

A collection of theories for use in hospitality and tourism research

As collected over the years via Feiertag HTM PhD students and faculty

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Current Version: Spring 2025

This document began as a class project over fifteen years ago and continues to evolve. PhD students in the Virginia Tech HTM Theory construction and evaluation course review and update the collection annually.

Theory entries have been collected both by students and through gracious contributions from colleagues around the world. Each entry includes an “origin” article, more recent examples of the use of the theory in hospitality and tourism, and a brief description. Please note that the determination of each entry as theory is made by the submitters and the readers. As such, we make no claims to the assessment of the theories. The document is designed only as an introduction to a wide range of theories. We strongly encourage anyone interested in one or more of the theory strains to read much more deeply before applying to any research.

A huge debt of gratitude goes to the PhD students through the years who have added to this collection. Many are now successful faculty, and I am proud of each one of you! This year, I am indebted to students and visiting scholars who participated in this project, including the addition of a new reference list: Yueming Guo, Qingyun Pang, Wencan Shen, and Hoyoung Shin.



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Theory Collection Spring 2024
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No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
1	Actor-Network Theory	Callon, M. (1999). Actor-network theory—the market test. <i>The sociological Review</i> , 47(S1), 181-195.	Jørgensen, M. (2017). Reframing tourism distribution-activity theory and actor-network theory. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 62, 312-321. Paget, E., Dimanche, F., & Mounet, J. (2010). A tourism innovation case: An actor-network approach. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 37(3), 828-847. Rech, Y., Paget, E., & Dimanche, F. (2019). Uncertain tourism: Evolution of a French winter sports resort and network dynamics. <i>Journal of Destination Marketing and Management</i> , 12(June), 95-104.	Actor-Network Theory (ANT) is a methodological approach that views both social and natural phenomena as outcomes of dynamic networks of relationships. Rather than offering a fixed theory, ANT is grounded in empirical case studies and emphasizes the interconnectedness of human and nonhuman actors. It introduces three key concepts: ordering, which examines how systems and practices are structured; materiality, which highlights the role of objects, technologies, and environments; and multiplicity, which recognizes that realities in fields like hospitality and tourism are enacted in diverse and overlapping ways. ANT provides a powerful lens for analyzing the complex, hybrid nature of tourism and hospitality experiences.
2	Adaptation Level Theory	Helson, H. (1948). Adaptation-level as a basis for a quantitative theory of frames of reference. <i>Psychological Review</i> , 55(6), 297.	Suk, K., Yoon, S., Lichtenstein, D., & Song, S. (2010). The effect of reference point diagnosticity on attractiveness and intentions ratings. <i>Journal of Marketing Research</i> , 47(5), 983-995	Adaptation Level Theory is based on the assumption that people judge stimuli with respect to internal norms (adaptation levels) representing the combined effects of present and past experiences (Helson, 1948). Therefore, all judgments are relative to an individual's existing adaptation level. The adaptation level denotes a region rather than a point on a continuum, and it changes from moment to moment.
3	Adaptive Control of Thought	Anderson, J. (1983). <i>The Architecture of Cognition</i> . Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.	Stepchenkova, S., & Li, X. (2014). Destination image: Do top-of-mind associations say it all? <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 45, 46-62.	The goal of this cognitive theory is to explain how human cognition works and explain the structures and processes of human memory, thinking, problem-solving, and language (Anderson, 1983). Adaptive control of thought theory suggests that people's memories function like an "associative network" consisting of numerous nodes (e.g., information pieces) and links (i.e., associations between nodes varying in strength). Knowledge or memory is retrieved via a "spreading activation" process – the presence of a cue will activate a

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				corresponding information node; the activation reaches a particular threshold, and the information may spread to other linked nodes.
4	Agency Theory	<p>Jensen, M., & Meckling, W. (1976). Theory of the Firm: Managerial Behavior, Agency Costs and Ownership Structure. <i>Journal of Financial Economics</i>, 3(4), 305-360.</p> <p>Eisenhardt, K. (1989). Agency theory: An assessment and review. <i>Academy of Management Review</i>, 14(1), 57-74.</p>	<p>Guilding, C., Warnken, J., Ardill, A., & Fredline, L. (2005). An agency theory perspective on the owner/manager relationship in tourism-based condominiums. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 26(3), 409–420.</p>	<p>Agency theory is concerned with resolving two problems that can occur in agency relationships. The key idea is that Principal-Agent relationships should reflect the efficient organization of information and risk-bearing costs (Eisenhardt, 1989). Agency theory can be used to emphasize how capital markets can affect the firm.</p>
5	Assemblage Theory	<p>Deleuze, G., & Guattari, F. (1987). <i>A Thousand Plateaus</i>. University of Minnesota Press.</p> <p>DeLanda, M. (2006). <i>A New Philosophy of Society: Assemblage Theory and Social Complexity</i>. Continuum</p> <p>DeLanda, M. (2016). <i>Assemblage Theory</i>. Edinburgh University Press.</p>	<p>Volo, S., & Wegerer, P. (2023). Assemblage theory in tourism. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 100, 103567.</p>	<p>Assemblage Theory, rooted in Deleuze-Guattarian philosophy, is a framework for understanding social complexity through a non-humancentric and non-systemic lens. It emphasizes the dynamic and flexible relationships among diverse, heterogeneous elements—both human and nonhuman. Rather than viewing systems as fixed or hierarchical, assemblage theory suggests that the value and meaning of any social phenomenon emerge from the interactions and combinations of its parts, where the whole is greater than the sum of its components (DeLanda, 2016).</p>

