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CHANGES IN RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF AND SUPPORT TO TOURISM: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Local people's reactions to tourism have been extensively examined in the tourism field, but mostly cross-sectionally. While cross-sectional studies may provide insights into reactions at a certain point in time, longitudinal studies are required to capture changes over time. Nevertheless, longitudinal studies are scarce, and the majority of these studies was conducted over short time spans. Therefore, long-term changes in local residents' reactions to tourism have not been comprehensively explored. This study examines the transformations of the perceptions and support attitudes of local residents through data gathered three times over an 18-year period and contributes to filling the gap in the literature. The data was compiled using convenience sampling method in 2002, 2012 and 2019 in Kuşadası, an important sea-sand-sun tourism destination in Türkiye, and analysed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The findings reveal that both positive and negative impact perceptions do not shift linearly, and changes differ per impact item. While perceptions of positive economic impacts have generally decreased over time, other positive impacts have remained stable or even strengthened and negative impacts have weakened. On the other hand, despite significant decreases, local residents continue to express support for tourism.

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INTRODUCTION

Residents' reactions toward tourism have been subject to academic inquiry for over five decades (Lee et al., 2003; Sharpley, 2014). Scholars have introduced various models and theories to explain these reactions, including the Irridex model (Doxey, 1975), the tourism area life cycle (TALC) (Butler, 1980), and the Social Deterioration Hypothesis (Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009). All these models and theories propose that local residents' reactions toward tourism would evolve over time, and consequently they naturally call longitudinal studies to capture the temporal changes (Lee & Back, 2006; Liang et al., 2021; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). However, much of the extant research consists of cross-sectional studies (Lee & Back, 2006; Lee et al., 2003; Li et al., 2014), which provide snapshots of certain points in time, but fail to detect changes over time (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). As noted by Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) and Woosnam and Ribeiro (2022), theories concerning the evolution of reactions of local residents toward tourism have yet to be rigorously empirically tested and remain assertions. There is thus a critical need for longitudinal research to examine the changes in residents' perceptions and support for tourism and understand the dynamics beneath these changes (Fredline et al., 2013).

Comparing conditions across different points in time, longitudinal studies can offer broader perspectives (García et al., 2015) and deeper insights (Johnson et al., 1994; Ma et al., 2020) about changes and trends over time. Nevertheless, such studies are very scarce (Fredline et al., 2013; Huh & Vogt, 2008; Ma et al., 2020; Rastegar et al., 2024; Ribeiro et al., 2022; Sharma & Dyer, 2012; Sharpley, 2014; Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). On the other hand, longitudinal studies should have at least three measures covering 10-year period or more, to understand whether the changes refer to transformation or temporary fluctuations (Gottman & Rushe, 1993; Ribeiro et al., 2022). However, the majority of the existing longitudinal studies have only examined two time points covering short intervals, even one year (Bimonte et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2021; Rastegar et al., 2024; Ribeiro et al., 2022; Sharma & Dyer, 2012; Thelen et al., 2020). This study consists of three data sets collected between 2002 and 2019 and questions whether local residents' perceptions and support attitudes towards tourism have changed over time and, if so, in which direction. Therefore, by empirically testing the theoretical assumptions, it contributes to the literature and provides a more profound understanding of long-term changes in the perceptions of and attitudes to tourism. It would also provide insights to planners and decision makers to evaluate the long-term effectiveness of management measures.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Impacts of Tourism

Tourism development generates both positive and negative impacts (García et al., 2015), and studies mostly have examined these impacts in economic, environmental and socio-cultural dimensions (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). From an economic perspective, tourism development supports struggling economies, brings more investment and business opportunities (Bestard & Nadal, 2007; Brochado et al., 2023; Lee et al., 2003). It may also stimulate other sectors, improve stakeholder collaboration, and thus improve and diversify the local economy (Dogra et al, 2022; Ma et al., 2020). Additionally, tourism generates income for local businesses and increases employment opportunities for local people (Dogra et al., 2022; Ozturk et al., 2015), potentially alleviating poverty and the number of non-welfare families in the community (Nur Syamsi & Lee, 2021). On the other hand, tourism may increase income inequality in society as the economic gains often benefit a select group rather than the broader community (Tuntipisitkul et al., 2021). Besides from the fact that the money for tourism development is spent at the expense of improvements in public services such as education and healthcare, tourism may increase the prices of goods and services and thereby increasing the cost of living (Fredline et al., 2013; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Tam et al., 2023). Moreover, it may cause a decline in traditional economic sectors (Ozturk et al., 2015), and economic over-dependence on tourism (Andereck et al., 2005).

Among the most notable positive environmental impacts of tourism are its contributions to social education and increased awareness regarding the importance of environmental assets (Ozturk et al., 2015; Tuntipisitkul et al., 2021). Tourism development can also enhance urban planning and stimulate investments in environmental infrastructure (Guo, 2022; Tam et al., 2023). Moreover, it may play a role in the conservation and restoration of natural, cultural, and historical assets (Akis et al., 1996; Nur Syamsi & Lee, 2021). However, tourism can also lead to the neglect of environmental assets for the sake of economic benefits and generate significant amounts of waste and gas emissions (Brochado et al., 2023; Dogra et al., 2022). It brings rapid population growth and housing shortage, and consequently leads to slum areas (Schönherr et al., 2023; Tuntipisitkul et al., 2021). Tourism may also cause irreversible damage to both natural and built environments, and increase in air, water and nature pollution and traffic density (Dyer et al., 2007; Tuntipisitkul et al., 2021).

Tourism also generates both socio-cultural benefits and costs for local communities, although in contrast to its environmental and economic impacts, they are often less tangible and more difficult to quantify (Silva et al., 2013). On the positive side, tourism can foster cultural understanding (Liang & Bao, 2015), thus enhance cultural diversity and promote tolerance and respect for different lifestyles and cultures (Brochado et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2022; Ozturk et al., 2015). It can strengthen social cohesion and bonds and instil the sense of pride and purpose among local people (Akis et al., 1996; Silver & Bin Shuib, 2024). It contributes to gender equality by improving the social status of women (Huo et al., 2023). Moreover, it improves public services such as health, education, communication, transportation, and security (Liang & Bao, 2015), and the quality and diversity of recreational and cultural activities (Dyer et al., 2007; Fredline et al., 2013). On the other hand, tourism development may engender the loss of a sense of attachment to the local community and culture, a deterioration of social structure and family relations, and erode local identity. It may also cause conflicts among the residents and between locals and tourists (Brochado et al., 2023; Guo, 2022; Tuntipisitkul et al., 2021). “Touristification” and "gentrification" of destinations to serve tourists may lead locals to move to remote and/or rural locations (Brochado et al., 2023). Tourism has also been associated with an increase in sex trafficking, prostitution, or sexual abuse of women, alcohol and drug addiction, gambling, and crime rates (Hu et al., 2022; Ozturk et al., 2015; Tuntipisitkul et al., 2021).

