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Destination Competitiveness and Resident Well-being

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Destination Competitiveness and Resident Well-being

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Highlights

- The paper presents arguments for integrating resident wellbeing outcomes into destination competitiveness analysis.
- Despite increasing acknowledgment that resident well-being is the primary objective of achieving destination competitiveness, the established frameworks do not accord it a central role in performance assessment.
- A well-being index is proposed for this purpose. Constructing this index will necessitate the development of new indicators and new measures to assess destination competitiveness in addition to the standard destination performance indicators.
- Several important challenges for tourism stakeholders are identified.
- Expected outcomes of the discussion include greater clarity regarding the treatment of resident ‘well-being’ in destination competitiveness analysis, and a new agenda for tourism research.

Destination Competitiveness and Resident Well-being

Abstract

The paper presents arguments for integrating resident wellbeing outcomes into destination competitiveness analysis. Despite increasing acknowledgment that resident well-being is the primary objective of achieving destination competitiveness, the established frameworks do not accord it a central role in performance assessment. A well-being index is proposed for this purpose. Constructing this index will necessitate the development of new indicators and new measures to assess destination competitiveness in addition to the standard destination performance indicators. Several important challenges for tourism stakeholders are identified. Expected outcomes of the discussion include a more comprehensive view of the sources and goals of destination competitiveness, greater clarity regarding the treatment of resident 'well-being' in destination competitiveness analysis, and the implications of this for tourism stakeholders.

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1. Introduction

The concept of destination competitiveness and its determinants continues to receive substantial attention in the tourism research literature. While different definitions abound (de Paula Aguiar-Barbosa, Chim-Miki, and Kozak, 2021), what researchers have offered by way of model development is best characterised as an identification of features that support the *capacity* or *ability* of a destination to deliver certain objectives deemed to be worthwhile, rather than a precise definition of the concept (Abreu-Novais, Ruhanen and Arcodia, 2016). As Croes and Semrad (2018) have argued, these objectives relate to the abilities to deploy resources, provide memorable experiences to tourists, deliver superior performance and enhance quality of life. Consequently, destination competitiveness is generally associated with features such as the attractiveness of a destination, the experiences offered, its ability to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those needs considered important by tourists, and its contribution to resident socio-economic prosperity currently and over the longer term (Dwyer and Kim, 2003; Crouch and Ritchie, 2012).

Determining appropriate strategies to achieve destination competitiveness is a central feature of tourism policy debate (Croes and Kubickova, 2013) and the motivation for model development. Each of the established frameworks (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Dwyer and Kim, 2003; Heath, 2003; Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto 2005;WEF, 2020) attempts to provide a strategic tool identifying the drivers of destination competitiveness, to make cross-country comparisons of destination performance, to identify the challenges that require policy attention in tourism industry development, and to benchmark destination progress in improving competitiveness. These frameworks also aspire to generate multi-stakeholder dialogue on formulating appropriate policies and action to identify-key strengths and weaknesses of their destination, the opportunities for tourism development arising from destination comparative and competitive advantage, and the weaknesses and challenges that must be overcome (WEF, 2020).

Across the social sciences, there is increased recognition that human wellbeing is an essential element of sustainable development and that economic measures do not embrace important aspects of quality of life, social progress, human development or happiness (Arrow, Dasgupta, Goulder, Mumford & Oleson, 2012; Dwyer, 2018; Iriarte and Musikanski, 2019). On an emerging view, broadly known as the *Beyond GDP* approach (Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi, 2009a,b; Radermachier, 2015; Stiglitz, Fitoussi and Durand, 2018a) measures of social progress are being developed that shift the emphasis from a 'production-oriented' measurement system to one focused on the well-being of current and future generations. Although there is as yet no universally accepted definition of well-being, researchers agree that it includes the full range of factors that make life worth living- a multi-dimensional concept that incorporates notions of material comforts, individual freedom, opportunities available to people, their flourishings and their capabilities (McGregor, 2014; Durand, 2015; Smith and Diekmann, 2017; Tov, 2018). Acknowledging the failures of economic indicators to adequately represent important aspects of peoples' lives advocates of the *Beyond GDP* approach are developing well-being metrics alongside economic, social and environmental indicators to capture changes in resident 'quality of life' associated with industry development to better assess and design policy to support sustainable development (Adler and Seligman, 2016; Kanbur, Patel and Stiglitz, 2018).

The *Beyond GDP* approach and its associated well-being measures has substantial implications for strategies to achieve destination competitiveness and sustainability. While several tourism researchers have argued recently that the long term success, sustainability and competitiveness of tourism depends on tourism's ability to to improve the well-being of all stakeholders (Crouch and Ritchie, 2012; Boley and Perdue, 2012; Croes and Kubickova, 2013; Uysal, Sirgy,Woo and Kim, 2016; Kubickova, Croes and Rivera, 2017; Woo,Uysal and Sirgy, 2018; Croes, Ridderstaat and Shapoval, 2020; Berbekova, Uysal and Assaf, 2021), well-being measures still do not play a serious role in the major destination competiveness models developed to date. If one accepts that the 'competitiveness' of the host destination must embody tourism's potential to enhance resident well-being, it becomes clear that the established frameworks do not provide the basis for tourism policy that they may otherwise be expected to have. To the extent that well-being considerations are ignored in these models, their policy significance is indeed quite limited.

This paper will argue that resident well-being outcomes must be better integrated into destination competitiveness analysis. It proposes development of a well-being index or 'lens' that acts to convert destination performance based on standard measures into well-being outcomes for destination residents. These well-being outcomes must relate both to current and future generations of residents if the destination development path is to be sustainable. Expected outcomes from this strategy include a more comprehensive view of the sources of destination competitiveness, greater clarity regarding the treatment of resident 'well-being' in destination competitiveness analysis, and the action implications for all tourism stakeholders.

The structure of the paper is as follows. Section two provides an overview of the indicators of destination competitiveness that are identified in the established frameworks developed by tourism researchers. Section three explores the nature of well-being and offers several reasons as to why tourism research has failed to seriously address issues that are important for destination competitiveness assessment. Important types of resident wellbeing indicators are identified that are receiving growing attention from public and nongovernmental organisations globally. A well-being framework is presented that can be employed by tourism researchers engaged in destination competitiveness research and its advantages are identified.

Section four applies this framework as a well-being lens to destination competiveness research, demonstrating how well-being considerations can be embedded into the indicator sets used to assess destination competitiveness. Section five discusses some important implications of the recommended approach and the associated challenges facing tourism stakeholders. Meeting these challenges will necessitate new concepts and new measures to support destination competitiveness research. It is concluded that more detailed research needs to be undertaken both at a conceptual and empirical level to integrate well-being measures into destination competitiveness studies.