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6	Asymmetric Information Theory	Akerlof, G. (1978). The market for “lemons”: Quality uncertainty and the market mechanism. In <i>Uncertainty in Economics</i> (pp. 235-251). Academic Press.	Gim, J., & Jang, S. (2023). Dividend and investment decisions in asymmetric information environments: evidence from the restaurant industry. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i> , 35(5), 1779-1801.	Asymmetric Information Theory, developed in the 1970s and 1980s by economists like Akerlof (1970), Spence (1976), and Stiglitz (2002), explains how market failures can occur when one party—typically the seller—holds more information about a product than the other—typically the buyer. This imbalance leads to inefficiencies, such as buyers being unable to distinguish between high- and low-quality goods, which can drive down overall product quality in the market. While the theory highlights the challenges of information disparity, it also recognizes that buyers can actively seek information to reduce these imbalances.
7	Atmospheric Perspective Theory	Böhme, G. (1993). Atmosphere as the fundamental concept of a new aesthetics. <i>Thesis Eleven</i> , 36(1), 113–126.	Li, M., Han, Z., Zhou, P., Yang, S., & Zhang, Z. (2025). Understanding the airborne experiences of passengers with depression in long-haul air travels. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 107, 105085.	Atmospheric Perspective Theory explores how atmosphere—an intangible yet powerful sensory and affective presence—is formed through dynamic interactions among objects, technologies, environments, and both human and nonhuman bodies. Although atmospheres can be intentionally designed, they are fundamentally relational and continuously emerging. Individual experiences of atmosphere are shaped by cultural background and personal history. In tourism research, this theory provides a lens to understand tourist experiences as fluid and negotiated, emphasizing the ongoing interplay between travelers and their surroundings rather than viewing experience as fixed or solely individual.

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8	Attention Restoration Theory (ART)	<p>Kaplan, R., & Kaplan, S. (1989). <i>The experience of nature: A psychological perspective</i>. Cambridge University Press.</p> <p>Kaplan, S. (1995). The restorative benefits of nature: Toward an integrative framework. <i>Journal of Environmental Psychology</i>, 15(3), 169–182.</p>	<p>Li, P., Xiao, X., & Jordan, E. (2023). Tourists' visual attention and stress intensity in nature-based tourism destinations: An eye-tracking study during the COVID-19 pandemic. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 62(8), 1667-1684.</p>	<p>Attention Restoration Theory (ART) suggests that exposure to natural environments, such as parks, forests, or gardens, can replenish or restore cognitive resources depleted by the demands of daily life. The constant demands of modern life, including work, technology, and urban environments, can lead to attentional fatigue or mental exhaustion. The depletion of cognitive resources can impair attention, concentration, and problem-solving abilities. ART proposes four big key concepts: 1) Contrast of daily life, 2) Exposure to restorative environments, 3) Soft fascination, and 4) Attention restoration. ART suggests that natural environments offer soft fascination, which is effortless attention that allows for reflection and restoration without cognitive overload. This contrasts with the hard fascination of urban environments. According to this theory, natural environments can promote a sense of fascination and relaxation.</p>
9	Attraction-Repulsion Theory	<p>Josiassen, A. (2011). Consumer disidentification and its effects on domestic product purchases: An empirical investigation. <i>Journal of Marketing</i>, 75(2), 124–140</p>	<p>Josiassen, A., Kock, F., Assaf, A., & Berbekova, A. (2023). The role of affinity and animosity on solidarity with Ukraine and hospitality outcomes. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 96, 104712.</p> <p>Josiassen, A., Kock, F., & Nørfelt, A. (2022). Tourism affinity and its effects on tourist and resident behavior. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 61(2), 299-313.</p>	<p>Attraction-Repulsion Theory is a psychological and meta-theoretical framework that explains how individuals form predispositions based on forces of attraction and repulsion. These forces are largely influenced by perceived similarity and dissimilarity, aligning with the similarity-attraction and dissimilarity-repulsion hypotheses. However, they can also stem from emotional bonds, moral values, and identity-related factors. The theory offers a unified explanation for attitudes such as ethnocentrism, affinity, animosity, and disidentification, making it valuable for understanding consumer and social behavior in contexts like tourism and international marketing.</p>

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10	Attribution Theory	Kelley, H. (1973). The processes of causal attribution. <i>American Psychologist</i> , 28(2), 107.	Shin, S., Shin, H., & Gim, J. (2023). How positive do testimonials on a restaurant website need to be? Impact of positivity of testimonial reviews on customers' decision-making. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 108, 103382.	<p>Attribution theory is a theory of how people explain causation and answer questions that begin with "why?" (Kelley, 1973). Kelley (1973) developed the covariance model, explaining that this model comprehensively considers consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency information, and he mentioned that errors existed, explaining two errors.- Error 1: there is a tendency to underestimate the contextual factors in which behavior occurred and easily attribute it to the propensity of the actor who performed the behavior.</p> <p>- Error 2: 'Other people's behavior is caused by disposition and attitude factors, and my behavior is caused by the situation'.</p> <p>Kelley (1973) explained that attribution theory only deals with the process by which attributions are derived from informational input, and is concerned with how much evidence is provided as the cause of a behavior.</p>
11	Balance Theory	Heider, F. (1946). Attitudes and cognitive organization. <i>Journal of Psychology</i> , 21, 107-112.	Chung, N., Lee, H., Kim, J., & Koo, C. (2018). The role of augmented reality for experience-influenced environments: The case of cultural heritage tourism in Korea. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 57(5), 627-643.	Balance theory is a theory of attitude change that conceptualizes the cognitive consistency motive as a drive toward psychological balance. The consistency motive is the urge to maintain one's values and beliefs over time. When conflicts or tensions happen, people try to reduce these tensions through self-convincing or convincing others. The theory introduced the concept of triads, which consist of three elements: a person, another person, and an object. Each element in the triad can have either a positive or negative valence, representing whether the person views it favorably or unfavorably. To resolve imbalance, individuals may employ various cognitive strategies, such as changing their attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors toward the elements involved in the triad.
12	Broaden-and-Build Theory	Fredrickson, B. (1998). What good are positive emotions? <i>Review of General Psychology</i> , 2(3), 300–319.	Lin, J., Chen, F., & Filieri, R. (2019). Resident-tourist value co-creation: The role of residents'	The Broaden-and-Build Theory (BBT), developed by Barbara Fredrickson (1998, 2001), highlights the vital role of positive emotions in human growth

