism as an individual’s subjective evaluation of human density in specific environments. The perception of crowding arises when the utilization of social and environmental resources surpasses the carrying capacity of the destination (Jin et al., 2016). This definition is supported by Shelby and Heberline (1984) who state that perceived crowding involves a negative evaluation of human density. This is also the definition of crowding that will be utilized throughout this thesis.

It is important to also take into consideration when measuring individuals’ preferences, that the perception of crowding is not a static concept, it is a concept consisting of multiple psychological factors. Factors that affects the perception of crowding are individual influences such as personal characteristics and personality traits, as well as environmental influences such as the behaviour of others and tourist encounters (Jin et al., 2016)
Popp (2012) explains that there is a difference between good and bad crowding and that it is important to take into consideration when evaluating perceived crowding. Good crowding is when the crowd adds to the experience, which can lead to enjoyment, while bad crowding is when crowding leads to a feeling of stress.

### 2.2.2 Measuring perceived crowding

To measure perceived crowding the evaluation and impact of crowding will have to be separated (Shelby & Heberlein, 1984). When the impact is removed from the equation only the evaluation is left which can be measured by identifying the underlying indicators. Jin et al. (2016) conclude that perceived crowding can be regarded as an individual’s subjective feelings and according to Shelby and Heberline (1984), the ideal way to identifying at what level perceived crowding arises is by using social psychological techniques for establishing group standards. «it involves measuring individual preferences under a specified set of conditions. If users agree to some extent, a usable standard emerges” (Shelby & Heberlein, 1984, p. 441).

This thesis is based on the definition of perceived crowding by Jin et al. (2016) and the measuring tools provided by Shelby and Heberline (1984) that states that the way to measure this evaluation is based on the individual’s collective perception of what is crowded. In this thesis, the focus is on crowding in connection to tourism, and to identify at what level crowding is perceived among the informants, all twelve informants will evaluate and set the limits to what they understand to be crowding in this specific condition. If the informants individually come to a similar conclusion, that will be the level of measurement utilized in the research.
2.3 Well-Being

Classic philosophers used happiness as an umbrella term for the various aspects of the good life. Social scientists increasingly use the term happiness as a synonym for quality of life and subjective life satisfaction, which is formally referred to as subjective well-being by psychologists (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012).

2.3.1 Quality of life and life satisfaction

Quality of life and life satisfaction is interconnected, and life satisfaction is often used as a marker for measuring life quality. The concepts are used interchangeably even if there are certain differences.

‘“individuals’ perception of their position in life in the context of their culture and value system and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns. It is a broad ranging concept affected in a complex way by the person’s physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships, and their relationships to salient features of their environment.”’ (World Health Organization, 1998, p. 1)

In recent years, quality of life (QOL) has become a topic of discussion (Andereck et al., 2005) where the main purpose of researching QOL is to understand local residents’ objective and subjective well-being. Looking at subjective quality of life is important since the context for each individual is value-laden and emotive, it entails life satisfaction and feeling of well-being (Andereck et al., 2005; Dissart & Deller, 2000). When individuals evaluate their own quality of life, they do it subjectively, incorporating personal feelings and perception about their environment (Dissart & Deller, 2000). Since quality of life is a subjective experience dependent on a person’s feelings and perception it is hard to define (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011).
To measure quality of life, two different types of indicators have traditionally been used: objective circumstances (such as level of education and income) and subjective circumstances (such as satisfaction with different aspects of life) (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011).

Lyubomirsky (2001, p. 242) defines life satisfaction as a “sense of well-being about one’s life” that is generally derived from satisfaction within certain areas of their lives such as leisure, family, or their material life. Satisfaction with life is seen as the top of the satisfaction hierarchy and is influenced by family, leisure, recreation, work, and their economy (Woo et al., 2018), it can be interpreted as the greater satisfaction with life overall (Sirgy, 2019). McCabe and Johnson (2013) tie it together by explaining life satisfaction as a cognitive judgemental process that consists of a global assessment of a person’s life according to their self-identified and weighted criteria in combination with hedonic aspects. Sirgy (2019) states that those with a perceived higher life satisfaction exhibits more support for tourism than those with lower perceived life satisfaction.

2.3.2 Subjective well-being

According to Nawijn and Mitas (2012) life satisfaction, happiness, quality of life (QOL), and subjective well-being (SWB) can be interpreted in several different ways. However, there is a distinction between hedonic and eudaemonic levels of SWB. Perceived impacts and the cognitive components are on the eudaemonic level, which has long-lasting effects. On the hedonic level, however, we find the affective components such as activities and aspects of pleasure that gives immediate and short-term gratification.

Both the hedonic and the eudaemonic levels are incorporated into a life rich in meaning with hedonic aspects of pleasure in combination with self-actualization, personal
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growth, and individual life goals (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012). The hedonic level is SWB while the eudaemonic level is referred to as psychological well-being (PWB) (Sanjuán, 2011). Sanjuán (2011) argues that the outer hedonic level is connected to subjective well-being, while Nawjin and Mitas (2012) argue that QOL can be separated into inner and outer qualities where the inner qualities are best suited to measuring SWB.

According to Björk and Sthapit (2017), SWB entails residents’ overall sense of well-being that can be captured through different concepts such as life satisfaction, positive and negative affect, as well as overall happiness. Diener (2009) divides subjective well-being into three categories; external factors such as economics, internal self-evaluation such as perceptions and feelings, and lastly by the colloquial definition of well-being used in everyday conversation (Diener, 2009; Yu et al., 2011).

Research on subjective well-being mainly draws information from two sources, to what degree we get what we want out of life and how well we feel the majority of the time. These two components of subjective well-being are the affective and the cognitive components (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012). From a purely theoretical point of view, subjective well-being is a picture of how individuals feel in general as well as an index of whether the individual’s needs are fulfilled (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012).

The definition of well-being that will be used in this thesis, is the definition of Diener, Oishi and Lucas (2003), who defined subjective well-being as an individual’s cognitive and affective evaluation of their life. According to Diener and Suh (1997), subjective well-being consists of three interrelated components. There is life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect. All three are important to be able to evaluate subjective well-being (Diener et al., 2003). “As the term indicates, subjective well-being is primarily concerned with the
respondents’ own internal judgment of well-being, rather than what policymakers, academics, or others consider important” (Diener et al., 2003, p. 201).

2.3.3 Measuring subjective well-being

Gasper (2005) defines objective well-being (OWB) as non-feeling types of behaviour and achievements, such as physical health, learning, mobility, and social participation. Gasper (2015) goes on to explain that OBW can influence SWB and the subjective evaluation of the individuals’ satisfaction with different life aspects (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011).

To measure individual perception of both life quality, positive and negative affect, two different scales will be utilized and adapted in this thesis: Pavot and Diener’s (2009) satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) and Watson, Clark and Tellegen’s (1988) positive and negative affect scales (PANAS). Both of these scales are survey-based and quantitative in nature and will, for the purpose of this thesis, be adapted to open-ended interview questions to fit with the qualitative approach applied in this thesis.

2.3.3.1 PANAS

PANAS is a 10-item scale to measure the two, primary dimensions of moods. Positive affect (PA) on one side of the scale and negative affect (NA) on the opposite side of the scale. The PA scale is connected to social activity and shows whether a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. A high score on PA means high energy levels, concentration, and pleasure, while a low PA score shows a state of distress and apathy. The NA scale is connected to perceived stress and is a dimension of melancholy and uninspired undertakings and is comprised of an array of indifferent mood states such as contempt, fear, guilt, nervousness, and distrust. While
a low score on NA is a state of peace and tranquillity (Watson et al., 1988). According to Watson et al. (1988), the PANAS scale is the best and most reliable way to measure the primary mood dimensions.

The PANAS scale is usually meant to be used as a quantitative measuring tool. However, due to the qualitative nature of this thesis, the scale has been used to identify the feelings on the scale, not to measure the level of the feelings. The levels are analysed out of the context of the interview and the responses of the informants. The chosen approach is also made to be able to measure the perception of PA and NA in connection to tourism and specifically to over-tourism.

2.3.3.2 SWLS

The Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) measures general satisfaction using five questions on a seven-point licker scale (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). It was designed to measure cognitive judgments of life satisfaction rather than affect. The five questions should be answered on a scale varying from “Strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. It measures global life satisfaction with life as a whole instead of one specific area (Sanjuán, 2011). The items are global instead of specific in nature, which allows the participants to weight their lives according to their own values. This further allows for assessment of an informant’s global judgment of their life satisfaction, which is predicted to be subject to a comparison of life circumstances and the informant’s subjective standards (Diener & Pavot, 2009).

Similar to the PANAS scale, the SWLS is also originally a quantitative measuring tool. For the sake of this study, however, the statements in the SWLS scale has been modified into open-ended interview questions. This has been done to measure the meaning behind their opinions instead of measuring at what level they perceive their subjective life satisfaction.
2.4 Crowding and Well-Being

Research on tourism impacts in connection to subjective well-being has become increasingly popular over recent years. However most of the research has focused on the tourists’ SWB (Bimonte et al., 2019), and few have investigated how the residents’ perception of tourism impacts have impacted their quality of life (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). Previous studies have mainly been impact studies and studies of host attitudes which primarily have focused on the influence of tourism on entire communities, quality of life studies to the contrary focus on the effects on individuals (Allen, 1990). Milano, Cheer and Novelli’s (2018) state that a consequence of crowding is that it can affect the general well-being of residents. According to Arnberger (2007), this is particularly relevant if the perceived crowding contributes to the displacement of the residents from their usual areas of recreation. Bimonte et al. (2019) stress the importance of focusing on the residents' well-being and attitudes in successful tourism development.

Research on impacts of tourism in connection to quality of life often focuses on studies of residents attitudes concerning community impact and environmental challenges (Helgadóttir et al., 2019), even if the local inhabitants' attitude towards tourism appears to be dependent of their perception of the costs and benefits they acquire from tourism (Teye, Sirakaya, & F. Sönmez, 2002). Riddestaat, Croes and Nijkamp (2016) see the connection between quality of life and tourism development as a complicated yet mutual relationship. That the development of tourism should have as a purpose to increase the quality of life for local residents (McCool and Martin, 1994). Researchers have identified several factors that can influence quality of life, including visitor numbers, the number of local inhabitants, visitor types, and the social exchange relations between visitors and residents (Barbra A.
Carmichael, 2006). Previous research on the impact of tourism separate between impacts of a
socioeconomic, cultural, environmental, and overall quality of life character (Nawijn & Mitas,
2012).