Residents’ Perceptions of and Support Attitudes towards Tourism

The term tourism perceptions are generally used to refer the cognitive responses of residents (Chen & Raab, 2012). The perceptions are critical for the development and sustainability of the sector, as they affect local residents' attitudes and thus the satisfaction of tourists (Pratt et al., 2016). Literature indicates that residents with positive perceptions of tourism are more likely to exhibit hospitable behaviours towards tourists, whereas negative perceptions may result in adverse behaviours that undermine the tourism sector (Erul et al., 2020, 2023; Lin et al., 2017; Rastegar et al., 2024). Although some studies indicate that, especially in the first stages, tourism is perceived totally positively (Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009) or negatively (Gezon, 2014), the literature predominantly underscores that tourism is generally apprehended as having both positive and negative impacts.

Depending on the general economic situation and the importance of tourism in the regional economy (Akis et al., 1996; Brochado et al., 2023), generally economic benefits of tourism are often prioritized (Ozturk et al., 2015; Rastegar et al., 2024). It is even stated that local people consider tourism positively due to economic expectations (Lee & Back, 2006), and may ignore the negative effects (Guo, 2022; Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). On the other hand, Hernandez et al. (1996) determined that although local people are overly optimistic about employment opportunities, they also recognize that the distribution of economic benefits will disproportionately favour non-local investors rather than local people. However, Bestard and Nadal (2007) and Tuntipisitkul et al. (2021) posit that as tourism develops, negative perceptions tend to decline while positive ones increase. Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) and Dyer et al. (2007), state that even in mature tourism destinations, perceptions of tourism can remain largely positive.

Hernandez et al. (1996) and Rastegar et al. (2024) stated that tourism is often considered as a sector without any negative socio-cultural impacts. However, studies by Andereck et al. (2005), Gursoy et al. (2010), and Schönherr et al. (2023) indicate that negative sociocultural impacts are evident. Guo (2022) specifically highlights that "immoral" behaviours of tourists disturb the local people. Similarly, Gursoy et al. (2010) state that tourism is seen as environmentally problematic, while Gursoy et al. (2019) and Rastegar et al. (2024) state that local people regard that tourism does not create significant environmental concerns compared to social or economic problems. However, most of the studies on the perceptions of the local people to tourism consist of cross-sectional studies, which only allow instant evaluations. Because cross-sectional studies are restricted to collecting data over a particular point in time, and they examine the variables in a static form, which may cause the changes to be misinterpreted (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). Therefore, longitudinal studies are necessary to understand comprehensively shifts in local perceptions over time.

Longitudinal Studies

Longitudinal studies compare the data of two or more different periods (Menard, 1991). Such studies are essential in determining whether perceptions and/or the relationships between variables change over time, and the form, magnitude, and/or direction of the change (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). Therefore, longitudinal studies can provide a deeper understanding of changes in societies (Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Li et al., 2014; Rastegar et al., 2024).

Although the reactions of local people are frequently examined in the tourism field, longitudinal studies are relatively scarce. These few longitudinal studies reveal that the reactions of local populations are divergent. For example, Thelen et al. (2020), based on the feedback from tourists, sector representatives, and residents, observed a shift from initial optimism to eventual disappointment. Similarly, analysing the opinions before, during and after a tourism season, Bimonte et al. (2019), concluded that while the perceptions of positive impacts remained stable, the negative impacts intensified during the peak season. Contrarily, Ribeiro et al. (2022) found that the perceptions and attitudes of local residents were more positive during the Rio 2016 Olympic Games but gradually decreased afterwards.

Rastegar et al. (2024) found that, in the early stages of tourism development, residents' attitudes tend to become more positive. However, some other papers state that, as tourism matures, both positive and negative opinions either remain stable (Getz, 1994; Huh & Vogt, 2008; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012), deepen (Lee & Back, 2006; Lepp, 2008; Mihalik, 2000), or weaken over time (Lee & Back, 2003; Lee et al., 2003). On the other hand, in the case of the Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix, Fredline et al. (2013) reported a decline in extreme positive and negative opinions, accompanied by an increase in indifferent attitudes, thereby weakening perceptions of both positive and negative tourism impacts.

Longitudinal studies present differentiated results also in terms of impact dimensions. Some studies state a decline in positive economic impact perceptions, particularly when financial expectations remain unmet (Hsu, 2000; Huh & Vogt, 2008; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012). Contrarily, Fredline et al. (2013) observed that the economic contributions were perceived more favourable over time. Additionally, several studies suggest that over time, social and environmental benefits become evident (Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Mihalik, 2000; Nur Syamsi & Lee, 2021; Rastegar et al., 2024; Sharma & Dyer, 2012) while negative perceptions diminish (Fredline et al., 2013; Hernandez et al., 1996; Lee & Back, 2003; Lee et al., 2003; Sharma & Dyer, 2012). However, some others emphasize that the positive perceptions of those impacts diminish, and the negative perceptions intensify over time (Bimonte et al., 2019; Lee & Back, 2006; Li et al., 2014). In a similar vein, Lee and Back (2006) stated that perceptions of negative impacts initially decreased but subsequently increased. Evaluating the data collected before and after the first wave of the COVID-19 outbreak, Schönherr et al. (2023), reported heightened sociocultural and environmental concerns following the crisis, alongside a more favourable

perception of tourism's economic significance due to economic stagnation caused by the pandemic.

On the other hand, although Mihalik (2000) and Sharma and Dyer (2012) have shown that local support for tourism development increases over time, most longitudinal research suggests that support for tourism tends to decline over time (Hsu, 2000; Johnson et al., 1994; Lee & Back, 2003; Thelen et al., 2020).

Theoretical Framework

Over the years, many theoretical frameworks and model proposals have been developed to predict local residents' reactions towards tourism. For instance, Irridex (Doxey, 1975) and Tourist Area Life Cycle (Butler, 1980) models suggest that the level of tourism development affects local residents' perceptions (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). These stage-based and linear models claim that while residents initially exhibit positive attitudes, but as the negative impacts of tourism become evident over time, their cost-benefit perceptions gradually turn negative and their support for tourism development decreases (Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009; Gursoy et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2020; Nunkoo et al., 2013). Some studies (e.g. Akis et al., 1996; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009; Johnson et al., 1994; Ryan et al., 1998) have provided support for these models. However, scholars have also criticized these models to be overly simplistic to understanding local residents' reactions (Akis et al., 1996; Nunkoo et al., 2013). These scholars underline that local people's perceptions and support attitudes do not change in a simple linear manner. They may switch from one state to another, may return to previous state(s), or even skip a state. For example, in the early stages of tourism, residents may be ambivalent (Hernandez et al., 1996) or highly negative (Gezon, 2014) about tourism. The literature also provides cases where perceptions do not turn negative with tourism development (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997), and even in mature destinations, the impacts of tourism are perceived positively and residents continue to support tourism development (Andereck et al., 2005; Dyer et al., 2007; Lepp, 2008).