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		<p>Fredrickson, B. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. <i>American Psychologist</i>, 56(3), 218–226.</p> <p>Tugade, M., & Fredrickson, B. (2004). Resilient individuals use positive emotions to bounce back from negative emotional experiences. <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i>, 86(2), 320–333.</p>	<p>positive emotions. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 78, 102743.</p>	<p>and adaptability. It proposes that emotions like joy, interest, and contentment broaden individuals' thought–action repertoires, encouraging exploration and creativity. Over time, these broadened experiences help individuals build lasting personal resources—cognitive, emotional, social, and physical—that support long-term resilience and well-being. Unlike models focused on negative emotions and stress, BBT underscores the evolutionary benefits of positive emotions in enhancing individual capacity and adaptation.</p>
13	Categorization Theory	<p>Alba, J., & Hutchinson, J. (1987). Dimensions of consumer expertise. <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i>, 13(4), 411-454.</p> <p>Cohen, J., & Basu, K. (1987). Alternative models of categorization: Toward a contingent processing framework. <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i>, 13(4), 455-472.</p>	<p>Loken, B., Barsalou, L., & Joiner, C. (2008). Categorization theory and research in consumer psychology. <i>Handbook of Consumer Psychology</i>, 5, 133-165.</p>	<p>From the categorization perspective, consumers' knowledge about products or brands forms at least partially integrated (i.e., schema-like) structures in memory. Such memory structures are composed, at a minimum, of similarly perceived/judged objects (which we refer to as a category) and associated object-based and category-based knowledge (Cohen & Basu, 1987). Consumers construct and use categorical representations to classify, interpret, and understand the information they receive about these products and services (Loken et al. 2008).</p>
14	Chaos Theory	<p>Lorenz, E.. (1963). Deterministic nonperiodic flow. <i>Journal of Atmospheric Sciences</i>, 20(2), 130-141.</p>	<p>Altinay, L., & Arici, H. (2022). Transformation of the hospitality services marketing structure: A chaos theory perspective. <i>Journal of Services Marketing</i>, 36(5), 658-673.</p>	<p>Chaos theory, also known as butterfly theory, proposes that within the apparent randomness of chaotic complex systems, there are underlying patterns, interconnection, constant feedback loops, repetition, self-similarity, fractals, and self-organization. Chaos theory concerns deterministic systems whose behavior can, in principle, be predicted. Tourism and hospitality are commonly described as intricate and dynamic systems, often characterized by nonlinearity and complexity much like a chaotic model.</p>

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15	Choice-set Theory	Howard, J. (1963). <i>Marketing Management: Analysis and Planning</i> . RD Irwin. Howard, J., & Sheth, J. (1969). <i>The theory of buyer behavior</i> . New York, 63, 145.	Crompton, J. (1992). Structure of vacation destination choice sets. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 19(3), 420-434.	The original concept of choice sets was introduced by Howard (1963) and later elaborated upon by Howard and Sheth (1969). Howard introduced the concepts of awareness, unawareness, and evoked sets. Howard suggested that all brands belong either to the consumer's awareness set or the unawareness set. For instance, a potential traveler first develops a set of destinations from his/her early consideration or awareness set. The destinations are chosen from a large number of destination alternatives, comprising all the destinations available, which is also known as the "total set." The number of alternatives is then refined to create an evoked set. Finally, one destination is selected from the evoked set as the final choice.
16	Co-creation Theory	Vargo, S., & Lusch, R. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. <i>Journal of Marketing</i> , 68(1), 1-17.	Grönroos, C. (2011). A service perspective on business relationships: The value creation, interaction and marketing interface. <i>Industrial Marketing Management</i> , 40(2), 240-247.	Value co-creation theory is a marketing concept that suggests that value is created through the collaboration of companies and customers. This theory proposes that customers are not just passive recipients of value, but active participants in the value creation process. (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). During part of the value-creating process, specifically during interactions with users, in addition to its role as a value facilitator, the supplier may become a co-creator of value. The core factor in value co-creation is the interactions between suppliers and consumers (Grönroos, 2011).
17	Cognitive Activation Theory of Stress (CATS)	Ursin, H., & Eriksen, H. (2004). The Cognitive Activation Theory of Stress. <i>Psychoneuroendocrinology</i> , 29(5), 567-592.	Petrack, J., Markert, C., & Sasangohar, F. (2021). Stress for success: Potential benefits of perceived and actual stress while cruising. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 60(8), 1787-1801.	Originating from the field of physiological health, the Cognitive Activation Theory of Stress (CATS) elucidates the mechanisms through which individuals perceive and manage stress, encompassing its positive and negative ramifications. This theory elucidates that CATS delineates the stress process through four key components: (1) stress triggers or stressors, (2) cognitive assessment by the brain (appraisal), (3) reactions to stress (alarm), and (4) individuals' reflections on the stress response.

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18	Cognitive Appraisal Theory (CAT)	<p>Lazarus, R., & Folkman, S. (1984). <i>Stress, Appraisal, and coping</i>. Springer.</p> <p>Ellsworth, P., & Scherer, K. (2003). Appraisal Processes in Emotion. In <i>Handbook of Affective Sciences</i> (pp. 572-595). Oxford University Press.</p> <p>Moors, A. (2009). Theories of emotion causation: A review. <i>Cognition & Emotion</i>, 23(4), 625-662.</p>	<p>Hosany, S. (2012). Appraisal Determinants of Tourist Emotional Responses. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 51(3), 303-314.</p> <p>Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N., & Ding, P. (2013). Customer delight derived from theme park experiences: The antecedents of delight based on cognitive appraisal theory. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 42, 359-381.</p>	Cognitive Appraisal Theory (CAT) explains that emotions arise from an individual's evaluation—or appraisal—of external events based on specific dimensions such as goal importance, goal congruence, and novelty. These appraisals determine both the emotional valence (positive or negative) and arousal level. CAT emphasizes that emotions are internally generated, rational responses reflecting how a situation aligns with personal goals. Rooted in cognitive psychology, the theory highlights the subjective and goal-oriented nature of emotional experiences.
19	Cognitive Development Theory	<p>Piaget, J. (1929). <i>The Child's Conception of the World</i>. Routledge.</p>	<p>Fischer, K. (1980). A theory of cognitive development: The control and construction of hierarchies of skills. <i>Psychological Review</i>, 87(6), 477.</p>	Cognitive theories focus on how our mental processes or cognitions change over time. Cognitive development is explained by skill structures called "levels," together with transformation rules relating these levels to each other. The transformation rules specify the developmental steps by which a skill moves gradually from one level of complexity to the next. At every step in these developmental sequences, the individual controls a particular skill. Skills are gradually transformed from sensory-motor actions to representations and then to abstractions. The transformations produce continuous behavioral changes. Across the entire profile of a person's skills and within highly practiced task domains, a stage like shift in skills occurs as the person develops to an optimal level. The theory suggests a common framework for integrating developmental analyses of cognitive, social, language, and perceptual-motor skills and certain behavioral changes in learning and problem solving.