Economic and social exchange theory recognizes tourism as an exchange process
between residents and visitors (Ap, 1992; Bimonte & Punzo, 2011). However, when the
balance between cost and benefit is skewed in favour of the visitor and the cost is placed on
local communities, the locals may become apathetic and even hostile towards visitors (Deery,
Jago, & Fredline, 2012; Moyle, Croy, & Weiler, 2010). Residents see tourism as a dual
phenomenon where they recognize the economic relevance and at the same time feel the
impact on their everyday life and general life satisfaction (Bimonte et al., 2019).

Tourism can have negative effects such as crowding, parking problems, traffic
congestion, littering, crime, increased cost of living, and friction between visitors and
residents, which can all be detrimental to life satisfaction of the local residents (Ap &
Crompton, 1993; Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995; Dissart & Deller, 2000; Mccool & Martin,
1994). In some cases, residents might end up feeling alienated in their own communities
(Tosun, 2002a; Williams & Lawson, 2001). Rapid growth in the number of arrivals has been
found to particularly increase the potential conflicts and the perception of crowding among
locals (Bimonte et al., 2019). Some of the consequences of crowding are a reduction in
quality and quantity of recreational and social situations for the locals, and predictors of
subjective well-being are social capital and sociability (Bimonte et al., 2019), tourists
intruding on the locals’ personal space might, therefore, lead to temporary or even long term
negative effects on the local residents’ subjective well-being.

Tourism can have a tremendous impact on peoples’ quality of life (Andereck &
Nyaupane, 2011) and it has been found that the residents perceived impacts of tourism affects
their individual sense of well-being (Uysal, Sirgy, Woo, & Kim, 2016), which consequently affects their life satisfaction (Kim et al., 2013). According to Nawijn and Mitas (2012), approximately 9% of the variance in local inhabitants' life satisfaction could be attributed to tourism impacts, thus providing evidence for the correlation between perceived impacts of tourism and subjective well-being.
3. Methodology

This chapter focuses on the methodological approach and design utilized in this study. It describes the data collection process, the sampling strategy, the design of the interview guide, transcription procedures, as well as the coding process. The chapter concludes with an elaboration of issues related to reliability, validity, the role of the researcher, and ethical issues.

3.1 Methodological Approach and Design

Methodology relates to how one, as a researcher, attempts to approach and uncover reality (Jacobsen, 2015). The choice of whether to follow a quantitative or a qualitative methodological approach was, in this study, determined by the study’s overarching research question. Since the major difference between qualitative and quantitative approach is the approach to data collection (Harboe, 2013), I had to evaluate what I wanted to answer through my research. The purpose of this thesis was to identify any effects perceived crowding have on the subjective well-being of locals in small villages. In qualitative research, the focus is on exploring a defined empirical field in dept, with the main objective of gathering nuanced information that needs to be interpreted within a larger context (Harboe, 2013). In the present study, the qualitative approach was therefore considered to be the most suitable approach, as it enabled me to go deep into the chosen empirical field through conducting interviews with a limited number of informants.

The research conducted for this thesis can furthermore be described as exploratory since the connection between perceived crowding and local inhabitants' subjective well-being has remained fairly underexplored (Helgadóttir et al., 2019). Exploratory research is applied when a subject is fairly new and unexplored, but it seldom generates conclusive results. Instead, it seeks to generate new ideas and hypotheses that can be addressed in future research.
PERCEIVED CROWDING AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

(Neuman, 2014a). Neuman (2014a, p. 43) describes the need for the researcher to be “creative, open minded, and flexible” when conducting exploratory research. To conduct this type of research, the researcher must: “adopt an investigative stance; and explore all sources of information”. This type of research can be challenging due to its lack of guidelines and loosely defined steps and it is therefore vital that the researcher asks creative questions and is open to the possibility that newly discovered aspects can turn out to be of key importance.

3.2 Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy used in this thesis is the snowball strategy, which Neuman (2014a, p. 280) refers to as a: “network, chain referral, reputational and respondent driven” sampling strategy. The name of the strategy is derived from the analogy of a snowball that starts with a few respondents and as it rolls it “picks up” more and more respondents along the way. It starts small and gradually grows bigger and bigger throughout the process as new respondents are recruited through the previous respondents’ network (Neuman, 2014a). It is, in other words, a multistage sampling technique that starts with a few respondents and gradually spreads out as the informants are used as a source of additional informants (2011). Neuman (2014a, p. 275) explains the process of sampling as: “A non-random sample in which the researcher begins with one case and then, based on information about interrelationships from that case, identifies other cases and repeats the process again and again”.

The snowball strategy is a nonprobability sampling method. Nonprobability sampling is a technique where the researcher chooses samples based on their subjective judgment instead of random selection. Consequently, the strategy is not concerned with representability, and do not adhere to statistical calculations or prescribed levels of precision (Veal, 2011). In qualitative research, it is instead the relevance of the sample to: “the research topic rather
than their representativeness which determines the way in which the people to be studied are selected” (Flick, 1998, p. 41).

3.2.1 Sample

In preparing for data collection for this thesis, snowball sampling (Neuman, 2014a) was utilized. The project leader for local democracy in the new municipality of Senja was contacted and requested to assist in the selection of one central person in each of the preselected villages. These subjects were selected based on their involvement in local politics and engagement in their local communities. After talking to these subjects on the phone, they were asked to provide the names of one or more subjects that might be interested in partaking in the project. This subject was then contacted based on the previous subject’s recommendation and the procedure was repeated until the same names begun to come up again and again. This procedure resulted in a sample size of 13 informants of different ages, gender, and occupation. At the last minute, however, one of the informants had to withdraw from the project due to health-related issues connected to the Covid-19 pandemic. Initially, efforts were made to replace the informant, but as the remaining 12 interviews were conducted and saturation was achieved, no further effort was made to replace the 13th informant.
Table 1: Informant overview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informant number</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Education level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>Higher education 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Higher education 5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Highschool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Higher education 8 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Practical education 2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Higher education 7 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Highschool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Practical education 2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Higher education 5 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Interviews

The research interview is an interpersonal situation, a conversation between two parties regarding a topic of mutual interest (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015). The interview is conducted to get insight into a person’s experiences from their subjective point of view (Brinkmann and Tanggard, 2012). Since the objective of this research is to discover how perceived crowding might influence and affect local inhabitant’s subjective well-being, in-depth interviews were considered to be the most suitable approach. In this study, twelve in-debt interviews were conducted, and according to Harboe (2013), such a limited number of informants can be appropriate when the goal is to gain a deep understanding of a specific topic using qualitative methods. Natural restrictions such as time, resources and access to interview subjects (Jacobsen, 2015; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015) were also factors that limited the number of interviews planned.
For the purpose of this study, in-depth, semi-structured interviews (Bailey, 2007) were chosen as the data collection method. Semi-structured interviews usually utilize an interview guide with specific questions organized under different topics and unlike a structured interview, the flow is more dynamic during a semi-structured interview. Even though the questions are prepared in advance the interviewer is not locked to a specific order. The interviewer is free to rearrange the order as well as skip previously answered questions altogether (Bailey, 2007).

The initial plan was to conduct the interviews face-to-face since part of the information exchange relies on developing a personal relationship with the interview-subjects, and the opportunity to do so might be reduced when the interview is conducted through the phone or through other forms of electronic communication (Harboe, 2013). However, due to the outbreak of Covid-19 and the restrictions enforced by the Norwegian government, face-to-face interviews became unfeasible overnight, and the interviews had to be conducted through the phone. Jacobsen (2015), however, supports conducting interviews electronically either through telephone or Skype, both for convenience and for cutting costs. Sturges and Hanrahan (2004) actually recommend conducting phone interviews rather than face-to-face interviews due to the perceived anonymity that comes with not being seen by the interviewer, which can have a positive effect when discussing sensitive topics. In this case however, it was done out of necessity as a consequence of governmentally imposed restrictions and not as an active choice.

3.3.1 Interview guide

Prior to the data collection, an interview guide was created following Castillo-Montoya’s (2016) four phase process of interview protocol refinement. The four-phase process was
utilized both as a foundation for the development of the interview guide and to strengthen its reliability.

The first phase in the process is: “Ensuring interview questions align with research questions” (Castillo-Montoya, 2016, p. 812). The main research question of this thesis encompasses two separate concepts: subjective well-being and perceived crowding. Therefore, to make sure that the interview guide aligns with the research question, the interview guide was divided into three sections. The first section focused on the informants’ perception of crowding, the second addressed subjective well-being and the third drew the two concepts together in an effort to make sense of the connection between them. To measure subjective well-being, a combination of the PANAS Scale (Watson et al., 1988) which measures positive and negative affect, and the Satisfaction with life scale SWLS (Diener & Pavot, 2009) which seeks to evaluate an individual’s cognitive judgment of life satisfaction, was translated from quantitative measuring scales to qualitative open-ended interview questions.

Castillo-Montoya’s (2016, p. 812) second phase is: «Constructing an inquiry-based conversation” which, according to the author, can be achieved through the construction of an interview protocol that contains varied interview questions, using follow-up questions and following the social rules of ordinary conversations. The variation of questions and follow-up questions have been maintained through phase one, the social rules of an ordinary conversation were maintained by the interviewer throughout the interviews to the best of his capability.

Phase three: “Receiving feedback on interview protocols” (Castillo-Montoya, 2016, p. 812) can be achieved through close reading of the interview guide and receiving peer feedback on the interview questions, which in this thesis was achieved through feedback from
my supervisor and three former colleagues from the hospitality industry. This was done to
determine how each individual question was understood, both in and of themselves, and as a
part of an interview, and to safeguard against biased questions. To verify that the questions
were unbiased, relevant, and understandable, phase four of Castillo-Montoya’s (2016, p. 812)
process “Piloting the interview protocol” was completed through a pilot interview with an
inhabitant in a small village with similar challenges to the villages included in this study. The
finished interview is attached in Appendix 1.

All the 12 interviews were recorded to minimize distractions and to maintain a free
conversation with the interview subjects (Bailey, 2007) It also gave me the possibility to take
an active listening position during the interview (Tanngard & Brinkmann, 2012). The
interviews lasted between 35 and 55 minutes.