Contrary to linear models, the social deterioration hypothesis predicts that rapid tourism development leads to negative changes in the local social fabric, and decline in the quality of life, but then local people would adapt to these changes. Therefore, it assumes that perceptions of tourism initially would be highly negative but then turn positive (Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009). Similarly, Social Exchange Theory (SET) predicts

that local residents would assess tourism sector from benefit/cost window, and that the perceptions will be positive if they believe that tourism is beneficial, or negative if they think that it mostly brings cost/harm (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). On the other hand, Mere Exposure Theory (MET) developed by Zajonc (1968), states that repeated and prolonged exposure to stimuli leads individuals to evaluate people/objects/phenomena more positively. In other words, it states that as stimuli become more familiar/usual, they are perceived in a more positive light (Wegener & Carlston, 2005). Petty et al. (1997), state that this effect would be even stronger if exposure occurs subconsciously. Therefore, this theory concludes that perceptions of and support to tourism will be more positive the longer local people are interacting with tourism and tourists. It offers perspectives to understand how perceptions of tourism change (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021), as tourists become usual/ordinary in the destination. Although some researchers such as Lin and Kuo (2016), Stylidis, (2022) have tested MET from the perspectives of tourists, very few studies (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021) utilized it to research local people's perspectives.

All these theoretical models call for longitudinal studies to gain a deeper understanding of changes in local residents' responses toward tourism. However, although there have been some studies in recent years, the number of longitudinal studies on local residents' perception of tourism remains limited. Moreover, many existing longitudinal studies (e.g. Fredline et al., 2013; Getz, 1994; Hsu, 2000; Lee & Back, 2003; Mihalik, 2000; Nur Syamsi & Lee, 2021; Rastegar et al., 2024; Sharma & Dyer, 2012) have only compared data gathered at two points in time. Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010) argue that studies with two measures are just different versions of cross-sectional studies and may show the difference, not the transformation, between measurement one and two. Such studies fail to determine whether the changes are structural or temporary (Gottman & Rushe, 1993). Therefore, at least three measures are necessary to conduct a robust longitudinal study (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

In addition, Jaccard and Blanton (2005) claim that perceptions and attitudes are unlikely to change in short-term, and that, longitudinal analyses using short time intervals probably produce erroneous inferences. Similarly, Ribeiro et al. (2022) note that longitudinal studies should cover a period of at least ten-year. However, many longitudinal studies on perceptions of local residents were conducted over short time intervals, with many spanning less than two years or even a year (e.g. Bimonte et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2018; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Lee & Back, 2003; Lee et al., 2003; Li et al., 2014; Sharma & Dyer, 2012; Thelen et al., 2020).

Other studies have covered slightly longer periods such as three years (Fredline et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2020), four years (Lee & Back, 2006; Liang et al., 2021), five years (Hsu, 2000; Mihalik, 2000), six years (Johnson et al., 1994; Ribeiro et al., 2022), seven years (Huh & Vogt, 2008; Nur Syamsi & Lee, 2021) or nine years (Rastegar et al., 2024). The number of studies spanning ten years or longer, such as Getz (1994), Gezon (2014), and Stylidis and Terzidou (2021), is quite scarce.

Therefore, changes in of local residents' reactions remain insufficiently examined and the theories and models remain weakly questioned assertions (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Fredline et al., 2013; Schönherr et al., 2023). To address these gaps, more longitudinal studies with three or more measures and longer periods are needed to deepen the knowledge about the transformation of local residents' reactions to tourism. This study questions the changes in the local residents' tourism perceptions through data collected three times over an 18-year period. It fills the gap in the literature and empirically tests the assumptions of theories and models discussed above. Therefore, it has the potential to contribute significantly to academic discourse on tourism perceptions while providing policymakers and planners with valuable insights for developing long-term sustainable strategies.

METHODOLOGY

Study Field

Data were collected from the residents of Kuşadası, a district of Aydın province located in the South Aegean region of Türkiye. Kuşadası emerged as a tourist destination in the 1970s, however, tourism has developed mainly since the mid-1980s (Kuşadası Municipality, 2019) (Figure 1). Currently, the economy in Kuşadası is predominantly reliant on sea-sand-sun tourism (Kuşadası Chamber of Commerce, 2021).

The number of tourists increased rapidly, from the late 1970s and especially during the 1980s to 2002, the year the first survey was conducted, and slowly between 2002 and 2012. It was relatively stagnant between 2012 and 2016, but, between 2017 and 2019, there were again significant increases in tourist numbers. In 2019, Kuşadası hosted approximately 1.31 million tourists, including around 880 thousand international tourists. In 2020, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, this number fell to around 500 thousand, of which 260 thousand were international tourists (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2021).

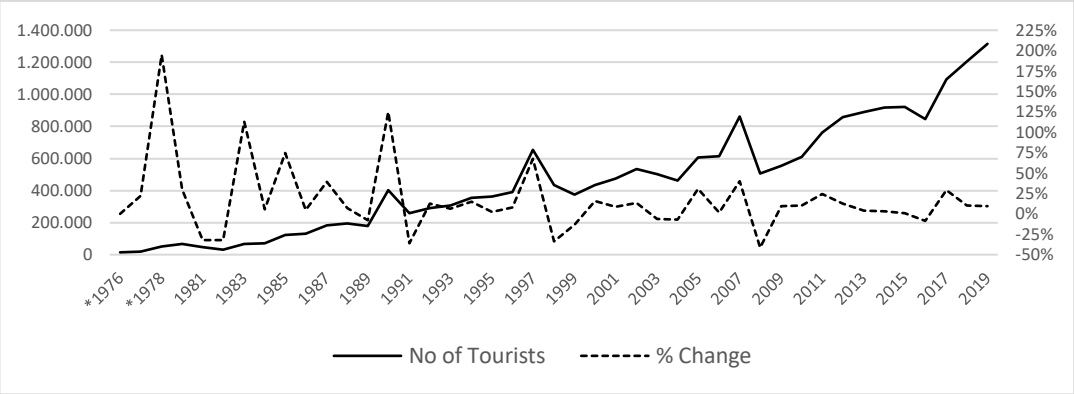

Figure 1. *Number of tourists by years (1976-2019)*
Source: Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2021)
* *The figures are of Aydın province, since the statistics are not district-based.*