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20	Cognitive Dissonance Theory	Festinger, L. (1957). <i>A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance</i> . Stanford University Press.	Izogo, E., Mpinganjira, M., Karjaluoto, H., & Liu, H. (2022). Examining the impact of eWOM-triggered customer-to-customer interactions on travelers' repurchase and social media engagement. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 61(8), 1872-1894.	Cognitive dissonance refers to the psychological stress experienced when a person encounters conflicting information, beliefs, values, or behaviors. This internal inconsistency triggers discomfort, prompting an individual to seek resolution by modifying their attitudes, beliefs, or actions to restore harmony. Originating from Leon Festinger's theories in the mid-20th century, cognitive dissonance underscores the human drive for mental consistency. People may resort to rationalization, adopting new beliefs to justify their actions, or confirmation bias, avoiding contradicting evidence, to mitigate this discomfort. This concept illustrates the complex process individuals undergo to align their internal beliefs with external realities, highlighting the mental effort involved in coping with or resolving contradictory perceptions.
21	Cognitive Load Theory	Sweller, J. (1988). Cognitive load during problem solving: Effects on learning. <i>Cognitive Science</i> , 12(2), 257–285.	Bird, J., Smart, P., Harris, D., Phillips, L., Giannachi, G., & Vine, S. (2023). A magic leap in tourism: Intended and realized experience of head-mounted augmented reality in a museum context. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 62(7), 1427-1447.	Cognitive load theory examines how the working memory processes information and the implications of cognitive load on learning. The theory distinguishes between three types of cognitive load: intrinsic, extraneous, and germane. Intrinsic cognitive load is inherent to the complexity of the material being learned, while extraneous cognitive load refers to the additional mental effort imposed by the instructional design or presentation format. Germane cognitive load, on the other hand, is the mental effort devoted to processing and organizing information into long-term memory. Cognitive Load Theory emphasizes the importance of managing extraneous cognitive load to optimize learning by reducing unnecessary distractions and cognitive overload, allowing learners to allocate more mental resources to understanding and retaining essential information.

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22	Commitment Trust Theory	Morgan, R., & Hunt, S. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing, <i>The Journal of Marketing</i> , 58, 3.	Bowen, J., & Shoemaker, S. (2003). Loyalty: A strategic Commitment, <i>Cornell Quarterly</i> , 12-25.	Trust and commitment are at the heart of any successful relationship with customers (Morgan et al., 1994). In this theory, commitment depends on four variables: relationship benefits, relationship termination costs, shared values and trust. Trust itself is dependent on three variables: shared values, communication and opportunistic behavior.
23	Commodity Theory	<p>Brock, T. (1968). Implications of commodity theory for value change. In <i>Psychological Foundations of Attitudes</i> (pp. 243-275). Academic Press.</p> <p>Lynn, M. (1991). Scarcity effects on value: A quantitative review of the commodity theory literature. <i>Psychology & Marketing</i>, 8(1), 43-57.</p>	Chung, N., Song, H., & Lee, H. (2017). Consumers' impulsive buying behavior of restaurant products in social commerce. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i> .	This theory postulates that scarcity enhances the value of products and services. According to the theory, consumers tend to have much stronger needs for unique or scarce products and services. Lynn (1991, p. 3) explained this phenomenon as “a pervasive aspect of human life and is a fundamental precondition of economic behavior.”
24	Community of Practice	Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). Legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice. In <i>Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation</i> (pp.91-118). Cambridge University Press.	<p>Carnegie, E., & Kociatkiewicz, J. (2019). Occupying whateverland: Journeys to museums in the Baltic. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 75, 238-247.</p> <p>Pang, Q., Liao, Z., & Xiao, H. (2024). Communities of learning and practice: a research agenda in tourism. <i>Tourism Geographies</i>, 26(3), 474-497.</p>	Community of Practice Theory explains how individuals learn and develop expertise through active participation in a social group centered around a shared interest or profession. A community of practice is formed through three key elements: Domain (a common area of interest), Community (a group of people who engage regularly), and Practice (shared tools, experiences, and methods). Learning is situated, meaning newcomers gain skills and knowledge by participating in real-world activities alongside more experienced members. This theory is widely applied in education, business, and organizational learning to support knowledge sharing and professional development.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
25	Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)	Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. <i>American psychologist</i> , 44(3), 513.	Lee, J., & Ok, C. (2015). Examination of factors affecting hotel employees' service orientation: An emotional labor perspective. <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research</i> , 39(4), 437-468.	COR posits that individuals endeavor to preserve, protect, and build resources that may be under threat. Resources are objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are important to the person or used to gain such objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies for the person (Hobfoll, 1989). Loss and gain of important resources lead to stress or well-being. People can mitigate stress by restoring resources or reevaluating the value of lost resources.