3.3.2 Transcription and coding

Once the interviews were done, the process of transcribing the interviews begun. All the
interviews were transcribed in verbatim, word for word, to achieve a truthful representation of
data. It took a total of 29 hours to transcribe the 423 minutes of interview recordings.

After listening through the interviews, I realized what Kvale and Brinkmann (2016)
meant when they wrote that your interviewing skills grow as you conduct interviews. I could
really hear how my interviewing skills developed throughout the interviews as I gradually
found my voice as an interviewer. After the transcription process was completed, every
transcript was read carefully to eliminate any spelling or data errors. To protect the anonymity
of my informants, the transcripts of the interviews will not be attached to this thesis, as they
contain information that could reveal the identity of the informants.
I chose to code the interviews separately and started with four interviews chosen at random. This gave me a pool of 122 codes which were divided by the three themes predetermined by my interview guide. Many of the codes represented similar sentiments, and I, therefore, chose to group them together into more abstract and inclusive codes. This coding process is illustrated with an example in Table 2.

Table 2. Example: First and second cycle coding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning unit</th>
<th>First cycle code</th>
<th>Second cycle code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“It can appear they bought their driver’s license in a supermarket”</td>
<td>Hazardous traffic situations</td>
<td>Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“In 2012 the mountain was green, that is not the case anymore.”</td>
<td>Exploitation of natural resources</td>
<td>Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“It is so much fun that they want to come here to experience our beautiful island”</td>
<td>Sense of pride when sharing their community</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“when five people chose to go out in a rubber boat when there is a storm brewing, that is not ok”</td>
<td>Socially unacceptable tourist behaviour</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“there are not enough accommodation and opportunities for the tourists”</td>
<td>Support the need for development</td>
<td>Opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“tourism is the only reason we are able to have both a convenience store and a restaurant”</td>
<td>Foundation for tourism providers</td>
<td>Opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“there is a great need for parking spaces, right now tourists are parking in private driveways”</td>
<td>Lack of parking structures</td>
<td>Local situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“It is a small hamlet with few people living here”</td>
<td>Few local inhabitants</td>
<td>Local situation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Reliability and Validity

Reliability attests to the trustworthiness of the results, while validity relates to whether the study corresponds to the actual measures it is supposed to survey (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015).
3.4.1 Reliability

Reliability in this research is referring to the consistency and accuracy of the research results (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015). The research results must purvey credence to its readers, it has to be conducted in a convincing manner that conveys confidence (Jacobsen, 2015).

To maintain the reliability of the data collection process in this study, recording all the interviews while they were being held, was an important aspect, as well as making a summary of the interview to capture the nuances in attitude, mood, personality, and other important observations. This was done immediately after each interview had ended. The recording was important for rendering in text what was conveyed vocally. To avoid any sources of error, the recorder was tested before the interviews commenced. To increase the reliability of the research more interviews could have been conducted or second interviews with the original group of interview subjects could have been conducted to measure the stability of my findings (Harboe, 2013). However, due to the time limitations of this research project, that was not feasible. By conducting as many interviews as I have, I have tried to ensure the reliability of the research as best as possible.

3.4.2 Validity

In dictionaries, validity is defined as the truth, correctness, and strength of a statement (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In qualitative research the term validity attests to if what was intended to investigate is actually what has been investigated (Krumsvik, 2013). In the research context, the term validity is divided in two: inner and outer validity. Inner validity relates to if the area where research is being conducted is in compliance with the empirical world and how congruent it is in relation to reality. While outer validity speaks to how generalizable the findings are, and if the findings are transferable to other situations (Krumsvik, 2013).
To maintain the internal validity of the research I interviewed informants that were relevant to my research and used a semi-structured interview guide to ensure that the interviews did not stray too far from the subject. Outer validity and statistical generalizability are seldom used in qualitative research as it is not a relevant measure of quality when the data is based on only a small number of informants (Leedy, 2012; Krumsvik, 2013).

3.4.3 The role of the researcher

The researcher's integrity is an imperative quality in scientific knowledge and the ethical decisions made in qualitative research (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015). The researcher’s independence can, however, be influenced by contributors and sponsors, as connections to these groups can make the researcher ignore or oversee certain results and emphasize others. This could have a negative effect as it jeopardizes the neutral and complete presentation of the researched phenomenon (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015).

I have a personal connection to the places where the research was conducted since I was born and raised on Senja. I have also previously worked in the tourism industry on the island. Throughout this research project, I have therefore had to be aware of the potential biases that might come with my background and prior experiences. There is a possibility that these circumstances have influenced the outcome of the research. However, by remaining aware and keeping this in mind I have to the best of my ability tried to approach the research with as much objectivity as possible. Another source of potential bias is that some of the informants already knew who I was before the interviews and their answers might have been influenced by the Hawthorne effect (Leedy, 2012). Meaning that they could have given me the answers they thought I wanted to hear, rather than their true opinions. If I, as a result of my lack of experience as an interviewer, let my personal opinion on the topics discussed in
the interview become apparent, they might have given me answers that supported any hypotheses they might have assumed I had. It is next to impossible to safeguard against the Hawthorne effect. However, due to the varied answers the informants gave, it seems unlikely that the Hawthorne effect had a strong effect on the informants’ answers.

No qualitative researcher can claim to be completely objective in their research. But by being aware, reflecting and explaining possible assumptions, expectations and cultural values that could have influenced the data interpretation, one can give the reader information that enables them to better evaluate the trustworthiness and credibility of both the findings and the interpretation that are drawn from the findings (Leedy, 2012). My close connection to the theme chosen for this thesis, choice of education, and interest in destination development all influenced the choice of research topic for this thesis. Krumsvik (2013) states that personal goals are connected to your interest in a specific area of research and that the drive and motivation one has for a field of interest is highly important for the progress of your research.

3.4.4. Ethical reflections

In the social sciences, ethical issues can have severe consequences, both for the interview subjects and for the larger society as a whole (Jacobsen, 2015). We, as researchers, therefore, have to commit to deliberate on how our research might affect those who are being studied and how our research can be used and understood. To gain information from our informants, we depend on trust. Since it is the researcher who, through the interviews, impose on the informants’ private sphere without them having requested us to do so (Harboe, 2013). When including individuals in research, the risk of participating should never be considerably higher than the risk involved with living their daily life. Research should never be carried out on
account of life and health, expose the interview subject to stress or loss of self-esteem (Leedy, 2012).

The initial plan for this research was to have all the interview subject sign a consent form that explained the purpose of the study, what their participation entailed, how the data gathered would be utilized and stored, as well as an explanation of their rights to withdraw from the project at any time. However, since I never meet the informants face-to-face, I opted for sending them the consent form (see appendix 2) via email, and only started the interview once they confirmed that they had read the form and gave their consent. Everyone, without exception, gave their consent. As the interviews were being recorded, it was necessary to inform the Norwegian Centre for Data Research (NSD) and send in an application for approval. The research project (reference code 211877) was approved on February 6th, 2020. NSD’s evaluation of the project was that the planned data collection was in line with the guidelines. (The approval from NSD is attached in appendix 3).

There are always ethical issues related to the collection of sensitive or unavailable data (Harboe, 2013). The researcher, therefore, has to constantly evaluate, sometimes already in the transcription process, if anything has to be censored in order to protect the anonymity of the informants (Krumsvik, 2013). In this project, all the informants were informed before the interview process began, that due to the sparse population in the area, there could be a chance they could be recognized in the study, even if I did my utmost to protect their anonymity. They were then, given the opportunity to withdraw from the research project. None of the informants chose to withdraw.

All interview recordings were transcribed anonymously. The informants are only recognized through a number in the text and by their gender, age, and education level in Table 1. As an extra measure of security, all recordings were stored on an external storage unit
without internet connection. Their names and email addresses are stored separately from the transcriptions and only exists in hard copy in a separate location. All the recordings will furthermore be erased once this thesis has been approved, along with the transcripts and the hard copy containing the informant’s names and email address.
4. Findings

The main objective of this chapter is to present the findings from the data in a clear and comprehensible manner. The quantity of the data collected for this thesis was extensive and some of the data were of no value for the research purpose and have therefore been left out. The data that was kept, was evaluated, and found to have a value in explaining the research question that is the focus of this thesis. The first part of the chapter presents the actual tourism impacts as identified by the informants. The second part presents how they perceived crowding and the third takes a closer look at the informants' reported experience of subjective well-being.

4.1 Actual Tourism Impacts

The actual tourism impacts perceived by the participants were numerous and were both positive and negative in nature. Many of the impacts were not directly related to crowding but affected the informants' perception of it. The participants did for instance identify degradation of nature as a negative environmental impact of tourism that was increasing as the number of
visitors increased. The informants, therefore, saw this effect as a result of crowding. In the following section, the actual impacts of tourism, as described by the informants, will be presented in more detail.

**4.1.1 Infrastructure and regulation**

The region where this research was conducted is scarcely populated, with small clusters of people living in small hamlets, mainly by the fjords along the coast. Most of the villages were established before there were any roads or mainland connections and the houses were, therefore, built very close to each other. Which has left little space for road building.

All of the participants in the study pointed out parking and traffic as a considerable challenge. With an increase in visitors, comes an increase in traffic, and as some of the informants pointed out, the road infrastructure in towns with less than 200 inhabitants is not built to handle 500+ cars every day. Other infrastructure, such as showers and public toilets are also built in proportion to the local population and are not built to accommodate large numbers of visitors. The general lack of infrastructure was generally a concern for the informants and all of them had in one way or another been affected by situations involving either parking, bathroom facilities, or both.

One of the main concerns for all of the participants were access to parking, as stated by informant 10 (I 10): “parking is a great problem, the park their cars everywhere, even if its private property. And if you try to tell them, they get really upset”. A sentiment which is also expressed by I 1: “they park on both sides of the street and do not think about the fact that other cars need to get to and from”. With the general lack of parking in the area, many of the informants pointed to parking as one of the main sources of irritation caused by the tourists. Even the informants who identified themselves as being positively inclined towards tourists and tourism identified parking as a source of nuisance and negative attitudes. The interview
subjects that were most affected by the parking problem were the ones that were living closest to the starting point of popular hiking trails. I 12, for example, explained that this caused them to sometimes have problems with just existing their own driveway.