2. Destination Competitiveness and Well-being

The frameworks to assess destination competitiveness differ in structure as well as the preferred indicators (Abreu-Novais et al, 2016; Hartwell, Fyall, Willis, Page, Ladkin, Hemingway, 2018). Key performance indicators used to assess destination competitiveness include outcomes such as tourism numbers and expenditure (domestic and international), change in destination market share, tourism contribution to GDP, value added and employment in total and per capita, and tourist satisfaction (Croes and Kubickova, 2013; Hanafiah and Zulkifly, 2019; WEF, 2020; Berbekova et al, 2021; León-Gómez, Ruiz-Palomo, Fernández-Gámez and García-Revilla, 2021). The established frameworks, also employ a substantial number of both quantitative and qualitative measures which are taken to support destination performance. Commonly accepted indicators relate to the quantities and qualities of attributes with tourism drawing power such as *endowed resources* (natural, social and cultural/heritage), *created resources* (accommodation, restaurants, shopping facilities, entertainment areas, built heritage, special events), *supporting or enabling factors* (general and tourism related infrastructure, information and communications technologies, transport links, quality of service, friendliness of host population, government support for tourism development, market ties, health and hygience, availability of finance and venture capital), *destination management strategies* (destination marketing management, positioning/branding, destination policy, planning and development, crisis management, rules and regulations, business strategies, human resource development, environmental management), *demand conditions*, including destination awareness/image and price competitiveness, and *situational conditions* that exist at any given time in both the operating and global environments (location, safety/security and carrying capacity) (Dwyer and Kim, 2003; Heath, 2003; Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto 2005; Crouch, 2011; WEF, 2020).

Not surprisingly, given the range of features associated with destination competitiveness, a large number of indicators have been developed by researchers and practitioners, both generic and specific to particular destinations. There is no universal set of destination competitiveness indicators applicable to all destinations at all times. The Dwyer and Kim (2003) model lists 83 indicators while Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto (2005) and Chens, Sok & Sok (2008), identify 54 and 111 indicators respectively. Crouch (2011) investigated the relative importance of 36 attributes of destination competitiveness, based on the model developed by Ritchie and Crouch (2003), while Sánchez, and López, (2015) and Hanafiah and Zulkifly (2019) applied 31 and 41 indicators in their respective studies. The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) comprises 90 individual indicators, distributed among 14 different pillars (WEF, 2020). The same 90 indicators are used in Fernández, Azevedo, Martín and Martín (2020). Application of a ranking system in meeting identified indicators enables comparison of the competitiveness of different destinations. All ranking

systems require weighting schemes that require value judgements to be made concerning which objectives of tourism development are most valued by stakeholders.

While tourism researchers in general are devoting more attention to the links between tourism development and resident well-being (Uysal et al, 2016;Woo et al, 2018; Uysal and Sirgy, 2019; Santos-Júnior, Almeida-García, Morgado and Mendes-Filho, 2020; Berbekova et al, 2021), with some recent exceptions (Boley and Perdue,2012; Crouch and Ritchie, 2012; Croes and Kubickova, 2013; Croes, Ridderstaat and Shapoval, 2020; Chin and Hampton, 2020), studies of destination competitiveness are noteworthy for their lack of attention to the well-being outcomes of tourism expansion.

The question now arises: what type of framework can provide the requisite theoretical basis for measures of well-being essential to assessing destination competiveness? In the next section a suitable framework will be proposed, following some further comment on the nature of well-being.

3. A proposed well-being lens

A substantial body of research to construct measures of human well-being exists across many disciplines (Musikanski, 2015; Stiglitz et al, 2018b; Diener and Biswas-Diener, 2019; Helliwell, Layard, Sachs and De Neve, 2020; Tov, 2018; Fuchs, Schlipphak, Treib, Long and Lederer, 2020; Santos-Junior, 2020). In parallel, the importance of such measures to assess industrial development is increasingly being recognised by national governments, including the UK and New Zealand, that are developing tools for integrating resident well-being into their strategic objectives and agenda- setting, policy analysis and budgetary processes (Exton and Shinwell, 2018; Smith, 2018; Durand and Exton, 2019).

While some tourism researchers have emphasised the importance of resident wellbeing to destination competitiveness (Boley and Perdue, 2012; Crouch and Ritchie, 2012), until recently resident well-being or quality of life outcomes have been typically addressed as ‘add-ons’, with little or no concern to provide a theoretical basis for well-being indicator development or for integrating them into the established destination competitiveness frameworks.

A well-being index that can be employed to determine resident well-being outcomes in destination competitiveness analysis can comprise indicators selected or ‘cherrypicked’ from diverse sources in the research literature, including tourism impact studies (Boley and Perdue, 2012; Santos-Junior, 2020; Berbekova et al, 2021), or can be based on an already developed well-being framework. Prominent examples of established well-being frameworks that could serve this purpose include the Human Development Index (Neumayer, 2012), the Happy Planet Index (New Economics Foundation, 2016), the Genuine Progress Indicator (Kubiszewski, Costanza, Franco, Lawn, Talberth, Jackson and Aylmer, 2013), Gross National Happiness (Verma, 2017), Planet Happiness (Iriarte and Musikanski,2019), the *Better Life Initiative* (Durand, 2015, OECD, 2020) and the World Happiness Report (Helliwell et al, 2020). Some researchers have attempted to integrate quality of life indicators based on the Human Development Index (HDI) into the destination competitiveness construct (Croes and Kubickova,2013; Croes, Ridderstaat and Shapoval, 2020). More recently, Chin and Hampton (2020) investigated the link between destination competitiveness and resident perceptions using indicators of social welfare from the Happy Planet and Gross National Happiness indexes. However, while reliance on an established well-being framework is appropriate, the indexes employed by these researchers, are each too narrow in scope, and

thus incapable of providing the wide range of well-being variables associated with destination competitiveness.