26	Construal Level Theory	Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (1998). The role of feasibility and desirability considerations in near and distant future decisions: A test of temporal construal theory. <i>Journal of personality and social psychology</i> , 75(1), 5.	Kah, J. A., Lee, C. K., & Lee, S. H. (2016). Spatial-temporal distances in travel intention-behavior. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 57, 160-175. Kim, J., Kim, P. B., Kim, J. E., & Magnini, V. P. (2016). Application of construal-level theory to promotional strategies in the hotel industry. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 55(3), 340-352.	Construal level theory (CLT) postulates the influence of psychological distance on an individual's perception. According to CLT, individuals use low-level construal if they perceive specific targets as close, but they use high-level construal when they represent psychologically far objects (Kim et al. 2016). Low-level construal is concrete, subordinate, and unstructured, whereas high-level construal is abstract, superordinate, and structured (Liberman and Trope 1998). Hence, individuals tend to construe psychologically far objects with abstract aspects of goals, but they focus on the concrete aspects of goals when they face psychologically close objects (Kah, Lee, and Lee 2016).
27	Consumption Value Theory (CVT)	Sheth, J., Newman, B., & Gross, B. (1991). Why we buy what we buy: A theory of consumption values. <i>Journal of Business Research</i> , 22(2), 159-170.	Stone, M., & Zou, S. (Sharon). (2023). Consumption value in food tourism: the effects on purchase involvement and post-travel behaviours. <i>Tourism Recreation Research</i> , 50(2), 214-228. Phau, I., Quintal, V., & Shanka, T. (2014). Examining a consumption values theory approach of young tourists toward destination choice intentions. <i>International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research</i> , 8(2), 125-139.	Consumption Value Theory (CVT) is a key framework in consumer behavior research that explains why consumers make specific purchasing decisions. It posits that consumer choices are influenced by multiple dimensions of value: functional (practical utility), social (influence of others), emotional (feelings evoked), epistemic (novelty or knowledge-seeking), and conditional (contextual factors). By accounting for these diverse value types, CVT offers a comprehensive understanding of consumer preferences, motivations, and behaviors across various market settings.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
28	Contingency Theory	Schoonhoveddn, C. B. (1981). Problems with contingency theory: testing assumptions hidden within the language of contingency" theory". <i>Administrative science quarterly</i> , 349-377.	Sillince, J. A. (2005). A contingency theory of rhetorical congruence. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 30(3), 608–621. Ginsberg, A., & Venkatraman, N. (1985). Contingency perspectives of organizational strategy: A critical review of the empirical research. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 10(3), 421-434.	Contingency theory is a class of behavioral theory that claims that there is no best way to organize a corporation, lead a company, or make decisions. Instead, the optimal course of action is contingent (dependent) upon the internal and external situation. Several contingency approaches were developed concurrently in the late 1960s.
29	Critical Pedagogy	Freire, P. (1994). <i>Pedagogy of Hope</i> . Continuum Giroux, H. (1985). Critical pedagogy, cultural politics and the discourse of experience. <i>Journal of education</i> , 167(2), 22-41. Giroux, H. (2010). Rethinking education as the practice of freedom: Paulo Freire and the promise of critical pedagogy. <i>Policy futures in education</i> , 8(6), 715-721.	Belhassen, Y., & Caton, K. (2011). On the need for critical pedagogy in tourism education. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 32(6), 1389-1396.	Critical Pedagogy is an educational approach that encourages learners to develop critical awareness of the socio-political forces influencing their lives, identities, and worldviews. Rooted in the work of Paulo Freire and Henry Giroux, it emphasizes dialogue, reflection, and empowerment, aiming to transform education into a practice of freedom that challenges oppression and promotes social justice.
30	Critical Race Theory	Bell, D. A. (1995). <i>Who's afraid of critical race theory</i> . U. Ill. L. Rev., 89	Dillette, A. K., Benjamin, S., & Carpenter, C. (2019). Tweeting the black travel experience: Social media counternarrative stories as innovative insight on #TravelingWhileBlack. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 58(8), 1357-1372.	Critical Race Theory (CRT) has been described as a movement as well as an analytic tool. CRT emerged from critical legal studies as a way of recognizing the intersection of the law and identities. CRT argues that racism is deeply embedded into the systems and policies of western society (Bell 1995), including the systems associated with travel and tourism (Dillette et al., 2019). As such, in order to improve race relations, the systems must be assessed and re-structured to create a more equitable and just society.
31	Critical Theory	Marcuse, H., & Freud, S. (1961). <i>Eros and Civilization. A Philosophical Inquiry Into Freud... With a New Preface by the Author</i> . Vintage Books	Kensbock, S., Jennings, G., Bailey, J., & Patiar, A. (2013). The lowest rung': Women room attendants' perceptions of five star hotels' operational hierarchies. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 35, 360-368.	Critical theory, a social theory, relates to the human condition, freedom, emancipation, oppression, domination, and the importance of reason (McCarthy, 1978). Critical theorists look at thought and reason from a position of caution, comparing it