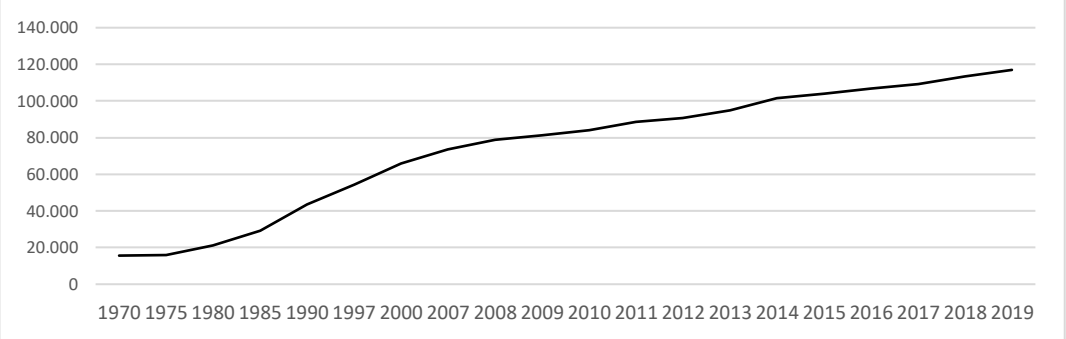

Figure 2. *Population of Kuşadası by years (1970-2019)*
Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK) [n.d. (a)]

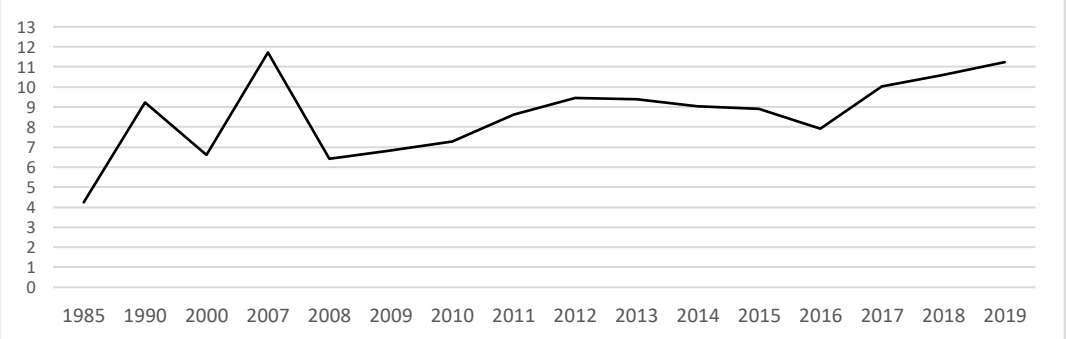

Figure 3. *The ratio of the number of tourists to the local population by years (1985-2019)*
Source: By authors

Pratt et al. (2016) states that the tourism perceptions are also markedly affected by the ratio of the number of tourists to the local population. The population of Kuşadası increased sharply between 1975 and 2000, and then mildly (Figure 2), mirroring the development of tourism. However, the ratio between the number of tourists and the local population

has consistently increased over time (Figure 3). Therefore, it can be noted that the years 2002, 2012 and 2019 represent different phases of the tourism destination life cycle and are suitable points to examine changes in the perceptions and support attitudes of the local people towards tourism, longitudinally.

Measurement and Data Collection

There are trend, panel and cohort analysis types of longitudinal studies. In a cohort study, groups are probed based on date of birth, or experience of certain historical events. On the other hand, though trend and panel surveys are similar, data are collected from the same participants in panel research (Taris, 2000), while different samples are utilized in each measurement period in a trend study, which therefore is also called "repeated cross-sectional studies" (Ruspini, 1999). Trend studies primarily focus on capturing overall shifts over time and on communal rather than individual change (Taris, 2000). According to Taris (2000, p. 6) trend studies "*allow for the detection of change at the aggregate level*" and thus, they are "*typical instance of a design that is cross-sectional at the level of the sampling units, but longitudinal at the level of the research units*". In this context, this study first undertaken in 2002, and repeated in 2012 and 2019 is a trend study.

In the 2002 survey, impacts items were adapted from the studies by Akis et al. (1996), and Liu et al. (1987), and the items about tourism support were from Faulkner and Tideswell (1997). The items were translated into Turkish and subsequently back-translated into English by two academicians, proficient in English language instruction but not involved in the research. A comparison of the back-translated and original items revealed no significant discrepancies. Minor refinements were made based on feedback from two tourism scholars to enhance clarity. Afterwards, these items were also used in 2012 and 2019 surveys.

In 2002 and 2012, the questionnaires were identical. Although the 2019 questionnaire contained additional questions, only the items common to all three questionnaires were included in the analysis. While, economic and environmental impacts were each measured using five items, seven and two items were used to measure socio-cultural impacts and support attitude respectively (Table 1). A 7-point Likert scale (1: Definitely disagree, 7: Definitely agree) was used to measure responses. Respondents' demographic information such as gender, age, education, marital status, occupation and income was also gathered.

Table 1. *Items and their coding*

Economic Impacts	
Job opportunities	Tourism creates more job opportunities in Kuşadası
Investment	Tourism attracts more investments for Kuşadası
Prices	Tourism causes an increase in prices of goods and services in Kuşadası
Trouble	Tourism causes economic troubles for local people in Kuşadası
Bad Economy	The overall economic condition in Kuşadası is not good because of tourism
Socio-Cultural Impacts	
Cultural Protection	Tourism has a positive impact on local culture in Kuşadası
Cultural Activity	Tourism leads to the diversification of cultural activities in Kuşadası
Lifestyle	Tourists have a negative impact on local people's lifestyle in Kuşadası
Crime	Tourism increases the crime rate in Kuşadası
Traffic	Tourism causes traffic jams in Kuşadası
Prostitution	Tourism causes an increase in prostitution in Kuşadası
Violence	Tourism causes an increase in violence in Kuşadası.
Environmental Impacts	
Restoration	Tourism leads to restoration of historical buildings in Kuşadası
Green Spaces	Tourism increases the number of recreational parks and green areas
Natural Destruction	Tourism destroys the natural environment in Kuşadası
Pollution	Tourism causes pollution in Kuşadası
Overcrowding	Tourism causes overcrowding in Kuşadası
Support	
More Facility	More quality restaurants and hotels should be operated to attract more tourist
Advertisement	Kuşadası should be advertised more to attract more tourist

Using a convenience sampling method, data were collected between May and July, September and November, and February and May in 2002, 2012 and 2019 respectively. The surveys were conducted in both commercial and residential areas on various days and at different times of the day to enhance the representativeness of the sample. Participants were determined based on the criteria of participating in the study voluntarily, residing in Kuşadası, and being at least 18 years of age. In residential areas, surveys were distributed systematically starting from the third building in each street and then in every fifth building. The apartments in the buildings were randomly selected. In commercial areas, every tenth person encountered was approached for participation. Having been briefly informed about the purpose and content of the research, the individuals were asked to complete the questionnaire themselves, though assistance was provided upon request. Incomplete or arbitrarily completed questionnaires were excluded and finally 346, 339 and 224 responses were obtained in 2002, 2012 and 2019 respectively. The lower number of participants in 2019 is considered to stem from the fact that residents had gotten used to tourism and its impacts, which may have led to a diminished interest in participating in such studies (Fredline et al., 2013). In addition, the fact that all three samples have similar characteristics (Table 2) underlines that the efforts to reduce sampling error have ensured the reliability and validity of the data for analysis.