Of the established well-being frameworks, the *Better Life Initiative* provides a sound, comprehensive, and relevant theoretical foundation for destination competitiveness study. (Durand, 2015; OECD, 2020). Developed by prominent researchers, including Economics Nobel Prize winners, and with widespread support from policy makers in the OECD, industry operators and researchers worldwide, *the Better Life* framework is, arguably, the most detailed conceptual framework for understanding and measuring resident societal progress, and informing policy efforts to enhance well-being outcomes (Durand, 2015; Stiglitz et al, 2018a,b;OECD, 2020). The measures proposed under *Better Life* reflect an internationally accepted approach to measuring, in a reliable and consistent way, the various dimensions of well-being, with guidance for reporting on such measures. Treating wellbeing as a broad concept comprising elements of material well-being, quality of life and sustainability, *Better Life* incorporates the well-being dimensions emphasised in other approaches, while possessing several advantages over other frameworks in informing the composition of a well-being index to inform destination competitiveness study. The framework emphasizes the importance of both subjective and objective dimensions of resident well-being, recognising that personal experiences and assessments of life circumstances provide important information alongside more objective measures of these circumstances.(Durand, 2015). Importantly, the framework also distinguishes the drivers of current and future well-being, thus allowing sustainability considerations to be embedded into the study of destination competitiveness. The current wellbeing of destination residents is measured in terms of outcomes achieved 'here and now' in two broad domains: material living conditions (income, wealth, jobs and earnings, housing conditions), and quality of life, featuring eight determinants - subjective well-being, health status, work-life balance, education and skills, social connections, civic engagement and governance, environmental quality, and personal security (Durand, 2015; OECD, 2020). In contrast, future well-being depends on the evolution over time of the different stocks of capital that sustain the various dimensions of well-being, and in particular at how decisions taken today affect these stocks (Arrow et al, 2012; Dwyer, 2022). The systemic resources that underpin future well-being over time are expressed in terms of four types of capital: economic, human, social and natural (Kubiszewski,et al, 2013; OECD, 2020). A major advantage of *Better Life* is its recognition of capital stocks as a transmission mechanism for supporting inter-generational well-being, an essential condition for development to be sustainable.

The *Better Life* index represents a balanced view of well-being with a comprehensive dashboard of statistics that reflect what matters to people, covering a wide-range of features important to the 'good life'. The dashboard approach to indicator development has the advantage of presenting separate information for each well-being dimension, making it possible to identify the different sources of resident well-being outcomes associated with tourism development. Identifying over 80 indicators of current and future well-being, the *Better Life w*ell-being dashboard addresses current well-being outcomes, well-being inequalities and the resources and risks that underpin future well-being (Eurostat, 2019; OECD, 2020). The great advantage of the identified indicators is that the data collection can be standardized and thus readily compared within and across destinations. Selected according to international principles such as political significance of data, quality of data, comparability, and frequency of data collection, the *Better Life* framework is progressively moving towards the development of internationally comparable measures of well-being that can provide credibility and consistency to support well-being research and measurement

effort (Exton and Shinwell, 2018). At the same time, the framework is flexible enough to include additional dimensions and indicators of well-being as these are developed, including those that may be specifically tourism related. Given its conformance to Systems of National Accounts, and its ability to embrace additional indicators as these are developed, the *Better Life* framework seems particularly suitable for the grounding of wellbeing measures that tourism researchers and DMO can apply in destination competitiveness study.

The sources of current and future well-being identified in the *Better Life* framework are displayed in Table 1, with indicators grouped according to the different sources.

Table 1 Sources of resident well-being and selected indicators

Sources of well-being	Selected indicators of well-being
Current Well-being	
Income and Wealth. measures the economic resources that people can use to satisfy various human needs and wants and that protect against vulnerabilities and risks of various types.	household net adjusted disposable income per capita; household net wealth per household; income quantile ratio; relative income poverty; financial insecurity; economic strain; material deprivation; tourism impact on cost of living; tax revenues from tourism industry;subjective evaluation of material well-being
Jobs and earnings. The availability, wage levels and quality of jobs are each relevant for people's self esteem and well-being.	employment rate; average gross or hourly earnings of full-time workers; employment ratio for women;; gender wage gap; long hours in paid work; long-term unemployment rate; involuntary part-time employment; youth not in employment, education or training; labour market insecurity; job strain; job satisfaction
Housing. Quantity and quality of housing is central to ability to meet basic needs, an important determinant of health and well-being, family functionings, social connections and access to jobs and public services	housing affordability; housing cost overburden; satisfaction with housing; overcrowding rate; households without access to basic sanitation; households with internet access at home
Health status. Physical and mental health is important in itself for people's well-being and for performance of a range of personal and social activities that contribute to their well-being such as having good jobs and adequate income, being able to participate in community life, and to be educated	life expectancy; perceived health; gaps in life expectancy; self reported limitations in daily activities; individuals affected by HIV, malaria and other transmittable diseases; range and quality of accessible health facilities
Education and skills acquisition is both a basic need and an aspiration of all humans, as well as being instrumental to achieve other economic and non-economic well-being outcomes including higher earnings, better health status, more active participation in civic engagement	educational attainment; students' civic skills; lifelong learning; adult competencies; students with low skills; education expectancy; productivity
Work-life balance is important for people's well-being. time devoted to leisure, personal care, family life and to other non-work activities helps individuals remain healthy and productive	time off; long unpaid working hours; commuting time; satisfaction with time use; gender gap in hours worked
Social connections and networks provide material and emotional support in times of need, access to jobs and other opportunities. They also affect levels of trust within communities, democratic participation, crime reduction and health and well-being	time spent in social interactions with family and friends; satisfaction with social relationships; time spent volunteering; trust in others; extent of social support networks; satisfaction with interactions with tourists
Civic engagement and Governance gives residents a political voice in their society and to contribute to deliberations that shape the well-being of communities. Allows individuals to develop a sense of belonging and trust in others as well as enhancing accountability and effectiveness of public policy	voter turnout; participation in other types of political activities; formal and open consultation processes on rule making; trust in institutions; perceived corruption; community input into public policy; satisfaction with quality of public services
Environmental quality where people live and work is important in its own right and also matters for people's health and their ability to undertake activities involving access to environmental amenities and quality recreation	access to green spaces; exposure to outdoor air pollution; water quality; air quality; environmental burden of disease; overcrowding of public spaces due to tourism; satisfaction with quality of local environment, including tourism impact
Personal Security. A person's economic and physical security has both observed (objective) and perceived (subjective) dimensions of well-being associated with potential loss of life and property, stress, anxiety, feelings of discrimination and vulnerability.	deaths due to assault; crimes against persons and property; road deaths; perceived safety within local community; confidence in police force and legal system; workplace accident rate; gender gap in feeling safe at night; domestic violence; share of community lacking access to social protection; share of