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
		<p>McCarthy, T. (1978). The critical theory of Jurgen Habermas.</p> <p>Held, D. (1980). <i>Introduction to critical theory: Horkheimer to Habermas</i> (Vol. 261). Univ of California Press.</p>		to a mirror in which the objects (facts) are not always what they seem in real life as they do in their reflection of it. Recognition of power structures and the dominant hegemony are central to critical theory.
32	Cross-Cultural Adaptation Theory	<p>Kim, Y. Y. (1988). <i>Communication and cross-cultural adaptation: An integrative theory</i>. Multilingual Matters.</p> <p>Kim, Y. Y. (2001). <i>Becoming intercultural: An integrative theory of communication and cross-cultural adaptation</i>. Sage.</p>	Kim, Y. Y., & McKay-Semmler, K. (2013). Social engagement and cross-cultural adaptation: An examination of direct-and mediated interpersonal communication activities of educated non-natives in the United States. <i>International Journal of Intercultural Relations</i> , 37(1), 99-112.	Cross-cultural adaptation can be defined as “the dynamic process by which individuals, upon relocating to a new, unfamiliar, or changed sociocultural environment, establish (or reestablish) and maintain a relatively stable, reciprocal, and functional relationship with the environment” (Kim. 2001, p. 31). In her pioneer theory, Kim (1988) took a system approach: individuals arriving in a new culture are described as being in disequilibrium with their environment. These individuals will be able to adapt to their new environment if they are able to manage their stress and grow from their experiences.
33	Cultivation Theory	Gerbner, G. (1998). Cultivation analysis: An overview. <i>Mass Communication and Society</i> , 1(3-4), 175-194	<p>Kim, S., Kim, S., & Petrick, J. F. (2019). The effect of film nostalgia on involvement, familiarity, and behavioral intentions. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 58(2), 283–297.</p> <p>Kang, S. E., Koo, C., & Chung, N. (2023). Creepy vs. cool: Switching from human staff to service robots in the hospitality industry. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 111, 103479.</p>	Cultivation theory posits that long-term exposure to media content shapes individuals' perceptions of social reality. The repeated portrayal of certain themes, values, and norms in media content gradually influences viewers' beliefs and attitudes about the world. The theory suggests that long-term immersion in media content, particularly television, cultivates a shared view of the world among viewers, often characterized by the themes and values portrayed in media narratives. This theory highlights the powerful role of mass media in shaping social reality and underscores the importance of critically analyzing media representations and their potential effects on individuals and society.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
34	Cultural Assimilation Theory	<p>Henri Bunle. (1950). The cultural assimilation of immigrants. <i>Population Studies</i>, 3: 5-11.</p> <p>Gans, Herbert J. (1992). Second-Generation Decline: Scenarios for the Economic and Ethnic Futures of the Post-1965 American immigrants. <i>Ethnic and Racial Studies</i>, 15: 173.-92.</p>	<p>Sandra L. Shaull & James H. Gramann. (1998). The Effect of Cultural Assimilation on the Importance of Family-Related and Nature-Related Recreation among Hispanic Americans. <i>Journal of Leisure Research</i>, 30:1, 47-63</p> <p>Buluk, B., & Duran, E. (2021). Tourism Impact on Prejudice, Discrimination, Assimilation, Genocide, Segregation, and Integration. In M. Kozak & P. Baloglu (Eds.), <i>Tourism and Travel Management: Contemporary Issues and Emerging Trends</i> (pp. 213-230). Routledge.</p>	Cultural assimilation refers to the process in which a minority group or immigrants adopt and integrate the cultural norms, values, beliefs, and practices of the dominant society. In other words, cultural assimilation is the gradual and often voluntary process of adopting the cultural characteristics of the host society and abandoning the cultural traditions of one's own group. This can include changes in language, clothing, cuisine, and social customs. Cultural assimilation is often seen as a necessary step for immigrants or minority groups to become fully accepted and integrated into the broader society. In the tourism context, it is possible that different behaviors and attitudes from tourists will influence the local culture and residents. Buluk and Duran (2021) argue that tourism can promote cultural assimilation by providing opportunities for intercultural contact and exchange. For example, when tourists from different cultures interact with each other, they may learn about each other's cultural norms, beliefs, and practices and develop a greater appreciation and understanding of different cultures.
35	Customer-Dominant Logic Perspective/Framework	Heinonen, K., Strandvik, T., Mickelsson, K. J., Edvardsson, B., Sundström, E., & Andersson, P. (2010). A customer-dominant logic of service. <i>Journal of Service management</i> , 21(4), 531-548.	Heinonen, K. (2023). Characterizing ex situ value: A customer-dominant perspective on value. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 62(8), 1707-1721.	Customer-dominant Logic (CD-L) explains a shift in perspective toward the relationship between businesses and their customers. Drawing from goods-dominant logic and service-dominant logic, this theory emphasizes that value is not created by the producer but co-created through interactions between the customer and the business. In this logic, customers are regarded as active participants who shape their own experiences and derive the value from products and services they consume. Key aspects of CD-L include value co-creation, customer-centric perspective, dynamic and contextual nature, and emphasis on building relationships with customers.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
36	Diffusion of Innovation	<p>Tarde, G. (1897). <i>L'opposiion universelle</i>. Paris: Alcan.</p> <p>Rogers, E.M. (1962). <i>Diffusion of Innovations</i>. Free Press, New York.</p> <p>Pemberton, H. E. (1936). The Curve of Culture Diffusion Rate. <i>American Sociological Review</i>, 1 (4): 547-556</p>	<p>McGehee, N.G. and F. Meng (2006). The Politics of Perception: Legislative Images of the Tourism Industry in Virginia and North Carolina. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 44: 368-378.</p> <p>McGehee, N.G., F. Meng and Y. Tepanon (2006). Understanding U.S. Legislators and Their Perceptions of the Tourism Industry: The Case of North Carolina, 1990-2003. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 27:4, 684-694.</p> <p>Horng, S., Liu, C., Chou, S., Tsai, C., & Chung, Y. (2017). From innovation to sustainability: Sustainability innovations of eco-friendly hotels in Taiwan. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 63, 44-52</p>	<p>Diffusion of Innovations is a theory of how, why, and at what rate new ideas, products, and technologies are adopted by individuals and groups within a society over time. The concept was first studied by the French sociologist Gabriel Tarde (1897). Its basic epidemiological or internal-influence form was described by H. Earl Pemberton (1936), who provided examples of institutional diffusions such as postage stamps or compulsory school laws. The publication in a broader interest in innovations was especially popularized by the textbook by Everett Rogers (1962). He defines diffusion of innovation as "the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system."</p> <p>Rogers also identified five categories of adopters based on their willingness to try new innovations: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. The theory suggests that different types of individuals adopt innovations at different rates and that successful innovation adoption requires understanding each group's needs and motivations.</p>
37	Diminishing Returns Theory	<p>Ricardo, D. (1815). <i>An essay on the influence of a low price of corn on the profits of stock, with remarks on Mr. Malthus' two last publications</i>. John Murray.</p>	<p>McFadyen, M. A., & Cannella Jr, A. A. (2004). Social capital and knowledge creation: Diminishing returns of the number and strength of exchange relationships. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i>, 47(5), 735–746.</p>	<p>The diminishing returns theory (also called law of diminishing returns) is a theory in economics. It predicts that after some optimal level of capacity is reached, adding a factor of production will actually result in smaller increases in output. The earliest applications of the Law of Diminishing Returns were to farming.</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