Analysis

The variations in perceptions of and support to tourism were queried using analysis of variance, as suggested for trend studies (Fitzmaurice et al., 2009; Taris, 2000). Given the presence of multiple interrelated dependent variables, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is more effective than univariate analysis in accounting for covariance among variables, thereby enhancing statistical power and minimizing the risk of Type I errors (Diggle et al., 2013; Huberty & Olejnik, 2006). Therefore, MANOVA was utilized for this study. Initially, the normality of the data was assessed through the Skewness and Kurtosis values. The Skewness values between -2.341 and -0.053, and the Kurtosis values between -1.359 and 6.067 all met the thresholds (Kline, 2011) confirming that the data followed a normal distribution. Subsequently, MANOVA was run and revealed statistically significant differences across most variables, except for the items "Bad economy, Cultural activity, Traffic and Green Spaces". Afterwards, Levene's test of homogeneity was utilized to determine which post hoc test is suitable to examine the differences between the groups. Only one survey item (Investment) satisfied equality of variances. Therefore, Scheffe, for the item "Investment", and Tamhane T2, for other items, pairwise comparison tests were used, and the results are presented in Table 3.

FINDINGS

Profile of Respondents

The profiles of the participants differed in each survey (Table 2). For example, the number of female participants increased in 2012 and 2019. Participants between 26-55 ages constituted half of the sample in 2002, but 70% of 2012 and 2019 samples. Married and single respondents were generally evenly distributed in all research periods, although the number of singles in 2002 and of marrieds in 2012 and 2019 were slightly more. Information about educational background was not compiled in 2002, and the majority of the participants declared holding an associate degree or higher in both 2012 and 2019.

In 2002, approximately half of the sample consisted of housewives, retirees, students and unemployed individuals, while this rate declined to 25-30% in 2012 and 2019. Private sector paid employees made up 1/3 of the sample in all survey periods. While self-employed and employers were around 10% in 2002 and 2019, they reached 25% in 2012.

Table 2. *Profile of Respondents*

		2002		2012		2019	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender	Female	139	40.2	154	45.4	121	54,3
	Male	207	59.8	185	54.6	102	45,7
	Total	346	100.0	339	100.0	223	100,0
Age	18-25	161	46.5	95	28.0	43	20,8
	26-35	84	24.3	136	40.1	59	28,5
	36-45	62	17.9	64	18.9	62	30,0
	46-55	28	8.1	32	9.4	24	11,6
	56-65	8	2.3	11	3.2	14	6,8
	66 +	3	0.9	1	0.3	5	2,4
	Total	346	100.0	339	100.0	207	100,0
Marital Status	Single	192	55.5	144	42.5	97	46,2
	Married	154	44.5	195	57.5	113	53,8
	Total	346	100.0	339	100.0	210	100,0
Education	Primary or less			47	13.9	27	12,1
	Secondary			100	29.6	58	25,9
	Associate degree			59	17.5	28	12,5
	Undergraduate			111	32.8	74	33,0
	Graduate			21	6.2	37	16,5
	Total			338	100.0	224	100,0
Occupation	Housewife, Retired	62	17.9	15	4.4	31	14,2
	Student, Unemployed	107	30.9	74	21.8	38	17,4
	Public official	45	13.0	41	12.1	45	20,5
	Private sector paid employee	102	29.5	123	36.3	80	36,5
	Self-Employed, Employer	30	8.7	86	25.4	25	11,4
	Total	346	100.0	339	100.0	219	100,0
Income ($)	250 or less	185	56.4	9	3.7	11	7,1
	251-500	93	28.4	64	26.3	82	52,6
	501-750	32	9.8	69	28.4	36	23,1
	751-1000	7	2.1	40	16.5	15	9,6
	1001 or more	11	3.4	61	25.1	12	7,7
	Total	328	100.0	243	100.0	156	100,0
Length of residency	1-7 years					45	20.8
	8-17 years					56	25.9
	18 years and more					115	53.2
	Total					216	100.0

In 2002 and 2019 respectively, 85% and 60% of respondents reported a monthly income of less than $500. In 2012, this figure dropped to 30%. Moreover, while 11.9% of participants had an income between $501 and $1000 in 2002, this had increased to 44.9% in 2012 and 32.7% in 2019. Similarly, in 2012, a quarter of the participants earned more than $1000 per month. These figures align with broader economic changes in Türkiye and Aydın province. Income per capita in Türkiye was $2,941 in 2000, and it reached $2,598 in 2002, $11,675 in 2012 and $9,208 in 2019 (TUIK, n.d. (b)). On the other hand, the income per capita of the residents of Aydın province initially marched the national average but began to fall below it in the mid-2000s, reaching $8,346 in 2012 and $6,639 in 2019 (TUIK, n.d. (b)).

Length of residency is critical to accurately assess tourism impacts. Information about length of residency was not gathered in 2002 and 2012, but in 2019, the sample mostly (79.2%) covered respondents residing in Kuşadası long enough to include at least one of the former research periods. Notably, 53.2% had been residents since 2001 or earlier, while only 20.8% had moved to Kuşadası after the second survey. Therefore, the sample was deemed representative for evaluating longitudinal trends in tourism perceptions.