	unemployed not receiving unemployment benefits; share of people of pension-age not receiving a pension
Subjective well-being refers to how people experience and evaluate their lives and specific domains and activities.	overall life satisfaction; feelings of well-being; eudemonia
Future well-being	
Economic (Produced) capital includes machines, buildings, tools and equipment, transportation and physical infrastructure and financial assets owned by households, businesses and government.	produced fixed assets; financial net worth of total economy; intellectual property assets; investment in R&D; gross fixed capital formation; multifactor productivity growth per capita; financial net worth of general government; household debt; banking sector leverage; net foreign liabilities; net public and private debt
Human capital refers to the knowledge, skills and other attributes that facilitate the creation of individual, social and economic well-being. It includes services supporting general well-being, as well as the physical, emotional and mental health of individuals.	educational attainment; premature mortality; measures of human capital stock; adequacy and efficiency of health and education systems; labour underutilisation rate
Social capital comprises social connections, attitudes, norms and formal rules or institutions that contribute to societal well-being through collaboration and cooperation between people and groups in society. includes trust built through repeated interactions between citizens	trust in others; institutional trust; trust in government discrimination of minorities; corruption; sense of unity and belonging; intercultural skills; pro-social norms; collaborative skills; volunteering through organisations; pro-social behaviour; government shareholder engagement; gender parity in politics
Natural capital includes natural assets (e.g. stocks of natural resources, freshwater, land cover, species biodiversity, soil quality) as well as ecosystems and their services (e.g. oceans, forests, waste assimilation, and atmosphere)	natural and semi natural land cover; intact forest landscapes; protected areas-terrestrial; protected areas-marine; material footprint; material footprint per capita municipal waste; change in land cover; freshwater abstractions; rate of deforestation/ reforestation; threatened species; GHG emissions from domestic production; carbon footprint; soil natural balance; water stress; renewable energy; material waste recycled or composted

Source: Source: Based on Stiglitz, Fitoussi and Durand, 2018b, Table A.2, panels A and B Eurostat, 2019; OECD, 2020).

Given a selection of well-being indicators such as listed in Table 1, there are two major ways in which resident well-being outcomes can be incorporated into assessment of destination competitiveness. One option is to select particular well-being indicators to sit alongside standard indicators of destination competiveness. On this strategy, a selection of well-being measures would be added to the indicators identified in the established destination competitiveness frameworks. This is consistent with recent arguments (Uysal and Sirgy, 2019; Berbekova et al, 2021) that certain well-being indicators (associated with health, education and safety) are essentially destination performance indicators. However, the recommendation from these researchers that these measures should be used as formal performance measures to *complement* key performance indicators is rejected here. Taking seriously the view that the ultimate goal of tourism development (and achievement of destination competitiveness) is social well-being, well-being measures cannot be regarded merely as *complementary* to standard performance measures; rather they must be regarded as the *overarching* measures of destination performance and competitiveness.

An alternative option is to develop a set of well-being indicators to act as a 'lens' or 'filter' through which tourism development outcomes must pass in order for their effects on well-being to be identified and measured. This latter strategy recognises that well-being is the ultimate objective of destination performance and competitiveness whereas regarding well-being indicators as additional performance indicators involves treating well-being indicators on a par with standard indicators. This second option is adopted herein, treating seriously the view that the primary policy objective of destination competitiveness is to enhance resident well-being.

The role of a well-being lens in determining resident well-being outcomes associated with tourism development is illustrated by Figure 1. Figure 1 makes no pretence to completeness. It is simply a stylistic devise representing a way to visualize important determinants of destination performance and to convert performance outcomes into outcomes for resident well-being. The lower four tiers of Figure 1 capture important structural elements of the established destination competitiveness frameworks, and are consistent with recent arguments that destination competitiveness does not depend soley on a destination's competitive advantage(s) but on the actual destination performance (Croes and Kubickova, 2013; Hanafiah, Hemdi and Ahmad,2016; Uysal and Sirgy, 2019). Figure 1 includes two higher levels hithero neglected in destination competitiveness study- a set of well-being indicators to convert tourism development impacts into resident well-being outcomes, as well as the ultimate goal- an overall assessment of the change in resident well-being. As noted, the well-being lens can comprise indicators'cherry picked' for purpose, or otherwise be based on an established well-being framework. The indicators listed in Table 1, or a selected core set of these, are good candidates for inclusion in any well-being lens.

It must also be acknowledged that resident well-being also affects a range of variables relevant to destination performance (Ridderstaat et al, 2016; Kubickova et al, 2017; Woo et al, 2018). Enhanced resident well-being affects productivity growth, entrepreneurship, competiveness, resident support for tourism development, and hospitality afforded to visitors (Santos-Junior et al, 2020;). The specific nature of the reciprocal relationship needs further research but space limitations preclude further discussion in this paper.

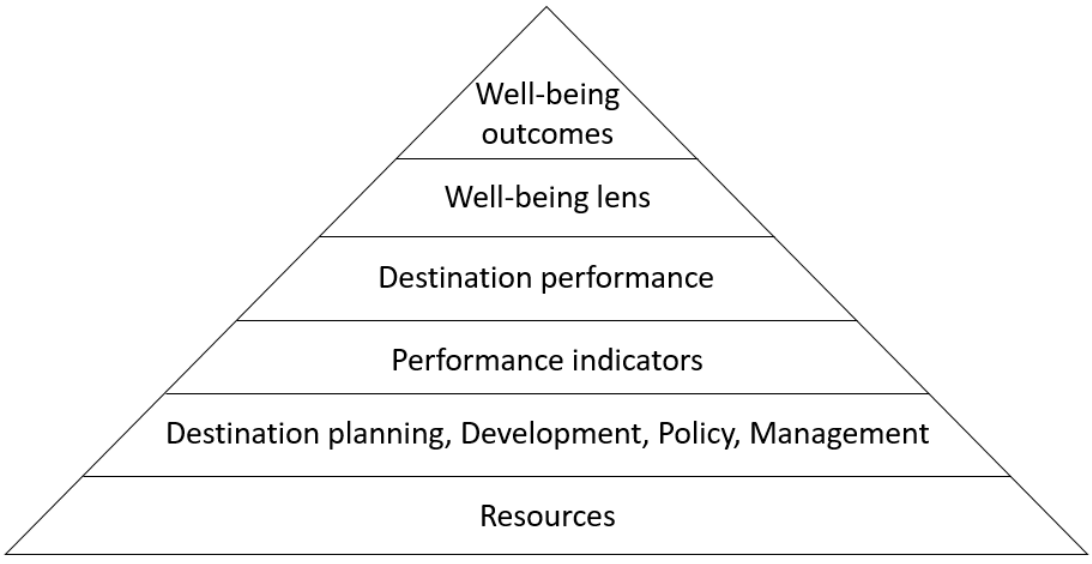

Figure 1 Converting destination performance outcomes to well-being outcomes using a well-being lens

The following section addresses how a well-being lens based on sources of well-being identified in the the *Better Life* initiative and an associated set of indicators, could help

tourism stakeholders understand the current and future well-being outcomes associated with tourism development and inform destination competitiveness analysis.