The lack of public restrooms was another cause for concern that affected the local population on multiple levels. As stated by I 1 “one restroom is not enough to cater to several hundred visitors”. I 10 mentions that the municipality provided porta-potties for the tourists during the summer season of 2019, which according to I11 this was good, although “two porta-potties is in no way sufficient to serve 20 to 30 000 visitors”. The challenge became so great that local business owners had to start charging visitors to use their restrooms and some of the informants even went as far as to invite tourists into their homes to use their bathroom and shower. Another side-effect of the lack of public restrooms that were frequently mentioned was the discovery of faecal matter along the most popular hiking trails.

The opinion among the informants seemed to be that there was a general lack of facilitation and regulation, both in regard to the infrastructure, but also in relation to other types of tourist facilities such as accommodation services and restaurants. I 4 and I 10 both expressed that they wanted the municipality and county to step up and produced guidelines and regulations to help the local communities handle the constantly increasing numbers of visitors arriving. While I 8 called for a market strategy that could bring benefit to the local business, as it was their opinion that currently, the visitors coming to the island generated little income for the local business owners. I 4 specified that if they are to handle the number of visitors, they need the responsible parties to both facilitate and regulate tourism. As I 12 stated: “regulated tourism is not a problem, it is the unregulated tourism that is problematic”. According to I 10, it ought to be regulated differently: “we are lost, and we need more involvement from the responsible parties”. According to I 9, the reason so many locals have
become agitated by tourism is not the arrival of the visitors in themself, it is the lack of preparation and facilitation that has led it to become a challenge.

### 4.1.2 Environmental impacts

The main reason tourists come to visit Senja is the nature, and according to the local residents, the evidence of that is very obvious. I 2 expressed concerns that the number of visitors was beginning to degenerate the nature on Senja. I 4 presented a similar concern, stating that they found nature to be degenerating through muddy trails and roads. This is supported by I 11 who say that just a few years ago there were hardly any trails in the mountains, while now the trails could be up to 50 meters wide. Furthermore, the flora around the beaches in Senja is delicate and easily destroyed, so according to I 4, they have had to place hindrances on the beaches to avoid tourists driving all the way down to the beach.

In addition to the negative effects on the local flora, I 5 express discontent with the amount of garbage left behind by the tourists. I 11 expressed that they felt that walking in the forest is not fun anymore due to the mounds of garbage everywhere left behind by tourists. I 12 explains that they used to think it was nice to walk in the mountains, fishing and lighting a fire, but that this was not the case anymore, “now you have to watch every step and that this has had a real impact on my life”.

According to several of the informants, finding faecal matter along the trails is a common occurrence, and I 9 reported having found bags of excrements next to garbage cans. Due to the lack of public restrooms, most of the informants have either experienced or heard about local people having found both excrements and toilet paper in nature, some had even observed tourists doing their business on the side of the trails and by the road. But, as I 3 and I 4 expressed more neutrally: “when you got to go, you got to go”. I 12 however, pointed to a
concern they felt was present among many of the locals – that this could be a direct health hazard to the local community. Especially that a small lake that provides drinking water for their whole village is being used for showering and swimming by the tourists. Even though there are signs by the lake which describe restrictions related to access and usage, this information is largely ignored by tourists.

The area where this study was conducted is popular among both locals’ residents and tourists. Some of the best-known mountains in the region are located in close proximity to the villages included in this study. Mountains like Segla, which has been promoted on tv-shows such as “71° Nord” and features in magazines and hiking guides is one of the main reasons for the increase in visitors. According to one of the informants, Senja is seen as the “little brother” of the popular Lofoten islands, but with less traffic, fewer visitors, and a rural untouched feeling that appeals to many. When asked about why they enjoyed living where they live I 2 said: “Segla is my cathedral” which illustrates the feelings expressed by several of the informants. Nature is an important reason why people choose to live on Senja, as well as the reason why so many visitors choose to come to these remote regions.
4.1.3 Economic impacts

There seems to be a consensus among most of the informants that most of the tourists that come to Senja are self-sufficient and due to the right to roam, many of the tourists save money by relying on infrastructure that is meant for the local population. Some tourists even trespass onto private property, which was exemplified by I 1, who explained that they on numerous occasions have had to ask tourists to leave when they have been charging their cars using private power outlets without asking for permission to do so. I 2 states that it is time to “put their foot down”, as having visitors living and parking for free is not giving anything back to the local community. I 5 supports this and suggests that a payment solution should be put in place for parking. I 8 has also had enough of freeloaders and want the local government to re-evaluate their marketing strategies to reduce both the number of backpackers who do not spend any money and tourists in campervans who bring everything, including toilet paper, with them when they come to Senja.

As a result of the increase in tourism, there has also been an increase in businesses catering to tourists. I 7 states that it is fun that local business owners can earn money off of the incoming tourists. I 9 described how they no longer had to work fulltime, as they could
earn money from offering accommodation to tourists. I9 also stated that they did not think there would be a local convenience store if it were not for the incoming tourists. Several of the informants were also involved in a new company that is working on providing parking for tourists in the future. Several of the informants were therefore set to acquire financial gains from the tourism growth in the future.

Local restaurants have had an increase in sales and that is mainly due to tourists according to I12 and I9. According to I8, tourism has generally improved the livelihood for anyone who has dared to venture into tourism-related businesses. Local convenience stores, restaurants, and bars in small villages are all made possible due to the increased number of visitors which has given them the necessary customer base. However, I8 and I2 thinks that this also benefits the local residents who, without tourism, would not have had access to these type of service offerings.

Figure 3: Economic impacts identified

4.1.4 Social impacts

When tourism increases in a region it can have diverse social impacts that can affect the local community. One of the impacts that were identified in this study is that the increase in tourism has resulted in a deficit of housing. The lack of housing for the local population, especially
the younger generation, is according to I 10 due to Airbnb and according to I 6, “rich city people that want a vacation home for themselves or as a rental unit for other tourists”. I 10 explains that it is understandable that people choose to cater to tourists since the income generated is higher than by having long term contracts. They buy these houses to earn money. I 12 states that if the village turns into a “tourist town” with few local residents, that could be the straw that breaks the camel’s back and be the reason they choose to move away.

Another factor that influences the social situation in the local communities is the attitudes displayed by the visitors. As I 12 states, “we have an outside shelter that the entire town uses for celebrations and gatherings, now we cannot use it for anything. Well actually we can use it, but as things are now, we do not want to use it.” I 12 go on to explain that the area has been occupied by tourists utilizing the shelter and going as far as putting up makeshift walls and by doing so shut the local population out of their social and recreational gathering spot. I 2 mentions another similar place in town that has been taken over by tourists and made unavailable for the locals.

The impact on the society brought on by tourism is felt by the locals whether they are positively or negatively inclined towards tourism in general. A few of the informants explained that they during the summer months regularly experienced tourists knocking on their door ask for water or to use their bathroom and shower. Other informants were upset that their trashcans kept getting filled up by tourists, leaving no space for their own trash. As a result of all of this, I 1 said that they thought there should be a stronger police presence in the area “I think there are many shady things happening, or rather, I know there are shady things happening”

I 2 explained that the tourist gaze quite surprised them, the way tourists view Senja’s nature. Seeing things that the locals cannot see anymore - the amazement with which they
take in the views is new to the locals and is something some of the informants expressed that they strive to achieve too. Activities that were unheard of for the locals for instance according to I 1: ice climbing, are now viewed in a different light. Other ways of experiencing and enjoying their surroundings were discovered because of tourism. I 7 explained that while being out in a boat with a group of tourists, he was surprised to see them sitting there taking pictures of something that he perceived to be mundane. The tourists were in awe by the waves crashing towards the shore. I 2 also expressed that they enjoyed the feeling of getting to share something that, to them, is completely ordinary, but by the tourists is seen as something new and exciting.

I 9 states that due to the increase in tourism, certain areas that were hard to reach before are now facilitated and can easily be reached by both tourists and locals. I 7 states that the local population voluntarily worked on facilitating roads and trails to encourage more people to get out in nature. I 3 think that there might be some negative consequences of increased usage of nature, although they ask what is more important? The public health benefits of being out and about in nature or leaving nature untouched? I 7 explains that they on numerous occasions have had conversations with tourists that wanted to stay longer due to Senja’s nature, the light, and the insane mountains.

I 2 describes the feeling of the region as free and liberated., while I 7 describes at length how they “think it is fun, seeing new faces all the time, it is almost like living in a small city during the summer”. I 11 expresses the same sentiment, stating that they think it is positive that there are people around all the time, night, or day there are always people out during the summer. Tourists are according to I 7 almost always easy to talk to, and they contribute to liven up the place.
4.2 Perceived Crowding

There is consensus among the participants that the increase in tourism in the region has been exponential during the last five years and that the increase seems to have no end. I 8 states that five years ago they had 1000 visitors in a year. Now they have somewhere between 30 and 40 000 visitors a year. I 10 follows this up by saying that they can hardly believe it, in 2010 there were 300 people hiking Segla, the year after 600 and it has kept doubling. Almost every informant used the word “explosive” when describing the tourism growth in the region. I 2 states that it has been wild with over 35 000 visitors, while I 1 was surprised to find several hundred people on the beach when they got back from work. I 3 further stated that they were really starting to notice the increase in traffic caused by tourists, which was also supported by I 5 who stated that they have never been so many cars and people in town as now. The locals are starting to notice that the shoulder season is shorter and that they are moving away from a summer destination towards a year-round destination. I 2 states that they think there have been more people arriving recently and that now the tourists are arriving in winter as well.
Without exception, every single informant explained that they had experienced an increase in the number of visitors in the last few years. Four of the informants found the number of visitors to be of an acceptable level, while eight perceived the number of visitors to be too high. All of the interview subjects indicated that the increase in tourism had affected their recreational opportunities. I 3 states that they chose to not hike their usual trail during the summer season due to the increased amount of people using the same trail. A few of the participants mentioned that due to the increase in tourism they had been displaced from their usual recreational areas. These areas were mainly facilitated by and for the local population, although they felt like they could not access the area during high season. I 2 shared a story of a time they were on their way to use one of the recreational areas facilitated by the locals, but when they arrived the entire area was flooded with tourists. This upset them greatly and made them feel both sad and displaced from an area which they considered to be “theirs”.

There was a discrepancy between the informant’s initial response when asked about their opinion of tourism in general, which was generally a positive attitude. However, when pressed on the effects of tourism on their life, their responses were more focused on the negative impacts. And when asked to define their pain limit not a single participant found the number of visitors to be too low. In Table 3, an overview of the opinions and perceptions of all of the informants have been assembled to get a better understanding of how they feel.
4.3 Subjective Well-Being

Well-being is used as an umbrella term that contains all the implications and effects that have a direct effect on the life quality, life satisfaction, and subjective well-being of the informants.