38	Dramaturgy Social Theory	<p>Goffman, E. (1949). Presentation of self in everyday life. <i>American Journal of Sociology</i>, 55, 6-7.</p> <p>Grove, S. J., & Fisk, R. P. (1983). The dramaturgy of services exchange: an analytical framework for services marketing. <i>Emerging perspectives on services marketing</i>, 45-49.</p>	Ziakas, V. (2021). Reclaiming drama in tourism research: a dramatological analytic, <i>Tourism Recreation Research</i> .	Erving Goffman, recognized as one of the most influential sociologists of the 20th century, created the Dramaturgy Social Theory shortly after graduating from his Ph.D. The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life (1949) is Goffman's seminal book. It advances a constructionism perspective where he presents the notion that self (a person's sense of who they are) is contingent upon time, place and audience in how that individual will present themselves. Self is also based upon cultural values, norms, and beliefs. The theory utilizes a metaphor derived from theater to provide a framework for micro-sociological interactions found in everyday life, a perspective stemming from symbolic interactionism (Grove & Fisk, 1983). The results of the staged communication, supporting behaviors, and gestures help the actor to shape the desired impressions upon the audience.
39	Dual Coding Theory	Paivio, A. (1991). Dual coding theory: Retrospect and current status. <i>Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue canadienne de psychologie</i> , 45(3), 255.	Lee, A., & Kim, M. G. (2020). Effective electronic menu presentation: From the cognitive style and mental imagery perspectives. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 87, 102377.	Dual coding theory proposes that cognitive processing involves two distinct systems for representing information: verbal and non-verbal. Verbal coding includes linguistic elements like words and sentences, while non-verbal coding involves visual imagery, diagrams, and spatial relationships. According to this theory, information can be encoded simultaneously using both verbal and non-verbal codes, providing multiple pathways for memory retrieval. In other words, concrete concepts are easier to remember than abstract ones, as they can be readily visualized.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
40	Dual Process Theory	Groves, P. M., & Thompson, R. F. (1970). Habituation: A dual process theory. <i>Psychological Review</i> , 77(5), 419–450. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0029810	Pearce, P. L., & Packer, J. (2013). Minds on the move: New links from psychology to tourism. <i>Annals of tourism research</i> , 40, 386–411.	Dual process theory, also known as dual-system theory or dual-process model, is a fundamental concept in cognitive psychology that explains human decision-making and thinking processes through the interaction of two distinct cognitive systems: System 1 and System 2. They are not mutually exclusive, and individuals may switch between these modes depending on the task, context, and personal factors. For instance, simple and familiar tasks may rely more on System 1, while novel or complex tasks may engage System 2. Specifically, System 1 thinking operates automatically, intuitively, with little effort or conscious control, while System 2 is related to slower, more deliberate with conscious effort and concentration.
41	Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)	Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T., Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). <i>The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion</i> (pp. 1–24). Springer New York.	Pillai, S. G., Kim, W. G., Haldorai, K., & Kim, H. S. (2022). Online food delivery services and consumers' purchase intention: Integration of theory of planned behavior, theory of perceived risk, and the elaboration likelihood model. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 105, 103275.	The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) was proposed in online communication studies, describing how individuals process persuasive messages and make decisions through two distinct routes: the central route and the peripheral route. Individuals who process information through a central route evaluate the argument and assess the evidence critically. Individuals with peripheral routes evaluate and make decisions without comprehensive cognitive elaboration. This model proposes that depending on how individuals evaluate the messages, their decisions, behaviors, and attitudes will be different.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
42	Emotional Contagion Theory	Hatfield, E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Rapson, R. L. (1994). <i>Emotional contagion, in Studies in Emotion and Social Interaction</i> . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press	Wood, A., Rychlowska, M., Korb, S., & Niedenthal, P. (2016). Fashioning the face: Sensorimotor simulation contributes to facial expression recognition. <i>Trends in Cognitive Sciences</i> , 20(3), 227–240. Zhang, S., Chen, N., Hsu, C. H. C., & Hao, J.-X. (2022). Multi-Modal-based Emotional Contagion from Tourists to Hosts: The Dual-Process Mechanism. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 0(0).	Emotional Contagion is the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally (Hatfield et al., 1994). Such mimicry of smiles, frowns, or other emotional expressions often happens within milliseconds and without our consciousness (Wood et al., 2016). By mimicking others' facial expressions, we can tap into how they are feeling and experience similar emotions ourselves. Based on these emotions, we are then susceptible to behaving one way or another. Emotional contagion can be negative or positive.
43	Equity Theory	Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. <i>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</i> , 67, 422-436	Ching-Fu Chen, C.F & Tsai, M.H.(2008). Perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty of TV travel product shopping: Involvement as a moderator, <i>Tourism Management</i> , 29(2008),1166– 1171 Kwon, S., Jang, S. (2012). Effects of compensation for service recovery: From the equity theory perspective, <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 31(4).	Equity theory was first developed in the 1960s by J. Stacy Adams, a workplace and behavioral psychologist, who asserted that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they receive from it against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others. Equity theory captures the concept of fairness perception, which has been used to explain how consumers respond to recovery efforts (Kwon & Jang, 2012). Customers evaluate what is fair, right, or deserved for the perceived cost of the offering, including monetary payments and non-monetary sacrifices such as time consumption, energy consumption, and stress experienced by customers.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
44	Event System Theory	Morgeson, F. P., Mitchell, T. R., & Liu, D. (2015). Event System Theory: An Event-Oriented Approach to the Organizational Sciences. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 40(4), 515-537.	<p>Lu, S., Zhu, W., & Wei, J. (2020). Assessing the impacts of tourism events on city development in China: A perspective of event system. <i>Current Issues in Tourism</i>, 23(12), 1528-1541.</p> <p>Jiang, J., Dong, H., Dong, Y., Gu, H., & Lv, Y. (2024). The double-edged sword effect of mega sport event strength on volunteer performance. <i>Tourism Review</i>.</p>	Event system theory is a conceptual framework that focuses on understanding organizational behavior by analyzing events and their impact on individuals, teams, and organizations. This theory suggests that events, which can be defined as discrete incidents or occurrences that disrupt the status quo, play a crucial role in shaping behavior, attitudes, and outcomes within organizations. By focusing on the dynamic interplay between events, individual perceptions, and organizational processes, this theory enhances our understanding of organizational change, adaptation, and resilience.
45	Expectancy Theory	Victor Vroom. (1964). <i>Work and Motivation</i> . New York: Wiley	<p>Gnoth, J. (1997). Tourism Motivation and expectation formation. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 24(2)</p> <p>Chiang, C. et al. (2008). An Expectancy theory model for hotel employee motivation: Examining the moderating role of communication satisfaction, <i>International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration</i>, 9(4)</p>	Expectancy theory is about the mental processes regarding choice. The theory suggests that motivation is based on the perceived relationship between effort, performance, and outcomes. According to the theory, individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors that they believe will lead to desired outcomes, and the strength of their motivation depends on three factors: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Vroom, 1964). Expectancy theory predicts that employees in an organization will be motivated when they believe that putting in more effort will yield better job performance. Better job performance will lead to organizational rewards, such as an increase in salary or benefits these predicted organizational rewards are valued by the employee in question.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