4. Applying the well-being lens in assessing destination competitiveness

Table 1 displays the sources and some key indicators of both current and future resident well-being, based primarily on the *Better Life* inititiative, but comprising some with obvious tourism relevance.

4.1 Sources and Indicators of Current Well-being

Material well-being

Human well-being positively correlates with income and wealth since persons with higher levels of each have greater opportunity to achieve what they desire by way of accessing material goods and services (Woo et al, 2018;De Neve and Sachs, 2020). Measures particularly relevant to resident material wellbeing include household net adjusted disposable income per capita, net financial wealth per household and economic strain, defined as the inability to afford the necessities of life (Eurostat, 2019; OECD, 2020). Relevent indicators listed in Table 1 also include tourism contribution to GDP, tourism impact on cost of living and tax revenues from tourism industry activity.Statistical agencies are progressively incorporating information about the distribution of income, consumption and wealth in the national accounts (Lustig, 2018; Stiglitz, Fitoussi and Durand, 2018b). Individual well-being is strongly influenced by one's income and wealth position in relation to a peer group (Lustig, 2018). Developments of such indicators will enable DMO to focus on inequalities, areas of deprivation and vulnerability, and/or on groups of tourism stakeholders whose outcomes are failing to keep pace with destination-wide developments, and thereby to play a critical role incorporating distributional issues into destination competitiveness analysis.

Employment creates opportunities for income, social relationships, enabling individuals to fulfil their ambitions, to develop skills and to build self-esteem (Cazes, Hijzen and Saint-Martin, 2015; Krekel, Ward and De Neve, 2019). Gender gaps and wages gaps in employment affect resident well-being. Labour market insecurity is stressful, with unemployment placing people at risk of social exclusion, poverty and deprivation (Eurostat, 2019). Job strain arises when the demands of the workplace exceed job resources available. Both situations are relevant to determining resident well-being outcomes of tourism development (OECD, 2020).

Quality of housing, including access to basic sanitary facilities, substantially affects well-being through its effects on health status, family functionings, social connections, access to jobs and public services (Helliwell et al, 2020). Higher quality housing is also generally associated with cleaner and safer locations The housing cost overburden, potentially affected by the size and pace of tourism development (Mikulić, Vizek, Stojčić, Payne, Časni and Barbić,2021), restricts consumption of other goods and services, An important determinant of destination competitiveness is the quality of tourism and hospitality worker accommodation with its potential to affect their job satisfaction and productivity (Cazes et al, 2015).

Table 1 recognises that in addition to objective measures, resident perceptions of material living conditions, job satisfaction, cost of living, overcrowding, housing quality and economic insecurities provide important subjective measures of material well-being (OECD, 2020).

Health status. Good health status enhances worker productivity, underpinning economic growth, enabling residents to become educated, gain employment, earn income, be creative, socialise with others, participate in community life and achieve greater life satisfaction (Llena-Nozal, Martin, and Murtin, 2019; Berbekova et al, 2021). Tourism and recreational facilities include those specifically devoted to health and well-being enhancement such as spa facilities, ecotourism and health resorts that can be accessed by residents as well as tourists. Indicators of resident well-being related to health status and destination competitiveness are listed in Table 1. These include access to quality health services, infant mortality rate; maternal mortality rate; life expectancy at birth and at 60; mental health; incidence of contraction of transmittable diseases,'deaths of despair', associated with suicide, alcohol, and drugs (Case and Deaton, 2017), and self-reported satisfaction with health status.

Education and skills acquisition directly links with job access, work satisfaction, higher productivity and economic prosperity, each of which drives individual and social well-being (Uysal et al, 2016; Llena-Nozal et al, 2019). Education also is indirectly associated with better health, greater equality of income and wealth, lower crime and delinquency rates, higher civic participation, tolerance between people, appreciation of cultural diversity, volunteering and charity giving, higher rates of self-reported happiness and deeper personal fulfilment (Putnam, 2001; Sachs, 2019; Helliwell, et al, 2020). An educated workforce is important for tourism business performance, as a more skilled workforce is more innovative and productive, improving business profitability and material living standards (Bowan and Dallam, 2020). Tourism and hospitality education has significant potential to promote values associated with well-being such as inclusiveness, pro-environmental behavior, tolerance, peacefulness and good citizenship (Moscardo et al, 2017; Bowan and Dallam, 2020). Table 1 lists indicators associated with education that tourism researchers could apply as components of a well-being lens.

Work- life balance. An appropriate balance between time devoted to work and that devoted to leisure, personal care, family life and to other non-work activities helps residents health status leading to greater productivity, improved personal well-being, happiness and life satisfaction (Helliwell et al, 2020).Work-life conflicts cause psychological distress and demotivation (Krekel et al, 2019). In tourism, employee work-life balance depends importantly dependent on the extent of gender equality and the availability of decent work (Cazes et al, 2015). Indicators of work-life balance that tourism researchers could include within the well-being index include average working hours and time periods required at work, time devoted to leisure and personal care, proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, workplace arrangements that provide various types of formal leave, flexibility of working hours, commuting time (De Neve, Krekel and Ward, 2018). Satisfaction with time use depends on whether people are achieving the balance of activities that they themselves consider desirable.

Social connections. Social connections can help foster development of cooperative norms, ethical business dealings, finding a decent job, reduction of inequalities, cultural identity of host communities, democratic participation, crime reduction, health status and sense of place and belonging (Algan, 2018). Social connections are valuable as sources of physical and mental well-being, providing material and emotional support to destination residents in times of stress (Diener and Biswas-Diener, 2019; De Neve and Sachs, 2020). Individuals who are strongly embedded in societal networks may be better able to cope with external crises (such as the COVID-19 pandemic that is currently having a devastating effect on world tourism). As listed in Table 1, indicators of the well-being outcomes from social connections include social network support (share of people with friends or relatives to count on in times of trouble); share of individuals relying on private networks to find jobs; time spent by residents in social interactions with family and friends and tourists; satisfaction with personal relationships; time spent volunteering, quality of public services associated with tourism; expansion of a tourism-related sharing economy; resident sense of belonging; extent of loneliness; effects of perceived overtourism (Algan, 2018; OECD, 2020; Berbekova et al, 2021).