In the interview guide, the participants quality of life through utilization of the PANAS scale was identified from self-reported tourism impacts. And through the SWLS scale the informants’ satisfaction with life were measured separately from the effects of tourism. This was done to be able to imply if tourism impacts had any effects on their overall sense of life satisfaction. By evaluating these two frameworks together it was possible to imply how and if the participants feel that the impacts of tourism and specifically the impacts of crowding have any effect on their overall subjective well-being.

4.3.1 Quality of life positive and negative affect

To be able to identify positive and negative affect, the PANAS scale developed by Watson et al. (1988) was utilized. And the informants mentioned, identified, or displayed 11 out of the 20 emotions on the scale (see Table 4).
Table 4: PANAS scale indicators*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive affect</th>
<th>Negative affect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interested</td>
<td>Proud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excited</td>
<td>Alert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Inspired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Determined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiastic</td>
<td>Attentive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* States marked in green were identified in this study

On the positive affect side, four out of the ten states were present, namely interested, proud, active, and inspired. Quite a few of the informants mentioned pride as an impact of tourism. Their feeling of pride increased as a result of many tourists wanting to come to what they perceived to be “their” place. Some of the informants got “interested” as a result, even though it was not necessarily because of the tourists and increased tourism, they displayed an interest in the consequences of tourism, so to consider this interest as a positive affect would perhaps be wrong in this situation. Two of the interview subjects, I 7 and I 8, reported feeling “inspired” and the urge to create something from the possibilities opening up as a result of the tourists and their needs, so this could definitely be considered a positive affect at least for these two informants.

There were more negative affect indicators than positive identified, mentioned, or displayed during the interview, as seven out of ten indicators of negative affect were mentioned. Distressed, upset, scared, irritable, ashamed, nervous, hostile, and afraid were all identified in this study. Distressed, upset, scared, and afraid are related and some of the informants expressed fear for the tourists' safety. Distressed about the situation due to the large volume of tourists and afraid for their children and their own safety because of the tourists. Most of the informants displayed irritation due to traffic as a consequence of crowding. However, irritation about the situation in general with waste, pollution, and
degradation of nature was also quite common. That some were ashamed was a surprise. But the shame did not come from the tourists, but rather came from the feeling that Senja could not offer tourist sufficient facilities (such as restrooms). Hostility was only expressed by I 12 who said: “Sometimes we feel like throwing rocks at the tourists even though we would never do it”.

Figure 5: Identified PANAS scale indicators.

While measuring the positive and negative affect, the negative affect is more frequently identified. According to Watson et al. (1988), this finding can indicate a low positive affect score and a high negative affect score which would place the participants collectively in a low energy, low pleasure, high stress, contempt situation.

4.3.2 Life satisfaction

To measure life satisfaction, Diener and Pavot’s (2009) Satisfaction with life scale was utilized. The statements in the scale were translated to open-ended interview questions.
Table 5: SWLS statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction with life scale statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The conditions of my life are excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am satisfied with my life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be able to use these statements as questions in connection to tourism, they were slightly modified to fit the purpose of this study, while trying to keep the original meaning behind each sentence. For instance, where Diener and Pavot (2009) asked the participants to rate the statement: “If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.” From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The participants were asked; “if they could change anything in your life, what would it be and why?”

All twelve informants, without exception, stated that they were pleased with their life and 5 out of 12 would not change a single thing. Ten stated that they were happy and the remaining two did not want to use the word happy but said they would describe themselves as satisfied.
These findings indicate that life satisfaction among the informants was high and although some negative indicators were identified, the number of positive indicators outnumbered the number of negative indicators.

4.3.3 Life satisfaction and life quality

While measuring each of the informants’ life satisfaction and life quality everyone without exception answered that they were both satisfied with their life and the quality of their life. The reasons they gave for this were often quite similar. The informants were asked to describe themselves, which seemed like a hard question, as it was the question, they used the longest time to answer. But without exception, they described themselves using positive adjectives such as positive, extroverted, calm, loyal, etc.

The participants were asked if they were satisfied with the life they were living, and many mentioned having a job they were happy with, being close to family and friends, having a roof over their heads as reasons for why they were satisfied. When they were asked if they were happy, all of them answered that they were. But when asked why they were happy, the
reason: “I do not have anything to complain about” was frequently cited. I 3 stated: “I don’t feel I have to say I am happy, but I do feel happy”. To find out if the participants had any regrets, they were asked what they would change if they could change anything in their life. Five said they would not change anything, while five said that they regretted their educational choices. I 2 states that everything in life is part of a learning curve, the good and the bad, and that is what makes us who we are today. I 9 would spend more time with their family and I 5 said they should probably not have gotten rid of their car.

Figure 7: Overview of changes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you could change something what would it be?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ Personal development/education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Material goods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ No Changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Family and friends</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.4 Psychological impacts

In this study, tourism was found to have psychological impacts on the local residents. The two most identified psychological responses mentioned during the interviews was fear and frustration. Traffic was the most commonly mentioned reason for both of these psychological responses. I 12 stated that the amount of traffic is huge, with probably over 20 000 visitors during the summer season, which they describe as a problem for both kids and animals, I 10 follow up by stating that they never let their grandchildren play on the streets anymore, “it is too dangerous”. I 9 is worried that dangerous situations could occur due to the parking situation. I 1 believed that the tourist had forgotten what they were thought in traffic school and that their bad driving leads to fear and uncertainty among the locals. Traffic does not only
PERCEIVED CROWDING AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

bring fear it also is seen as a nuisance. I 4 described the feeling of driving behind a camper van doing 30km/h in the 80-zone on roads that are too narrow to pass as: “infuriating”. I 11 shares this opinion and explains that it is not just the lack of skills that is enraging, it is also the lack of knowledge. Drivers in the middle of the road so immersed in the nature around them that they forget that they are not alone on the road, which often leads to dangerous situations. As I 11 states: “the reason there are few accidents is not to be credited the tourists driving skills, you can thank the locals for that”.

Another trend that some of the participants identified was the increase in drones, this trend both contributed to irritation and fear. I 9 explains that this trend is causing some reactions in the local community. Locals have experienced drones flying outside their windows. I 9 describes this as an infringement on their privacy and feels uncomfortable, as they cannot know what they are filming. I 9 however, also states that drone-flying in the mountains is acceptable, they just do not want them outside their living room windows in the morning before people have had the chance to get dressed.

The lack of experience with nature among the tourists is another cause of fear and worry among the participants. I 9 states that the lack of experience contributes to many dangerous situations in the mountains. I 12 elaborates that due to inadequate equipment there has been an increase in damages and that is understandable when tourist decides to hike mountains in sneakers. I 6 is afraid for the tourists as they are often not properly dressed for the rough terrain, and I 10 have had to discourage tourists from hiking due to their lack of equipment and proper clothing. I 11 thinks that at the moment, what is going on is hazardous, “many of the tourists have neither the right shoes nor the right clothing to make the trip and they do not have the knowledge to stay in the safe areas while hiking”. I 2 and I 10 both describe situations were they have had to call for a helicopter due to accidents.
Due to the pandemic going on during the data collection, one of the contributors to fear among the participants was the spread of viruses such as the Covid-19.

4.3.5 Attitude

In general, most of the informants expressed positive attitudes towards tourism at the beginning of the interview. As I1 stated: “basically I think that it is nice that they want to come here and see”. I5 also stated that they have always been positive to tourism and find the fact that people want to visit their island, exciting. However, when they started to open up about the perceived consequences of tourism, their responses were of a more negative nature. I1, for instance, initially stated they though tourism was nice and then later explained that they often found the tourists to be rude and invading their personal space. At the end of the interview, they suggested more police presence due to the perception of criminal activities. This seemed to be the case in most of the interviews. An initial positive attitude to tourism followed by a negative attitude towards tourists. Most of the informants also identified more negative than positive impacts during their interviews. Only two out of the 12 informants had both a positive attitude to tourism as well as tourists.

Table 6: Overview of the informants’ attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I1</th>
<th>I2</th>
<th>I3</th>
<th>I4</th>
<th>I5</th>
<th>I6</th>
<th>I7</th>
<th>I8</th>
<th>I9</th>
<th>I10</th>
<th>I11</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Negative</td>
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<td>Positive</td>
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<td>Negative</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Identified</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.6 Influence

How tourism influenced the participants varied. When asked if they are influenced by tourism in their daily life, many of them replied that they were not. However, when asked if they were influenced in general, most of the informants responded that they were, even those who said no, later in the interview described impacts or opportunities created by tourism that had some effect on their life either directly or indirectly. I 2 said that tourism did not have much influence on her life but went on to explain that the coffee shop she really liked would probably not have opened if it had not been for tourism.

The findings of this study showed that tourism influences the informants in many different ways, some influencing factors are just observed, such as people walking along the street, while others were experienced directly, such as being parked in in their driveway. Tourism can, as some of the informants described, give a feeling of pride of the area they are from, but on the other end of the scale, it can also lead to a feeling of displacement when they feel the tourists take over the places and areas they are so proud to share.
5.0 Discussion

In this chapter, the empirical findings presented in chapter four are analysed and discussed against the theoretical literature reviewed in chapter two. This discussion lays the foundation for answering the research questions in chapter seven.

5.1 Carrying Capacity

After the data was collected and coded, the need for a model to help structure and explain the findings arose. The model of carrying capacity was deemed most suitable and was therefore integrated into the research. The World Tourism Organization (1998) defines carrying capacity as the maximum number of visitors a given destination or territory can bear without compromising its environmental, economic, and socio-cultural characteristics. In the following sections, carrying capacity will be discussed in relation to economic, environmental, and social carrying capacity.

5.1.1 Environmental carrying capacity

According to Kim et al. (2013), one of the positive impacts of tourism is that it can contribute to preservation. This seems to be the case also in this study, as I 4 stated that due to tourism and National Tourist Route Senja, measures to preserve nature had been put in place, including fences to protect the vulnerable nature and plants around popular recreational areas. I 1 on the other hand was not very impressed by the preservation efforts. In their view, the measures that have been put in place takes up space that previously, for centuries, had been used for infrastructure and buildings, but were now off-limits for village-development. The question that should be asked is whether the preservation in the area is an impact of tourism, or a response to the to the growth in number of visitors and a safeguard against tourism.
inflicted degradation of nature. It could be implied that it is a response to over-tourism and as the measures are put in place the destination itself becomes even more attractive as a result of these measures.