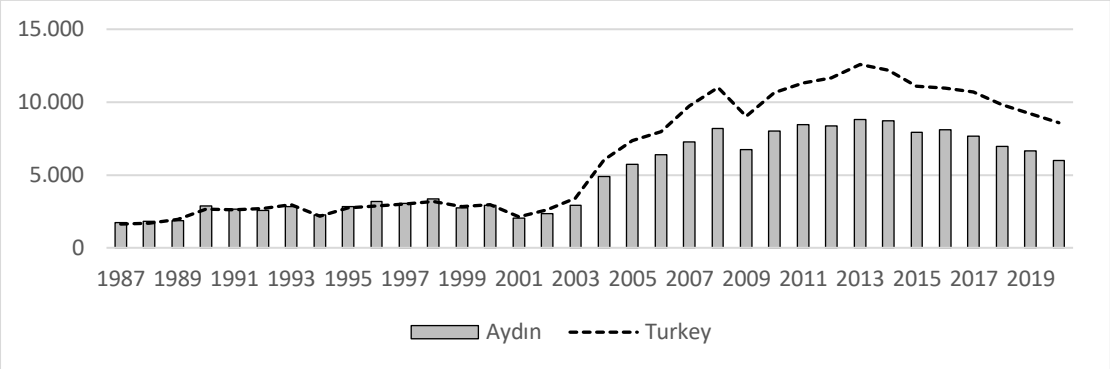

Figure 4. *GDP Per Capita ($)*
Source: TUIK [n.d. (b)]
*** 2002 and 2003 figures of Aydın province were estimated based on trends since the data are not available*

Change in Perceptions of and Support Attitudes to Tourism

After a constant trend between time one (2002) and time two (2012), perceptions of the positive economic impacts (job opportunities, investment) declined significantly between 2012 and 2019. From an environmental and socio-cultural impacts perspective, there were remarkable decreases in the perceptions that tourism contributes to the preservation of historical values in each survey compared to the previous period. However, favourable views emerged regarding the impacts on local culture. Between time one and two, positive perspectives consolidated and continued into time three. On the other hand, perceptions regarding the increase of parks and green areas, and diversification of cultural activities were similar in each period without any statistically significant variations.

Perceptions that tourism increases the prices of goods and services remained stable while concerns about tourism-related economic difficulties intensified, between time one and two. However, perceptions of both issues decreased between time two and three. No statistically significant differences were found for perceptions that tourism causes a deterioration of the overall local economy. Perceptions of some negative environmental (harm to the natural environment, overcrowding), and socio-cultural

impacts (local lifestyle, crime rate, violence) deepened between time one and two, but weakened in time three. Additionally, the perceptions that tourism cause prostitution and pollution remained unchanged between 2002 and 2012, but then weakened significantly. Furthermore, considering the entire research period, perceptions of all negative impacts remained constant or even diminished, with the exception of concerns about traffic congestion, which showed a slight but statistically insignificant increase.

The results indicate that tourism development, especially in the last period, has not provided job opportunities, as much as it did in the early periods. Similarly, decreases in the negative economic impact perceptions may indicate that the tourism sector has become routine and that role of the tourism on the lives of local residents has decreased. On the other hand, changes in cultural impact perceptions accent that tourism, especially in the first period, had positive impacts on local culture, changed cultural norms, and that local people assessed the cultural negative impacts of tourism regarding new norms. However, the findings also express that tourism development has not significantly contributed to historical and environmental values or cultural activities. In other words, tourism development has not attached much importance to assets other than sea-sand-sun tourism. Additionally, the results highlight that tourism development has contributed to urbanization in Kuşadası, leading residents to prioritize urban infrastructure over environmental considerations.

However, local residents' tourism support has declined overall. The support for increasing facility capacity decreased significantly between 2002 and 2012 but remained stable between 2012 and 2019, reflecting the local people's expectations for job opportunities. However, their agreement on the need for increased promotion of the destination decreased in each survey. Nevertheless, the means indicated that local residents continued to support tourism intensely (Mean ≥6), driven by employment and income concerns.

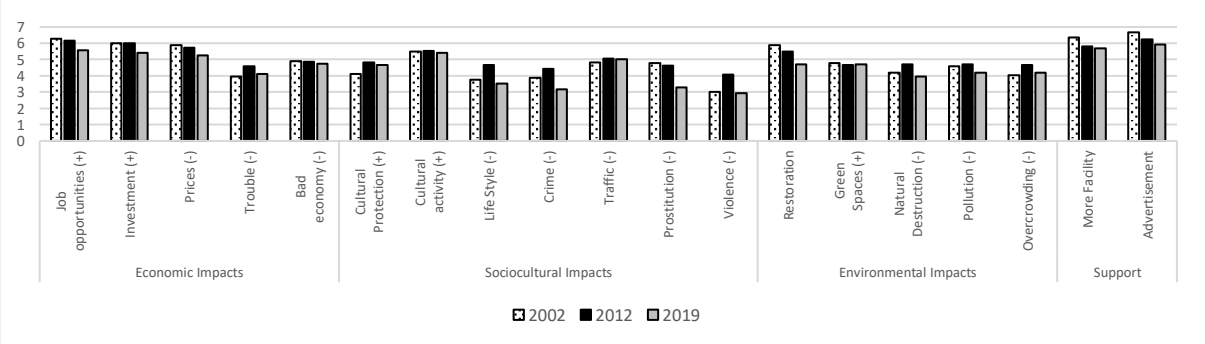

Figure 5. *Means of perceptions of tourism impacts and support attitude*

Table 3. *Statistically significant differences in perceptions of and support to tourism over years*

Items	MANOVA					Means			Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances				Multiple Comparisons				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	2002	2012	2019	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Post-hoc test	Significant Differences Between	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.*
Job opportunities	53.805	2	26.902	17.453	0.000	6.28	6.15	5.59	4.113	2	856	0.017	Tamhane T2	2002-2019	0.69	0.118	0.000
														2012-2019	0.55	0.118	0.000
Investment	53.754	2	26.877	14.618	0.000	6.00	6.01	5.40	2.799	2	856	0.061	Scheffe	2002-2019	0.63	0.126	0.000
														2012-2019	0.64	0.127	0.000
Prices	45.006	2	22.503	9.682	0.000	5.87	5.72	5.27	3.490	2	856	0.031		2002-2019	0.63	0.149	0.000
														2012-2019	0.47	0.144	0.004
Trouble	74.092	2	37.046	8.659	0.000	3.95	4.57	4.11	17.325	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	-0.62	0.163	0.001
														2012-2019	0.53	0.174	0.008
Cultural protection	92.102	2	46.051	10.930	0.000	4.12	4.84	4.65	44.556	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	-0.72	0.161	0.000
														2002-2019	-0.49	0.186	0.025
Lifestyle	239.941	2	119.971	29.393	0.000	3.77	4.66	3.51	55.987	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	-0.89	0.160	0.000
														2002-2019	0.43	0.178	0.048
														2012-2019	1.32	0.161	0.000
Crime	198.775	2	99.387	25.681	0.000	3.86	4.44	3.19	16.063	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	-0.58	0.155	0.001
														2002-2019	0.71	0.174	0.000
														2012-2019	1.28	0.165	0.000
Prostitution	351.230	2	175.615	42.374	0.000	4.79	4.64	3.27	9.813	2	856	0.000		2002-2019	1.63	0.182	0.000
														2012-2019	1.48	0.174	0.000
Violence	251.612	2	125.806	30.045	0.000	3.03	4.08	2.92	29.389	2	856	0.000	Tamhane T2	2002-2012	-1.05	0.163	0.000
														2012-2019	1.19	0.167	0.000
Restoration	157.937	2	78.968	29.032	0.000	5.87	5.48	4.69	6.573	2	856	0.001		2002-2012	0.39	0.123	0.005
														2002-2019	1.18	0.161	0.000
														2012-2019	0.79	0.166	0.000
Natural Destruction	91.342	2	45.671	9.932	0.000	4.21	4.71	3.95	32.843	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	-0.5	0.169	0.009
														2012-2019	0.81	0.179	0.000
Pollution	40.829	2	20.414	4.366	0.013	4.60	4.70	4.20	4.299	2	856	0.014		2012-2019	0.55	0.191	0.013
Overcrowding	80.106	2	40.053	8.186	0.000	4.03	4.68	4.20	60.003	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	-0.65	0.172	0.000
														2012-2019	0.52	0.186	0.015
More Facility	66.742	2	33.371	18.704	0.000	6.34	5.81	5.67	9.589	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	0.52	0.103	0.000
														2002-2019	0.64	0.118	0.000
Advertisement	58.320	2	29.160	23.922	0.000	6.67	6.24	5.94	42.059	2	856	0.000		2002-2012	0.42	0.081	0.000
														2002-2019	0.66	0.107	0.000
Bad economy	8.914	2	4.457	1.345	0.261	4.92	4.86	4.73									
Cultural activity	1.272	2	0.636	0.241	0.786	5.50	5.52	5.43									
Traffic	12.051	2	6.025	1.574	0.208	4.81	5.05	5.00									
Green Spaces	3.370	2	1.685	0.434	0.648	4.80	4.67	4.69									