Civic engagement and governance enables residents to influence policies that affect community well-being (Durand, 2015; Moscardo et al, 2017; Sachs, 2019). Participation in community life fosters a sense of belonging and trust in others as well as enhancing the accountability and the effectiveness of government institutions and public policy (Algan, 2018). Due to its cross-sectoral nature, tourism has the ability to strengthen private/public partnerships and engage multiple stakeholders to work together to achieve common goals. Resident engagement in tourism planning can foster place protective behaviours (Ramkissoon, 2020). Ideal indicators of civic engagement, as listed in Table 1, include the existence of formal and open consultation processes on rule making; trust in institutions, voter turnout, perceived corruption in government and business; and community input into decision making including tourism policy (Eurostat, 2019).

Environmental quality plays an important role in human emotional, cognitive, educational, aesthetic, biological and spiritual development (Kubiszewski et al. 2013). Various forms of tourism facilitate reconnections to nature, with positive well-being outcomes (Hanna, Wijesinghe, Paliatsos, Walker, Adams and Kimbu, 2019; Ramkissoon, 2020). The natural environment presents opportunities to undertake recreational and nature based activities to improve physical and mental health, stress reduction, the work-life balance, longevity, social connections and well-being (Sachs, 2019). In contrast, environmental degradation may impair human health through climate change, transformations in the carbon and water cycles and reduce biodiversity. As listed in Table 1, indicators of well-being associated with environmental quality would include resident access to green and recreational space, exposure to outdoor air pollution; water quality; air quality; risks to public health and mortality posed by epidemics and pandemics; perceptions of crowding through overtourism; and satisfaction with quality of local environment, including tourism impact.

Personal safety and security. A safe and secure environment is an important determinant of destination competitiveness supporting growth in tourism induced income and employment (Crouch and Ritchie, 2012). Risks of violence and/or crime, endanger residents'physical safety and limit daily activities and functionings. Even the subjective perception of threats associated with potential loss of life and property, stress, anxiety, feelings of vulnerability, can effectively undermine residents' well-being (Nilson, 2018). Economic insecurity and

inadequate safety nets make people less willing to take risks, impeding economic growth and entrepreneurship and affecting levels of well-being (Hacker, 2018). Occupational health and safety is an important determinant of well-being in the workplace (De Neve et al, 2019). Indicators that tourism researchers can use to assess tourism's contribution to personal safety and security include crimes against property and person, feelings of safety in the local community, confidence in law enforcement agencies including tourist police, tourism workplace occupational health and safety; effectiveness of social security system to support residents in times of need (Eurostat, 2019).

Subjective well-being. A strong association exists between self-reported measures of well-being and income per capita, worker productivity, health and educational status, job satisfaction, good social relationships, gender equality and social support (Diener et al, 2018; Stone and Krueger, 2018). Resident satisfaction with particular life domains, has also been shown to be affected by their perception of tourism impact (economic, social, environmental) on their own situation as well as the community at large (Rivera, Croes and Lee, 2016; Woo et al, 2018; Uysal and Sirgy, 2019). The tourism research effort generally has emphasised life evaluation (how satisfied one is with one's life) with less attention to emotion (happiness or depression) and eudemonia (meaning and purpose in one's life), both of which can be important in the assessment of destination competitiveness.

4.2 Sources and Indicators of Future Well-being

The indicators identified above reflect current material living conditions and quality of life and thus must be complemented by indicators of sustainability of well-being over time.. Table 1 lists the sources of future well-being as well as a selection of key stock and flow indicators.

Economic (produced) capital. Economic capital plays a crucial role in supporting material living standards (e.g. housing, jobs, wealth and incomes), in producing goods and services that people consume in pursuit of their well-being, and provision of general and tourism infrastructure. Tourism related economic capital includes transport and telecommunications networks, hotels, food and beverage establishments, airports, cruise terminals, shopping and entertainment facilities, as well as the financial capital that underpins economic and social interactions, necessary for tourism support services. A destination's variety and quality of economic capital affects its visitor attractiveness while presenting opportunities for increased resident well-being from use of facilities (Kline et al, 2019). Table 1 lists some stock, flow and risk related indicators of future well-being associated with destination stock of economic capital (Eurostat, 2019; OECD, 2020). Investment in R&D is essential to maintain a destination's stock of intellectual property assets including in tourism related sectors. Net financial position measures a destination's stores of financial wealth and sources of future revenue as well as exposure to overseas risk. Large household debt places a heavy burden on residents inside and outside of the tourism industry, both financially and psychologically. High leverage of the banking sector (ratio of financial assets to equities) increases the financial system's exposure to risk and cyclical downturns, limiting the funds available to potential tourism investors (Sheldon and Dwyer, 2010). The financial net worth of general government also implies risks to the financial and economic sustainability of the destination in the face of variable visitor numbers. Tourism research on destination competitiveness has tended to neglect such indicators despite their relevance to resident well-being outcomes.

Human Capital. The main type of investments in human capital relate to health and education (Angrist, Djankov, Goldberg and Patrinos, 2019). The health status of society directly impacts on resident social and leisure activities, as well as continuing workforce engagement in employment (Moscardo et al, 2017). Premature mortality, due to a range of medical conditions, communicable disease, lifestyle or fatal accidents, reduces the level of human capital available to the tourism industry. The education system, including tourism education, contributes to present and future well-being through development of knowledge, skills, multifactor productivity and ability to innovate (Diener et al, 2018; Helliwell, et al, 2020). By transmitting knowledge inter-generationally, education has a major impact on resident well-being and its sustainability over time. Educational attainment among young adults reflects the stock of knowledge, capacities and skills likely to be available to future generations including tourism industry workers, affecting destination competitiveness (Angrist et al 2019). The labour underutilisation rate captures the permanent effects of labour market slack in reducing the skills and learning opportunities available to residents. It is a risk related variable, providing a wider view of joblessness and unrealised potential compared to unemployment levels alone (Eurostat, 2019). Each type of indicator is relevant to assessment of destination competitiveness, but unfortunately have tended to be neglected by tourism researchers.