Degradation of nature is according to Yu et al. (2011) a recognized negative impact of tourism, and degradation of nature was also an impact frequently mentioned by the informants. The wear and tear on nature in the area were an obvious impact and according to I4, what was previously pristine mountain roads and trails were now muddy and worn-down paths. I11 stated that: “just a few years ago the trails were few and far between and sometimes no trails could be found at all”. Now, however, I11 described: “trails more than 50 meters wide”. The effect on the natural environment has according to Bimonte and Punzo (2011) to be irreversible and more or less permanent for the physical carrying capacity to be reached.

All the informants reported an increase in traffic as an impact of tourism, but the pollution identified in this study came from the behaviour of the tourists while they were in the area rather than from their means of transportation. Bastias-Perez and Var (1995) and Yu et al. (2011) both recognizes pollution as an important impact of tourism on the environment. I12 points out that pollution is a concern among the locals, especially excrements, that can represent a health hazard to the local residents. Situations, where tourists bathed, washed, and relieved themselves in the village’s drinking water, were observed by I12 on numerous occasions.

Bimonte et al. (2019) mention waste as an impact of tourism and according to most of the informants, this impacted them in different ways, from finding waste in their recreational areas, as well as tourists filling up their private waste bins. Garbage is not the only thing left
behind as waste. Due to the lack of public restrooms, even feces and toilet-paper is left behind both in nature and next to trashcans in town.

Although it can be argued that the impacts of these inflictions on nature is reversible and not considered at carrying capacity (Bimonte & Punzo, 2011), the immediate effect on the residents that experience these inflictions are a part of the reason why their attitude towards tourists are at the negative end of the spectrum. And several informants mentioned that the tourists' negative impact on nature had a negative impact on them too.

5.1.2 Economic carrying capacity

In the literature, the economic impacts of tourism have generally been considered to be positive (Ap, 1992; Bastias-Perez and Var, 1995; Kim et al., 2013; Yu, Charles Chancellor, & Tian Cole, 2011). For the informants in this study, however, the economic impacts were not exclusively positive. While they do identify some positive economical impacts, most of the informants did not recognize any substantial growth in the local economy as a result of tourism. Generally, the informants seemed to think that most of the tourists arriving at Senja are self-sufficient, bringing with them most of what they need in their campervans and campers rather than buying it in Norway. Since tourism on Senja is largely unorganized, and not many activities and products are offered, it could also simply be that the tourists have nowhere else to spend their money than in the local bar, restaurant, and convenience store.

Ap, (1990) and Kim et al. (2013) mention improved standard of living as a possible positive outcome of tourism. However, due to the low economic impact of tourism, only one informant reported experiencing an improved standard of living as a consequence of tourism. Three of the participants did, however, have direct economic gains from tourism, but did not feel that this had improved their standard of living. While they did not directly report an
improvement to their standard of living, they did report that they were comfortable with their standard of living, which could suggest that there is an unidentified improvement or at the very least, a lack of decline.

The demand for and creation of new jobs (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Yu et al., 2011) due to growing visitors numbers is a recognized impact of tourism. This impact is also recognized by several of the informants in this study. Three of the informants work directly or indirectly in the tourism industry as a result of the demand for new tourism products. Establishments such as bars, restaurants, convenience stores, parking facilities, and public restrooms are all in demand due to increased tourism. Many of the informants did, however, point out that a lot of the work that is done as a result of the increase in tourism, is unpaid voluntary work in connection to facilitating nature, cleaning up after the tourists, and even cleaning bathrooms. The tolerance level, in terms of carrying capacity, might be higher for those having something to gain economically from tourism and lower for those doing volunteer work.

Ap (1990) explains that one of the negative impacts of tourism is increased housing prices, and thus an increased cost of living for the local inhabitants (Ap, 1992; Bimonte et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2011). The increased cost of housing was identified by some of the informants as an impact of tourism on Senja, especially related to Airbnb and the sharing economy. Thus, opinion was however not shared by all the informants, more than one of the informants rented out some sort of accommodation to supplement their income. Most of the informants stated that the prices of houses for sale had not been raised above the market standard.

The economic impacts of tourism in the region were identified by the informants, but its impact was reported to be minor. The fact that the impacts were perceived to be too small,
considering the costs of tourism, lead to irritability among many of the informants. As I 9 stated: “we are beyond the point where it’s nice to see tourists, now it’s time they leave some money”.

5.1.3 Social carrying capacity

Both positive and negative social impacts can occur as a consequence of tourism. Traffic congestion is one such consequence that has been identified in the literature previously (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kim et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2011). This is also the tourism impact that is most frequently cited by the informants. It is a source of irritation, frustration, and even fear. As I 10 stated: “parking is a big issue since the visitors just seem to leave their cars parked wherever they please”, and if the locals try to guide or correct them, the visitors often respond negatively. I 10 also explained that they never let their children play outside on the roads like they used to because of the rise in traffic as a consequence of tourism. The traffic congestion is something that worries the local population not just when they are in the villages and towns but also frustrates them when they are out on the road. As I 4 said: “when driving over Senja in the summertime it is hard for even the calmest, most collected person to not get a bit hot-headed”.

Andereck & Nyaupane (2011), Bimonte et al. (2019), Gursoy & Rutherford (2004); Kim et al. (2013), and Yu et al. (2011) have all identified crowding as a negative social impact of tourism. Popp (2012) however, does not see all crowding as negative and argues that it is important to differentiate between bad crowding, which leads to stress, and good crowding that could improve the experience and lead to enjoyable situations. All twelve interview subjects reported that they had noticed a strong growth in the number of visitors and eight identified crowding as an issue. Out of these eight, only two of the informants identified
PERCEIVED CROWDING AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

the effect as only negative. Most of the informants supported Popps (2012) statement that crowding can have both positive and negative effects. I2 reported experiencing both happiness and distressed as a result of crowding. When they were using the local recreational areas they described the amount of tourists they met there as absolutely overwhelming, yet the idea that so many people wanted to experience “their” area left them with a feeling of pride.

Bastias-Perez & Var (1995) mentions pressure on infrastructure as another impact of tourism. The informants identified two distinct pressures on the local infrastructure: parking and washrooms. The lack of adequate infrastructures leaving immense pressure on the limited existing infrastructure, and was an issue that occupied many of the informants. They were happy that they at least had something to offer but were upset about not being able to offer the necessary infrastructure. As a result of the parking situation, a group of local residents had started a company to provide and build infrastructure for this very purpose. Some of the informants were a part of that group.

Andereck & Nyaupane (2011) and Kim et al. (2013) suggests that a potential positive impact of tourism is greater access to recreational facilities for the local inhabitants. This was not however something the informants reported experiencing, instead their experience was rather that their access to recreational facilities had become restricted. I11 stated that due to the large quantities of cars arriving, they had been forced to open up the local football field and use it as a parking area to get cars out of the streets. The few parking spaces that were intended for the local population near recreational facilities, were occupied by visitors without exception throughout the summer. Greater access to recreational facilities might be a positive impact in more densely populated areas where there is a larger offering of recreational facilities. However, in small villages, it would seem that there are often few if any such facilities.
Ap (1992) identifies better shopping as another potential positive social impact of tourism. This is probably also an impact that is more relevant in more densely populated areas than the areas included in this thesis. Small villages with less than 200 local inhabitants usually do not offer many shopping opportunities. Some of the informants did, however, recognize the importance of tourism in keeping the local convenience stores running, as well as influencing how long the local bars and restaurants could keep open. Ap's (1992) identification of better shopping as an impact of tourism, therefore, seem to be a partial fit in this context, in that tourism seemed to facilitate better options for grocery shopping, meals, and drinks.

According to Fennel and Weaver (2005), negative socio-cultural impacts can be reduced if the local inhabitants have a substantial amount of influence over the development and are the main recipients of economic income from tourism. In this study, no external influences on either development or economy were identified by the local inhabitants. The informants do however identify a lack of planning and a strategy for further development. They express frustration over the local government who they feel does not acknowledge their voice in the work with both infrastructure and development. I 8 is requests a tourism strategy to reduce the amount of “freeloading visitors” and increase the amount of paying visitors. There are some positive social consequences identified, but some of the informants also identified and explain the feeling of displacement (Arnberger & Brandenburg, 2007) both in social as well as in recreational situations. The identified negative social implications by far, outweigh the positive consequences according to the informants.
5.2 Perceived Crowding

According Neuts, Nijkamp and Van Leeuwen (2012) crowding is a stressful situation due to spatial limitations on social activities. They go on to explain that crowding is a consequence of psychological carrying capacity. They claim that crowding is a psychological construct, and as such connects both a specific place and the personality of the individual perceiving crowding. Crowding is a social impact of tourism, and according to Shelby and Heberline (1984), the impacts of crowding and the evaluation of crowding should be separated to establish a group standard for evaluating perceived crowding. The evaluation done by the informants is based on their own perception and how they experience the impacts of tourism including crowding. Therefore, it is important to see how they experience the different social, economic, and physical impacts, to be able to establish if there are any positive or negative effects of tourism.

According to Jin, Hu, & Kavan (2016), perceived crowding in tourism is an individual’s subjective evaluation of human density in specific environments. All the interview subjects recognized a growth in the number of visitors, and eight of the twelve informants described the density of tourists as too high. The reasoning behind their conclusion varied, yet a general feeling amongst the participants who perceived crowding was that their villages could not accommodate the needs of the amount of tourists that were currently arriving. Due to the size of the villages they were being displaced from their usual recreational areas as well as their arenas for socializing and therefore shifted their previous positive sentiment towards tourists into a negative one.

The informants did perceive crowding as a consequence of tourism and acknowledge that it has an effect on their life. Several of them stated that they found enjoyment in having visitors around since it led to a feeling of pride, while others did not get any enjoyment from
the large number of arriving visitors, they only found their presence to be disturbing. According to the definition of Jen et al. (2016), the perception of crowding arises when the use of social and environmental resources surpasses the carrying capacity of a destination. After discussing the perceived environmental, economic, and environmental carrying capacity of the villages on Senja, it can be suggested that the psychological, socially accepted carrying capacity of tourists has been reached according to several of the informants. Even though Popp (2012) recommends a differentiation between “good” and “bad” crowding, the negative impact of crowding is more frequently reported by the participants in this study, and the number of negative consequences far outweigh the positive impacts.