** The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.*

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Given the dynamic nature of residents' perceptions of and support to tourism, longitudinal studies analysing repeated cross-sectional studies can provide more in-depth information about changes and transformations (Chen et al., 2018; Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). However, the number of longitudinal studies remains disproportionately low compared to cross-sectional studies. Furthermore, most existing longitudinal studies are limited to two data points over short intervals. This study addresses this gap by examining the long-term changes in the perceptions and support attitudes of local residents through three cross-sectional surveys carried out between 2002 and 2019. Therefore, it expands the knowledge about the nature of the changes and provides valuable insights for policymakers and planners seeking effective and sustainable long-term decisions.

In Kuşadası, tourist numbers increased in each of the research periods, reaching an all-time high in 2019. The ratio of tourists to locals was similar in 2002 and 2012 but reached its second-highest level in 2019, after the peak in 2007 (Figure 3). However, negative tourism perceptions were most evident in 2012 but decreased by 2019. These findings contrast with the assertions of Diedrich and Garcia-Buades (2009) and Stylidis and Terzidou (2021) and suggest that residents' reactions to tourism are not solely related to tourist numbers or the tourist-to-host population.

Many studies (e.g. Akis et al., 1996; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009; Johnson et al., 1994; Ryan et al., 1998; Thelen et al., 2020) determined that local residents' perceptions of tourism changed negatively with time. However, this study, consistent with Getz (1994), Huh and Vogt (2008), Karadakis and Kaplanidou (2012), Stylidis and Terzidou (2021), Ribeiro et al. (2022), and Rastegar et al. (2024), found that some perceptions became more negative, but others remained stable or improved over time. Meanwhile, consistent with several other longitudinal studies (Getz, 1994; Hsu, 2000; Huh & Vogt, 2008; Johnson et al., 1994; Lee & Back, 2003; Ma et al., 2020), findings of this study indicate that perceptions of positive economic impacts have decreased over time. However, they diverge from findings by Fredline et al. (2013), Chen et al. (2018), or Bimonte et al. (2019), who all reported an increase in perceived economic benefits. Moreover, contrary to the findings by Sharma and Dyer (2012) and Stylidis and Terzidou (2021), this study discovered that the perceptions that tourism attracts investment and increases job opportunities underwent a negative transformation. These inconsistencies may stem from the fact that the time intervals in those studies were very short, and the surveys were conducted

in a one-off season, as well as the difference in tourist accommodation. Unlike in Kavala where tourists prefer accommodations fostering more interaction with the locals (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021), most tourists in Kuşadası stay in all-inclusive hotels.

Consistent with the findings of Getz (1994), Johnson et al. (1994), Karadakis and Kaplanidou (2012) and Lee et al. (2003), but contrary to those of Bimonte et al. (2019) and Stylidis and Terzidou (2021), perceptions of negative economic impacts generally decreased over time. On the other hand, although Stylidis and Terzidou (2021) stated that tourism was seen as a remedy to solve local economic problems, this study determined that local residents "partially" agreed that tourism worsened the economic situation. This finding indicates that the failure of tourism development to meet economic expectations is a major factor in the negative evolution of positive economic impacts perceptions (Hsu, 2000; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012). In contrast to Lee and Back (2006) and Li et al. (2014), but similar to Karadakis and Kaplanidou (2012), Sharma and Dyer (2012), Chen et al. (2018), Stylidis and Terzidou (2021), or Rastegar et al. (2024), the results suggest that perceptions of positive socio-cultural impacts either remain stable or increase, over time. Furthermore, similar to Lee et al. (2003), Lee and Back (2003), Sharma and Dyer (2012), or Fredline et al. (2013), the analyses show that perspectives of negative sociocultural impacts generally did not deepen and even decreased over time. These results may betoken that, local residents get used to, and even accept, new sociocultural norms formed with tourism development, over time.

In terms of environmental impacts, Stylidis and Terzidou (2021) claimed that perceptions of the relationship between tourism and recreation facilities initially followed a stable course and then decreased, but this study determined these perceptions remained constant over the study period. The decrease in the perception that tourism contributes to the preservation of historical values over time is consonant with Bimonte et al. (2019) noting that environmental effects turned more negative as time passed. This finding highlighted the belief that due to the slowdown in investments in both tourism and related sectors, historical values were ignored. On the other hand, consistent with Lee et al. (2003), Lee and Back (2003), Huh and Vogt (2008), Sharma and Dyer (2012), or Fredline et al. (2013), perceptions of negative environmental impacts mostly did not deepen and decreased over time. Although the differences are not statistically significant, only the perceptions of traffic problems became more pronounced as emphasized by Stylidis and Terzidou (2021). These results, contrary to findings by Brochado et al. (2023), underline that environmental values are not ignored,

but that the study area of this paper has lost its rural character and has become an urban settlement, therefore natural beauties had diminished, and perceptions had become based on urban values.