Social Capital comprises social networks as well as the institutional arrangments, shared values, norms and understandings they generate in a destination (Putnam, 2001; Algan, 2018). The build up of trust resulting from social interaction, fashions the norms and values essential to economic growth, social well-being, information sharing, health and longevity, quality education, balanced gender relations, workplace productivity, neighbourhood vitality, community attachment, sense of place, public safety, greater social resilience to natural hazards, formation of pro-social and pro-environmental attitudes, cooperation and civic engagement by way of formal rules, tolerance of diversity, mutual support, personal safety and security and effective governance (Moscardo et al., 2017; Ramkissoon,2020). Social capital in the tourism industry includes the various networks, associations, joint ventures, strategic alliances, festivals and special events, motivted by a community spirit of sharing, collaboration and volunteering and cultural pride that supports the good ‘hosting’ of visitors (Moscardo and Murphy, 2016; Zhang et al, 2021). Social capital is strongly influenced by the current degree of fairness in the distribution of resources- an inequitable distribution of resources can deteriorate trust, institutions and other aspects often associated with social capital and essential for a well-functioning and welfare generating society (Lustig, 2018; Alvaredo, Chancel, Piketty, Saez and Zucman, 2018). An ideal set of indicators of well-being outcomes associated with social capital would include those listed in Table 1.

Natural capital refers to the destination stock of renewable and non-renewable natural resources including ecosystems and their services supporting the biodiversity essential to physical and mental health, quality of life and survival of all species (Kubiszewski et al, 2013). Natural capital contributes to well-being when humans experience nature directly (wildlife viewing, rafting, camping) or when they derive pleasure from the knowledge that particular natural phenomena exist. Preserving environmental and natural resources and ecosystem integrity are essential bases for the sustainability of resident well-being (De Smedt, Giovannini and Radermacher, 2018). Natural capital in tourism has particular relevance as a visitor ‘pull’ factor while also essential to the preservation of other types of capital (economic, human and social) that generate well-being now and into the future (De Neve and Sachs, 2020). An ideal set of indicators relevant to natural capital and resident

well-being in the context of destination competitiveness would include the types of stock, flow, risk and resilience indicators of formidable threats related to natural resource depletion, climate change, diminished biological resources and biodiversity, and threats to various species of life, all of which pose formidable threats to intergenerational resident well-being as displayed in Table 1.

While the choice of indicators comprising the well-being index as listed in Table 1 represents a good approximation of some ideal concepts, many of the indicators of both current and future well-being listed in Table 1 must be taken as *experimental*, in that they have not yet met all agreed standards of acceptance and also *evolutionary*, as they are, in some cases, only proxies of broader underlying outcomes, for which ideal measures are currently lacking (Stiglitz et al, 2018b). Nevertheless, these measures provide important information about resident wellbeing. Composition of the index may be expected to change over time as better measures are developed, and as destination policy makers reach agreement on indicators that can better capture conditions in the various dimensions of people's lives (De Smedt et al, 2018).

5. Policy making using the well-being lens

The above discussion supports the use of indicators of well-being outcomes to act as a lens or filter to identify the effects of tourism development on resident well-being intra- and inter-generationally. Well-being measures, while not *replacing* conventional economic indicators, provide an opportunity to *enrich* policy discussions and to inform people's view of the conditions of the communities where they live (Boarini, Kolev and McGregor, 2014). Several challenges involved in applying the well-being lens may be identified. These challenges are of a conceptual, empirical, and policy nature with implications for future research on destination competitiveness.

Composition of the well-being lens

Residents across different destinations may well have a different view of what constitutes a 'good life', and the importance of different measures of well-being (and destination competitiveness) than do the 'experts' (Abreu-Novais et, al, 2016). In constructing the well-being lens, it is essential that tourism policy makers and destination managers identify the underlying values that residents wish to satisfy. Community based input provides the foundation for crafting a consensus-based vision as to the preferred well-being outcomes of alternative industry development options (Crouch and Ritchie, 2012). In this way, the well-being index can drive appropriate indicator selection in a strategic way, evolving over time according to changing circumstances and changes in resident values. While Uysal and Sirgy (2019) argue that each destination must choose its own set of indicators, in our view, unless a core set of indicators is included, comparisons of well-being between different destinations will not be possible. An ideal well-being lens will comprise both 'generic' indicators based on credible frameworks and 'contextual' indicators relating to particular resident values within the destination.

A complication is that different groups of residents, reflecting local community priorities, may perceive tourism impacts differently and as having different well-being outcomes, thereby attaching varying importance to different dimensions of objective and subjective wellbeing. Research is currently underway to assess well-being outcomes of tourism development associated with residents of different demographic background characteristics (such as occupation, nationality, and industry involvement), different levels of analysis (individual, family, community, and national) and the extent to which well-being outcomes are influenced by the existing level of industry development (Woo et al, 2018; Uysal and Sirgy, 2019).

Measuring well-being

The measurement of wellbeing is now underpinned by a significant body of empirical evidence (Helliwell et al, 2020).Well-being data in general come from many different sources (survey and non-survey) including labour force surveys (e.g. employment rate, NEET); income and wealth surveys (e.g. household income, wealth, financial insecurity), time use surveys (e.g. unpaid work, satisfaction with time use, social interactions); health interview surveys (e.g. health status, mental health); and other specialized surveys (e.g. discrimination, gender bias etc). Progress is being made in respect of refining survey and social media-based assessment of subjective wellbeing, as well as approaches to link subjective well- being with objective data (Adler and Seligman, 2016). The quality of data and the empirical robustness of well-being measures may be expected to progress over time as policy makers develop indicators that better capture conditions in the various dimensions of people's lives (Musikanski, Cloutier, Bejarano, Briggs,Colbert, Strasser and Russell, 2017); De Smedt et al, 2018; Sachs, 2019; Diener and Biswas-Diener, 2019). An advantage of indicators developed in consultation with statistical agencies worldwide is their consistency with destination Systems of National Accounts, SNA (Stiglitz et al,2018a,b), providing a credible basis for benchmarking and policy making (Boarini et al, 2014; Adler and Seligman, 2016). More research is needed on how to translate this data into locally appropriate indicators to measure wellbeing in different contexts.

With respect to the measurement of future well-being, assessing the sustainability of a given development path ideally requires monetary estimates for the types of capital stocks that contribute to resident well-being. The favoured approach to asset valuation is based on the concept that the value of an asset should equal the discounted stream of the expected net returns over its lifetime (Radermachier, 2015).To date, the metrics used to measure wealth stocks and flows in monetary terms have largely been restricted to assets that have an observed value, namely those traded in the marketplace. Since many of the stock and flow indicators are qualitative in nature and not traded within a market economy, lack of monetary data on many items of significance will continue with many items measured only in physical terms for some time (Fuchs et al, 2020). Further research effort is required to more clearly embed the different capitals into well-being assessment generally and for the sustainable development of tourism specifically.