If crowding is to be measured according to Shelby and Heberline (1984), the subjective evaluation of the participants under a specific set of conditions are sufficient to create a standard, and as eight out of the 12 informants experienced perceived crowding and did so under similar circumstances, the standard is set. Most of the informants also pointed out that the summer of 2019 was when the number of visitors started to become too much, which could imply that the socially acceptable carrying capacity in terms of visitors, for at least some of the informants, lay somewhere between the visitor numbers of 2018 and 2019 numbers. This could imply that to reduce the negative impacts of and perception of crowding some regulation has to be done. However, due to the Covid-19 situation, this will most likely not be the case for the 2020 summer season.

5.3 Subjective Well-Being

Nawijn and Mitas (2012) state that subjective well-being from a purely theoretical point of view is a picture of how individuals feel in general as well as an index of whether the individual’s needs are fulfilled. By utilizing the definition given by Diener, Oishi and Lucas
Subjective well-being is the sum of the degree to which we get what we want out of life and how well we feel the majority of the time - the affective and cognitive components (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012). The subjective well-being is a combination of positive and negative affect (Watson et al., 1988) and the informants’ satisfaction with life (Diener & Pavot, 2009).

The informants experienced more negative than positive impacts of tourism, but nonetheless generally reported high life satisfaction. This finding can indicate that even though tourism had an impact in terms of both positive and negative affect, it does not influence the participants to such an extent that it reduces their life satisfaction.

The impacts identified by the data collection suggests that it is the hedonic level of subjective well-being that is affected (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012), the instant gratification is not fulfilled due to negative impact. The eudaemonic levels of SWB also referred to as...
psychological well-being (PWB) (Sanjuán, 2011) is not that affected, since the implications of tourism according to the informants are experienced only in the short-term.

Björk and Sthapit (2017) state that SWB entails residents’ overall sense of well-being illustrated through life satisfaction, positive and negative affect, and overall happiness. If subjective well-being is defined based on how the informants’ experience these concepts, it could be assumed that their subjective well-being, is seen collectively as high on the eudaemonic level, but low on the hedonic level. This assumption is based on the previously identified high level of negative affect and the high level of life satisfaction.

5.4 Perceived Crowding and Subjective Well-Being

Previous research on the impacts of tourism on quality of life has generally focused on residents’ attitudes towards community impacts and environmental challenges (Helgadóttir et al., 2019). And as Riddestaat, Croes and Nijkamp (2016) point out, the relationship between tourism development and life quality among residents is both mutual and complicated.

Researchers have identified several factors related to crowding that can influence the quality of life of the local residents, such as the number of visitors, number of local inhabitants, type of visitors, and the social exchange relations between visitors and residents (Carmichael, 2006). The participants in this study did consider the number of visitors to be too high for the infrastructure they presently had. I 9 also stated that the visitors who came to their area was the “wrong” type and called for a greater focus on marketing towards a different type of visitor segment. The entire social exchange relationship between the local inhabitants and the visitors were skewed. According to the informants, the visitors took, and the residents gave without receiving anything in return, which was a source of irritation among the informants.
Previous research on the perceived impacts of tourism has separated between economic, cultural, and physical impacts of tourism, as well as the impact of tourism on overall quality of life (Nawijn and Mitas, 2012). All four impact-categories were identified by the informants in this study, but they saw it as a result of over-tourism and not of tourism in general. According to Bimonte et al. (2019), residents tend to see tourism as a dual phenomenon as they recognize the economic value of it but might also feel that it negatively impacts their life. This was also the case for the informants in this study, as they recognized the economic gains local merchants and providers had gained from tourism, most of the informants did not themselves gain any direct economic benefits from tourism. These economic benefits were not, however, enough to outweigh the negative effects tourism was having on their life, as the findings suggested that the local residents’ quality of life was, both directly and indirectly, negatively affected by perceived crowding caused by tourism. That perceived crowding can have such an effect on the local residents' quality of life has also been recognized in previous research by Andereck and Nyaupane (2011).

Ap & Crompton (1993), Bastias-Perez and Var (1995), Dissart and Deller (2000), and Mccool and Martin (1994) all identify crowding as injurious to life satisfaction. A notion that is supported by the findings of this study, as the informants identified more negative feelings resulting from tourism impacts than positive ones. Crowding can lead to the feeling of alienation and displacement (Arnberger & Brandenburg, 2007; Tosun, 2002b; Williams & Lawson, 2001), which was also found to be the case in this study, as several of the informants alluded to feelings of displacement, as they described how they felt they were being displaced from some of their social arenas as well as from their local recreational areas. This left them with a feeling of loss and of anger, and while some of their irritation was directed towards the tourists, the anger they felt was largely directed towards the local government and tourism developers.
Previous research has shown that the local residents' perception of the impacts of tourism can affect their individual sense of well-being (Uysal et al., 2016), and according to Kim et al. (2013), it can also affect their life satisfaction. The informants did recognize that, during the most hectic summer months, tourism did affect their subjective well-being, but even if they also identified some effect on their life satisfaction it only had limited long term affect. The effect instead seemed to be mainly short term, and usually only arose whenever the concept of tourism was discussed or when situations arose because of tourism. As I 8 pointed out: “it can go months between every time I think about it, However, when something does happen, the reactions are mainly negative”

The effects of perceived crowding on the inhabitant’s subjective well-being are according to the informants both long and short term. The main short-term effects are a feeling of displacement, fear, irritation, and loss. The long-term effect is not as prominent and mainly appear whenever the subject of tourism is brought up and mainly as a reaction to the perceived impacts of tourism.
6.0 Conclusion, Implications, Limitations and Recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusion of this thesis based on the discussion presented in the previous chapter. It also contains an overview of the implications of the findings for tourism developers as well as for the local government, followed a discussion of the strengths weaknesses and limitations of the study, lastly a few recommendations for directions for future research will be presented.

6.1 Conclusion

The main objective of this thesis was to determine: “How does perceived crowding affect the subjective well-being of local inhabitants in small communities on Senja?” To be able to answer this research question, three sub-questions were created.

The first sub-question is: “To what extent is there a perception of crowding among the local inhabitants on Senja?” When measuring crowding as defined by (Jin et al., 2016, p. 2) “The perception of crowding arises when the utilization of social and environmental resources surpasses the carrying capacity of a destination.”

According to Shelby and Heberline (1984, p. 441) “The approach is based on a social psychological technique for establishing group standards, and it involves measuring individual preferences under a specified set of conditions. If users agree to some extent, a usable standard emerges”. Eight out of 12 informants agreed on the standard which stated that a perception of crowding was understood. Meaning that it seems although local residents do in general feel that there is over-tourism on Senja, and that crowding is an issue. This brings us to the second sub-question of this thesis: “What are the consequences of perceived crowding?”

Crowding perceived by the locals was one, among many other identified consequences and implications of tourism. The consequences that could be directly linked to the concept crowding are displacement (Arnberger & Brandenburg, 2007), a reduction in quality and quantity of recreational opportunities for locals as well as a reduction in both quality and quantity of social interactions for the locals (Bimonte et al., 2019). There are other identified consequences that could be understood as consequences of crowding. However, they are recognized as separate implications of tourism and therefore not a consequence of crowding.

The third and final sub-question explored in this thesis, which could only be investigated once the prior two sub-questions had been explored, was: “Do these consequences affect the subjective well-being of the local inhabitants?”

The consequences that were identified were indeed found to impact the local residents’ subjective well-being. Although their emotional response both to displacement and reduction in social and recreational opportunities did have a minor impact on the informants and lead to feelings of irritability, anger, frustration, and loss. Even though these feelings were identified and recognized by some of the participants, they did not seem to have any long-term effect on the informants’ quality of life (Diener & Pavot, 2009). Most of the informants scored high on negative affect and low on positive affect (Watson et al., 1988), and high on life satisfaction (Diener & Pavot, 2009). This could indicate that perceived crowding did have negative effects on the hedonic aspects of the inhabitants’ subjective well-being and no noticeable effect on the inhabitants’ eudaemonic aspects of their subjective well-being (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012). The low level of long-term effects could indicate that the identified effects are just a minor part of what affects the inhabitants in total. Nawjin and Mitas (2012) credited tourism impacts with only 9% of the total variance in local resident’s life satisfaction.
In regard to the main research question posed in this study: *How does perceived crowding affect the subjective well-being of local inhabitants in small communities on Senja?*” It would appear as though the local inhabitants do perceive crowding, and it has some, even though minor, effect on their well-being through decreasing some opportunities of hedonic aspects of their subjective well-being.

### 6.2 Implications

The implications of the findings give indications to tourism developers as to how they can reduce the negative effects of crowding and also give insight into how crowding affects the subjective well-being of the local inhabitants. Findings also have some implications for future research.

The findings of this thesis could potentially be used as a tool for tourism developers to help them identify what effects to eliminate as to not supersede the socially acceptable carrying capacity of the local community. The findings suggest that tourism developers on Senja need to better accommodate the growing number of tourists by providing facilities such as bathrooms and washrooms. Infrastructure such as parking facilities needs to be sufficient before any further growth is tolerated and there is a clear need for more concise development plans. This could decrease the impact of tourism and as long as the impact of tourism is reduced the socially acceptable carrying capacity will not be superseded. If the carrying capacity is not superseded the acceptance of tourism in the local community will be of a more positive nature (Canavan, 2014).

The implications for local residents are that they now have a better understanding of how crowding affects their subjective well-being and they can use this knowledge to work towards reducing the effects of crowding for themselves.
6.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, and Limitations

In this study, saturation was reached already by interview number ten, and the two additional interviews only confirmed what had already been stated in the previous interviews.

The area where the research was conducted was chosen after evaluating visitor numbers and by talking to the local tourist organization, as Senja was found to have a visitor to residents ratio that would enable me to explore both perceived crowding and identify the effects this perceived crowding could have on the local residents. Data for this study was collected only through in-depth interviews, but it can be argued that measuring life quality and satisfaction with life only through interviews is insufficient due to the quantitative nature of the utilized measuring instruments (PANAS and SWLS). A mixed-method approach would perhaps have given more conclusive results in regards to the informants’ satisfaction with life and life quality, but since the main objective of this study was to identify how perceived crowding affects subjective well-being, and not to what degree the subjective well-being was affected, changing statements into qualitative research questions was considered to be a good way to identify effect perceived by the informants.