In summary, all the positive and negative impacts of tourism were perceived clearly (Mean ≥4). While the economic and environmental impacts were felt intensely, the perceptions of socio-cultural effects were close to "undecided". Over time, while perceptions of positive economic impacts decreased, perceptions of positive socio-cultural and environmental impacts did not generally turn negative. Moreover, perceptions of most of the negative impacts did not deepen and in some cases weakened. These findings partially echo the results of Faulkner and Tideswell (1997), Mihalik, (2000), Lepp, (2008), Diedrich and Garcia-Buades (2009), or Rastegar et al. (2024), who stated that perceptions do not turn negative with tourism development. On the other hand, the results indicate that the perceptions of negative impacts generally peaked in 2012, when economic conditions were the best among the three survey periods (Figure 4). They support Ryan et al. (1998), Diedrich and Garcia-Buades (2009), and Gursoy et al. (2019), who emphasize that perceptions of negative impacts deepen when the economy improves, Brochado et al. (2023), who state that in worse economic conditions, negative impacts would attract less attention, or Lepp (2008), stressing that economic improvements do not necessarily lead to positive perceptions.

Although Mihalik (2000) and Sharma and Dyer (2012) reported that residents' support for tourism increased over time, the present study found a decline in support, consistent with other longitudinal studies such as Andereck et al. (2005), Dyer et al. (2007), Lepp (2008) and Thelen et al. (2020).

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical contributions of this study are threefold. First, unlike most previous longitudinal studies, it is one of the few studies examining the changes in residents' perceptions of tourism impacts through three measures and over a fairly long period. Therefore, it tests the theories regarding shifts in local attitudes toward tourism and strengthens the theoretical ground. Second, the study empirically supports scholars such as Akis et al. (1996) who argue that new theoretical frameworks/theories are necessary to understand residents' reactions towards tourism. The findings show that the changes in perceptions of tourism impacts do not always occur in the deterministic manner predicted by stage-based models (Stylidis

& Terzidou, 2021). Specifically, three (two economic, one environmental) of the six positive perceptions regarding tourism impacts declined, while others remained either stable or improved. Meanwhile, seven of the negative impact perceptions decreased, only one of them increased, and other three showed no significant change. These results can be interpreted in different ways. First, many impacts may not be felt/experienced any longer due to the fact that the tourist-local interaction was reduced to minimum due to "all inclusive" accommodation type of tourism (Woosnam & Erul, 2017). Second, since residents' perceptions of tourism impacts are heavily influenced by tourism-independent factors (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021), the local people's opinions may have been greatly modified by both tourism and non-tourism factors and residents may no longer prioritize certain negative impacts. Therefore, this study empirically shows that the rational and benefit-based Social Exchange Theory (SET) is also insufficient to interpret the perceptions and the support attitudes (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). On the other hand, results indicate that tourism had negative effects on the local culture, but afterwards the local residents adapted to these changes and therefore support the social deterioration hypothesis. Additionally, the results support the Mere Exposure Theory (MET), suggesting that as familiarity with the tourism sector increases, residents' perceptions become more positive or at least less negative.

Third, since all items follow different courses, this study supports Fredline and Faulkner (2000) who claim that grouping the variables under factor structures may lead to incomplete or misleading interpretations. It suggests that to accurately assess changes in perceptions, tourism impact variables -economic, environmental, and socio-cultural- should be examined separately rather than in aggregated categories, as has been the norm in previous research.

Practical Implications

This study mirrors the findings of many previous studies and clearly shows that local residents attach importance to the tourism-caused changes in the physical and societal environment. The results highlight the need for tourism development strategies prioritizing socio-cultural and environmental considerations alongside economic objectives to ensure that tourism development benefits not only visitors but also locals.

Integrating local residents into tourism development as active stakeholders, not just as the workforce, may ensure that the positive economic effects are long-term. Thus, local people can have more positive

perceptions as in Kavala (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). In this context, it seems crucial to take measures to undertake tourism development under the control/participation of local residents, and investment projections should consider not only rich investors/firms but locals. Diversification of the accommodation types and confining "all-inclusive" boarding seems as important steps. In addition to some spatial restrictions, economic subsidies and exemptions may be provided for tourism establishments to adopt other boarding models. Moreover, internal-marketing campaigns emphasizing tourism's interconnectedness with other economic sectors may positively influence local perceptions.

Beyond the infrastructure maintenance, destination managers/ decision makers/planners must also enhance residents' quality of life including restoration/protection of the historical and environmental assets, quality and quantity of recreational areas (Lin et al., 2017). Furthermore, in settlements acquiring an urban character, like the study area, alternative transportation systems such as public transportation should be considered for the solution of traffic problems. On the other hand, bilateral fruitful relations should be developed between tourists and local residents, to ensure that the presence of tourists is viewed positively (Stylidis & Terzidou, 2021). For example, inter-cultural/artistic activities and/or festivals may be organized (Liang et al., 2021). Such activities, besides providing opportunities for a better understanding, socialization and interaction between locals and tourists, can contribute to the generation of creative ideas. Likewise, joint environmental initiatives involving residents, tourists, and tourism stakeholders could contribute to favourable perceptions of environmental impacts.

Limitations and Future Studies

Like all studies, this research has certain limitations that suggest avenues for future research. Given the quantitative research method used in this study, an in-depth analysis of the changes could not be performed. Future longitudinal studies incorporating both quantitative and qualitative research methods may provide deeper insights into the evolving relations between local communities and tourism. Beyond the less participants in 2019, the data were compiled with non-probability methods (convenience sampling), although many efforts were undertaken to ensure that the sample represented the population in each research period. Furthermore, the sample in each study phase was made up of different respondents, so differences/changes may have been caused by the differences in social, economic or psychological features of the participants. In addition,

differences in demographic features such as age, gender, education and occupation of the participants may result in sampling bias. Therefore, due to the convenience sampling, the results are difficult to generalize, and it is necessary to test the findings by studies having larger samples and using probability-based sampling methods. Moreover, this study examined the tourism impacts with a limited set of items. Studies conducted on a wider range of items regarding each impact dimension may expand the literature. This study reflects the changes in reactions of the residents living in a coastal destination of Türkiye, positioned between Europe and Asia. The future studies examining the destinations with different geographical and cultural contexts may ground a broader perspective. This study did not take into account socio-economic differences among the participants. Future studies accounting different criteria such as contact with tourists, employment in tourism, geographical distance, length of residency, or social strata may yield valuable insights to develop policies for different social groups.

In this study, particular periods of the tourism life cycle were analysed. Future longitudinal studies covering various stages of tourism development may contribute to a deeper understanding how residents' attitudes evolve with tourism development. Additionally, while this study focused on a destination driven by international sea-sand-sun tourism, similar research in destinations with alternative tourism models is necessary to validate these trends (Bimonte et al., 2019). Longitudinal studies carried out in domestic tourism destinations, or examining the national, religious and cultural proximity/distance between locals and tourists may also contribute to the literature. Finally, as this study predates the COVID-19 pandemic, pandemic-induced changes in the perceptions and support attitudes of the local people are amongst the interesting topics for future longitudinal studies (Schönherr et al., 2023).

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