Prioritising well-being outcomes

Applying a 'dashboard' measure of resident wellbeing in the form of a well-being lens, enables decision makers to prioritise wellbeing outcomes, so that specific policies might be designed to target them. Well-being outcomes help to inform policy tradeoffs and provide better information for tourism stakeholder decision making than standard performance measures. However, it cannot be assumed that a policy that achieves positive outcomes on some dimensions of resident well-being will necessarily have good outcomes on others. Estimates are required as to the net effects on well-being resulting from achievement of some outcomes at the expense of others, depending on what residents'value. Determining the trade-offs between the well-being outcomes of different policies and the possibility of multiple, sometimes conflicting well-being outcomes, introduces a new level of complexity beyond the standard performance assessment challenge that has occupied researchers of destination competitiveness. The issues here flag the need for ethical perspectives underlying decision making to be made explicit (Dwyer, 2018).

Sustainability

Sustainability is widely agreed to be an essential element of destination competitiveness, but there is little agreement as to how it may best be embedded into the established frameworks. Indeed, much of destination competitiveness research does not fully appreciate the essential dynamics of the concept of sustainability, neglecting the role played by changing capital stocks as sources of resident well-being. The condition for sustainable development is that the present generation must leave the next generation a stock of productive capacity that is capable of sustaining well-being per capita at a level no less than that enjoyed by the present generation (Arrow et al, 2012; Dwyer 2022). In contrast, the established destination competitiveness frameworks typically provide the tourism stakeholder with a 'snapshot' of destination attributes at a particular time, ignoring the potential well-being outcomes for residents associated with changing capital stocks. The importance of preservation of economic, human, social and natural stocks of capital in maintaining future resident well-being is crucially important to destination competitiveness study.With respect to destination competitiveness over time, new stock and flow metrics can be added to Table 1 with advances in knowledge of how natural, social, human, and built capital assets interact to contribute to sustainable well-being (De Smedt et al, 2018).

Designing for well-being

Given that the primary objective of achieving destination competitiveness is to enhance resident well-being, a major concern of policy analysis is to identify the well-being outcomes associated with alternative tourism development policies.The well-being lens can inform public and private sector strategies of 'designing for well-being' (Uysal, Berbekova and Kim, 2020). Designing for well-being involves building, enhancing, and sustaining those destination attributes which both serve to create competitive advantage and enhance resident quality-of-life through incremental recreation, entertainment, and hospitality experiences (Boley and Perdue, 2012). The wellbeing framework can be applied at several different stages of the policy cycle, from strategic analysis and prioritisation to evaluations of policy (Exton and Shinwell 2018).

An important benefit of designing for well-being is to help break down the tendency for independent decision making in respect of development options in both the public and private sectors of tourism. Policymaking often operates in silos, with decision makers in different

government departments and different industries focusing on the resources and outputs for which they are directly accountable without reference to the wider impacts of their actions in areas not directly under their responsibility (Bowen, Zubair and Altinay, 2017). Adopting the wellbeing framework, thereby emphasising more comprehensive evaluations of the impact of specific policies on the lives of residents, allows tourism decision makers to play a more substantive role in the wider process of economic development (Dwyer, 2020; Ramkissoon, 2020). By providing a common language and frame of reference for discussing the desired outcomes of policy, a wellbeing framework can assist in identifying externalities and issues that spill over from one policy silo to another,enabling tourism planning to become more integrated with community planning (Smith, 2018). Ultimately, breaking down the silos in fulfilment of the *Beyond GDP* agenda, requires building well-being into the machinery of government, and the tools used to take decisions (Exton and Shinwell 2018).

Marketing Strategy

Application of a well-being lens to assess tourism competitiveness requires new marketing strategy. The challenge facing all tourism destinations is to attract the right customer – the one who truly values what the host has to offer. Instead of asking: 'how can we increase tourist numbers', hosts should ask 'what types of tourists do we want to attract'? Attracting the right type of tourist, with values aligned to those of the host, is more important than attracting large numbers (Dwyer, 2018). On this perspective, once resident well-being enhancing forms of tourism development have been identified, destination marketers can combine to pull-in (attract) the kind of guest who most values what the destination has on offer (Uysal et al, 2020). While these issues are relevant to destination competitiveness research, they have been relatively neglected in the research literature to date.

6. Conclusions

Despite widespread agreement that the ultimate rationale for achieving a competitive tourism destination is to enhance the well-being of residents, destination competitiveness frameworks have tended to treat well-being outcomes in an *ad hoc* rather than strategic manner. Broader measures of social progress that go beyond the standard destination performance measures identified in the established frameworks have an essential role to play in destination competitiveness assessment. Taking seriously the proposition that the ultimate objective of tourism development is to enhance resident well-being, application of a well-being lens can improve a destination's capacity to achieve positive well-being outcomes as a result of tourism development.

Although tourism stakeholders are free to choose any set of indicators to comprise the well-being lens displayed in Table 1, the *Better Life* framework seems particularly suitable for the grounding of wellbeing measures that tourism researchers and DMO can apply in destination competitiveness study given its conformance to Systems of National Accounts, and its ability to embrace additional indicators as these are developed. An index comprising well-being indicators as listed in Table 1, was used to demonstrate how a broader perspective on destination competitiveness can be developed by converting destination performance to resident well-being outcomes. This process was displayed as Figure 1. Further analysis of the links between resident well-being and tourism policy will be necessary to fine-tune the choice

of the indicators in policy making to support destination performance and competitiveness with improved well-being outcomes.

Some important challenges were identified that tourism researchers must confront in the effort to truly integrate resident well-being outcomes into destination competitiveness study. These challenges relate to the composition of the well-being lens, measuring resident well-being, making tradeoffs between different well-being outcomes, properly incorporating sustainability issues into destination competitiveness analysis, and designing destination well-being strategy including marketing strategy. Meeting these challenges will necessitate new concepts and new systems of measurement to include well-being assessment in destination competitiveness research.

Looking to the future, detailed research needs to be undertaken, both at a conceptual and empirical level, to integrate measures of well-being and sustainability issues into destination competitiveness analysis. Finding ways to improve the capacity of tourism to enhance the wellbeing of destination communities will require fundamental changes in way we think about and undertake tourism planning, development, management and marketing. Expected outcomes include a more comprehensive view of the sources of destination competitiveness, greater clarity regarding the links between competitiveness and 'well-being', and identifying the appropriate policy instruments to enhance resident well-being.

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