To increase the strengths of the research other theories for measuring for instance quality of life could have been utilized, for example, the bottom-up spillover theory (Kim et al., 2013) but this theory includes all factors of life, to measure quality of life, which was not the objective of this research.

While there is a plethora of research on the topic of “quality of life” and “tourism impacts”, there has been little research on the “effects of tourism impacts on an individual’s quality of life”. And a grounded theory approach (Neuman, 2014a) could, therefore, have been used to answer my research question. If I was to redo the research, I probably would have used a grounded theory approach instead, as this would enable me to develop theories
that explain the relationships between the key concepts instead of trying to use theories that are meant for a much broader analysis.

Due to the large quantity of data collected for this thesis, using software such as NVivo could have been used to structure the data more effectively. However, the final outcome would probably not have been any different as my lack of experience with the software could have led to misinterpretations. And while I did seek to analyse the data as objectively as possible, qualitative research can, according to Leedy (2012), never be truly objective since the researcher is the tool for both analysing and interpreting the data.

I believe the findings generated through this thesis is relevant for the populations in areas that experience increased crowding, not only to identify the effects, also as an instrument for local government to decrease the impacts of over-tourism. The findings of this study cannot, however, necessarily be generalized to other areas, since it measures a specific population in an area with specific challenges caused by tourism. The findings might however give some indications as to how crowding affects the quality of life and subjective well-being of local residents in other rural areas with similar challenges, but the findings of this study cannot be directly transferred to other contexts.

One of the largest weaknesses in the study is the language since the data collection was conducted in Norwegian and in a local Northern-Norwegian dialect, which might have resulted in some of the finer nuances having been lost in the translation into English. However, since I have the same dialect as the informants, I am fairly certain that the nuances presented were identified and acknowledged. Another language barrier was that certain words simply do not have a corresponding word in English, which meant that I had to translate them as closely as possible and according to the underlying meaning presented by the informants. If
there were words that I was uncertain of, I discussed possible meanings and translations with colleagues to verify my understanding.

All the steps that were followed in this study correspond with Neuma´s (2014b) prescribed qualitative research procedures. And due to the precautions, that have been taken to increase the reliability and validity of the research, the research is as strong as it could be within the previously described limitations caused by the Covid-19 situation.

6.4 Future Research

In future research, it would be interesting to explore whether there is a discrepancy between how local residents perceive crowding and crowding as it is defined in the WTO (1998) definition. Is there a difference between perception and reality? And if so, how great is the difference?

Future research could also include using a grounded theory approach to create theory better suited to measure the actual effects of crowding and to what degree these affect subjective well-being.

These are just a few ideas of future research that has appeared while conducting this research. The recommended future research would complement and explain how the identified impacts on subjective well-being range in importance.
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8.0 Appendices

Appendix 1:

Interview Guide in Norwegian

Intervjuguide.

Jeg vil først informere om at samtalen blir tatt opp og brukt i forbindelse med oppgaven

- Gå igjennom samtykkeskjema og få en bekreftelse.
- Presenter meg selv.

Innledning


Hjelpespørsmål (HS) stilles ved behov

Spørsmål:

Om deg?

1. Navn?
2. Alder?
3. Bosted?
4. Yrke/yrkesstatus?
5. Utdanning?

Turismen generelt

6. Hva synes du om turismen i regionen?
   
   *HS: Er det tilstrekkelig, er det for mye eller burde det være mer?*
   
   *HS: Hvorfor?*

7. Hva synes du om utviklingen av turismen i regionen?
   
   *HS: Er det tilstrekkelig, er det for mye eller burde det være mer?*
   
   *HS: Hvorfor?*

8. I hvilken grad føler du det har vært en endring i antall besøkende?
   
   *HS: Hva er grunnen til det?*
9. Hvilke resultat eller konsekvenser oppfatter du at turismen har hatt i regionen?
   *HS: Positive eller negative?*

10. Har din oppfattelse av resultat eller konsekvenser endret seg i løpet av det siste året?
    *HS: Hvordan?*
    *HS: Positivt eller negativt?*

**Oppfattet livskvalitet**

11. Hvordan vil du beskrive deg selv som person?
    *HS: Positive ord og negative ord?*

12. Hvordan liker du å bo i dette området?
    *HS: Hva er de viktigste grunnene til at du trives/ikke trives*
    *HS: Hvorfor?*

13. Føler du deg generelt lykkelig?
    *HS: Hvorfor?*
    *HS: Hvorfor ikke?*

14. Vil du anbefale andre til å flytte hit?
    *HS: Hvorfor?*
    *HS: Hvorfor ikke?*

15. Er du generelt fornøyd med det livet du lever?
    *HS: Hvorfor?*
    *HS: Hvorfor ikke?*
    *HS: Hvor mye føler du at bostedet ditt har med det å gjøre?*

16. Om du fikk muligheten til å endre noe i livet, hva ville det vært?
    *HS: Hvorfor?*

**Overturisme og livskvalitet?**

17. Føler du at turisme har noen innvirkning på ditt liv?
    *HS: Hvordan?*
    *HS: Positivt eller negativt?*

18. Føler du at turisme har en innvirkning på ditt liv daglig?
HS: Hvordan?

HS: Positivt eller negativt?

19. Du nevnte ______ som en konsekvens av turisme, hvordan føler du at det har en innvirkning på ditt liv?

HS: Hvordan?

HS: Positivt eller negativt?

(repeter for hver konsekvens identifisert)

20. Er det noen andre konsekvenser du har kommet på under intervjuet som du føler har en innvirkning på ditt liv?

HS: Hvordan?

HS: Positivt eller negativt?

21. Hvor mange besøkende føler du er grensa før det er for mange?

Til slutt:

Har du noe du vil tilføye eller utdype?
Appendix 2:

Information and Letter of consent in Norwegian

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet
”Overturismens påvirkning av innbyggeres livskvalitet i små bygder på Senja.”?

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å kartlegge de mulige påvirkningene overturisme har på innbyggerne i små bygder på Senja. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltagelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål

Formålet med dette studiet er å kartlegge de mulige påvirkningene overturisme har på innbyggerne i små bygder på Senja. Studiet er en del av masterstudie i International Hospitality Management på Norsk Hotellhøgskole ved Universitetet i Stavanger.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Prosjektet er godkjent av og blir veiledet av Øystein Jensen, professor ved det samfunnsvitenskapelige fakultet, Norsk Hotellhøgskole, Universitetet i Stavanger.

Hvorfor får du spørsmå om å delta?

Bygda du bor i ble valgt på grunn av sin plassering i et område med turisme i sterk vekst, samt tilknytning til nasjonal turistvei Senja.

Innbygertall er innhentet fra siste valgkretsregistrering i tidligere Berg og Lenvik Kommune, nå Senja kommune.

Oversikt over innbyggere er satt sammen ved manuell uthenting av navn og telefon nr basert på gårds og bruks nr, hos opplysningstjenesten 1881.no.

Du får forespørselen om å delta fordi du ble tilfeldig trukket fra en liste over alle innbyggerne i din bygd.
**Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?**

Deltakelse av studie innebærer å delta på et intervju, intervjuet varer i ca. 60 minutter.

Ingen personlige eller sensitive opplysninger ut over: navn, alder, utdanning og lokal tilhørighet vil bli hentet inn.

Data vil bli registrert i form av lydopptak på offline mp3 opptaker, samt håndskrevne notater.

**Det er frivillig å delta**


**Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger**

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

De eneste som vil ha tilgang på dataene er student og veileder.

Personopplysningene vil bli anonymisert, navn vil erstattes med kode som lagres i eget dokument adskilt fra øvrig data, all data lagres på ekstern offline server.

På grunn av det lave folketallet i regionen studiet utføres, er det en mulighet for at deltakeren kan gjenkjennes i publikasjonen, men all data som blir brukt til publikasjonen vil bli anonymisert.

Personlig informasjon vil ikke publiseres i noe format.

**Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?**


**Dine rettigheter**

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:
- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- å få slettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet), og
- å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

**Hva gir oss rett til å Behandle personopplysninger om deg?**
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Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra Norsk Hotellhøgskole ved Universitetet i Stavanger har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

**Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?**
Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:
- Norsk Hotellhøgskole ved
  - Prosjektansvarlig og veileder Øystein Jensen, professor ved det samfunnsvitenskapelige fakultet, Norsk hotellhøgskole, Universitetet i Stavanger. E-post: oystein.jensen@uis.no Tlf: 51833718 / 92054595]
  - Eller forskningsassistent Sten Harald Norund Hansson på e-post: sh.hansson@stud.uis.no telefon: 40018380
- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS, på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen
Prosjektansvarlig Student
Øystein Jensen Sten Harald Norund Hansson

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**Samtykkeerklæring**

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet Overturismens påvirkning av innbyggernes livskvalitet i små bygder på Senja, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- [ ] å delta på intervju

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet, ca. september 2020

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)
Appendix 3:

**NSD Evaluation and Approval in Norwegian**

NSD sin vurdering

**Prosjekttittel**

Overturismens påvirkning av innbyggeres livskvalitet i små bygder på Senja.

**Referansenummer**

211877

**Registrert**

05.02.2020 av Sten Harald Norund Hansson - sh.hansson@stud.uis.no

**Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon**

Universitetet i Stavanger / Det samfunnsvitenskapelige fakultet / Norsk hotellhøgskole

**Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)**

Øystein Jensen, oystein.jensen@uis.no, tlf: 51833718

**Type prosjekt**

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

**Kontaktinformasjon, student**

Sten Harald Norund Hansson, sh.hansson@stud.uis.no, tlf: 40018381

**Prosjektperiode**

01.01.2020 - 30.09.2020
Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg den 06.02.2020, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan starte. MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

https://nsd.no/personvernombud/meld_prosjekt/meld_endringer.html Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres. TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 30.09.2020. LOVLIG GRUNNLAG Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake. Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a. PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om: - lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen - formålbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke behandles til nye, uforenlige formål - dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet - lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20). NSD vurderer at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13. Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned. FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensiialitet (art. 5.1 f) og sikkerhet (art. 32). For å forikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og/eller rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon. OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for
å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet. Lykke til med prosjektet! Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)