46	Expectation Disconfirmation Theory	<p>Oliver, Richard L. (1977). Effect of expectation and disconfirmation on postexposure product evaluations: An alternative interpretation. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>. 62 (4): 480–486.</p> <p>Oliver, Richard L. (1980). A Cognitive Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Satisfaction Decisions. <i>Journal of Marketing Research</i>. 17 (4): 460–469.</p>	Abrate, G., Quinton, S., Pera, R. (2021). The relationship between price paid and hotel review ratings: Expectancy-disconfirmation or placebo effect? <i>Tourism Management</i> , 85.	Expectation Disconfirmation Theory is a cognitive theory that seeks to explain post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction as a function of expectations, perceived performance, and disconfirmation. The structure of the theory was formed in a series of two papers written by Richard L. Oliver (1977) and the second in a marketing paper in 1980. When a product or service outperforms the person's original expectations, the disconfirmation is positive, which is posited to increase post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction. When a product or service underperforms the person's original expectations, the disconfirmation is negative, which is posited to decrease post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction (Oliver, 1980).
47	Fairness Theory	Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. <i>Advances in organizational justice</i> , 1, 1-55.	<p>McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Sparks, B. A. (2003). Application of fairness theory to service failures and service recovery. <i>Journal of Service Research</i>, 5(3), 251-266.</p> <p>Namkung, Y., Jang, S. S., Almanza, B., & Ismail, J. (2009). Identifying the underlying structure of perceived service fairness in restaurants. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i>, 21(4), 375-392.</p>	Fairness theory is a social psychological theory that seeks to explain how people perceive fairness and justice in the workplace. According to the theory, individuals evaluate their work situation based on the degree to which they perceive the distribution of rewards, resources, and opportunities to be fair and just (Folger and Cropanzano, 2001). The theory suggests that, following a service failure, customers engage in a process known as counterfactual thinking in which they imagine things that didn't actually happen. Moral accountability for service recovery actions is the core of fairness theory as it may impact the customer's psychological well-being.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
48	Feeling as Information Theory	Schwarz, N. (2010). Feelings-as-information theory. In P. A. M. Van Lange, A. W. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), <i>Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology</i> (Vol. 1, pp. 289-308). Sage Publications Ltd.	Huang, Y., Wu, J., & Shi, W. (2018). The impact of font choice on web pages: Relationship with willingness to pay and tourism motivation. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 66, 191-199. Shin, S., Chung, N., Xiang, Z., & Koo, C. (2019). Assessing the Impact of Textual Content Concreteness on Helpfulness in Online Travel Reviews. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 58(4), 579–593.	This theory conceptualizes the role of subjective experiences – including moods, emotions, metacognitive experiences, and bodily sensations – in judgment. It assumes that people attend to their feelings as a source of information, with different feelings providing different types of information. Feeling as Information Theory (FIT) argues that people’s feelings can be an important information source reflecting their situation; it motivates different processing strategies. According to FIT, individuals can evaluate objects based on their affections. One’s feeling reflects his or her environmental situation; for example, a negative mood signals a bad situation because it is usually caused by threats, and a positive mood can be created in response to outcomes from benign situations (Schwarz, 2010)
49	Formal & Substantive Rationality Theory	Weber, M. 1920. <i>Gesammelte Aufsdtze zur Religionssoziologie</i> (Collected Essays on the Sociology of Religion), Vol. 1. Tübingen, Germany: Mohr. Weber, M. (1922) <i>Economy and Society</i> . University of California Press, Berkeley.	McGehee, N. G., K. Kim and G. Jennings (2007). Gender and Motivation for Agri-tourism Entrepreneurship. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 28:1 (280-289). McGehee, N. G. (2007). An Agri-Tourism Systems Model: A Weberian Perspective. <i>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</i> . 15:2, 111-124. Mody, M., Day, J. (2014). Rationality of social entrepreneurs in tourism: Max Weber and the sociology of tourism development. <i>International Journal of Tourism Anthropology</i> , 3:3, 227-244	Weber (1922) argued that there are two forms of rationality (the reasons for engaging in economic enterprise): formal and substantive. Weber defines formal rationality as the purposeful and quantifiable calculation of the most efficient means and procedures to realize goals. Substantive rationality, on the other hand, focuses on acting in accordance with community and cultural values. No one value is seen as the center of the decision-making process. In other words, formal rationality is economic-based (to make money to feed my family, etc.). Substantive rationality is based on improving the quality of life for the community, teaching children the values of their culture, etc.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
50	Game Theory	Morgenstern, O. (1949). The theory of games. <i>Scientific American</i> , 180(5), 22-25.	<p>Bourke, J., Izadi, J., & Olya, H. (2020). Failure of play on asset disposals and share buybacks: application of game theory in the international hotel market. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 77, 103984.</p> <p>Zhang, H., Heung, V., & Yan, Y. (2009). Play or not to play—An analysis of the mechanism of the zero-commission Chinese outbound tours through a game theory approach. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 30(3), 366-371.</p>	Game theory is a theoretical framework used to understand strategic interactions among rational decision-makers. It explores how individuals or firms make choices when the outcomes depend not only on their own actions but also on the actions of others. Central concepts such as Nash equilibrium, dominant strategies, and mixed strategies allow researchers to analyze competitive behavior, cooperation, and negotiation. Due to its broad applicability and the wide range of models it encompasses, game theory is often seen more as a methodological toolkit than a single unified theory. As a result, it may not always appear in traditional theory collections, especially those focusing on formalized or narrow theoretical frameworks.
51	Gatekeeping Theory	<p>Lewin, K. (1947). <i>Frontiers in group dynamics: II. Channels of group life; social planning and action research</i>. Human Relations, 1(2), 143-153.</p> <p>Shoemaker, P. J., & Riccio, J. R. (1991). <i>Gatekeeping</i>. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.</p> <p>Shoemaker, P. J., & Vos, T. (2009). <i>Gatekeeping theory</i>. Routledge.</p>	Schwalbe, C., Silcock, B. W., & Candello, E. (2015). Gatecheckers at the Visual News Stream, <i>Journalism Practice</i> , 9:4, 465-483	Social psychologist Kurt Lewin first instituted Gatekeeping theory in 1943. The Gatekeeping Theory seeks to explain how individuals and groups in the media, such as journalists and editors, act as gatekeepers, filtering and selecting information to be presented to the public. The theory emphasizes the role of these gatekeepers in shaping the content of media messages and, by extension, influencing public opinion and social reality. Gatekeeping originally focused on the mass media with its few-to-many dynamic. Currently, the gatekeeping theory also addresses face-to-face communication and the many-to-many dynamic inherent in the Internet. Gatekeeping occurs at all levels of the media structure—from a reporter deciding which sources are presented in a headline story to editors choosing which stories are printed or covered.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
52	Global Workspace Model	<p>Baars, B. (2005). Global workspace theory of consciousness: Toward a cognitive neuroscience of human experience. <i>Progress in brain research</i>, 150, 45-53.</p> <p>Whyte, C., & Smith, R. (2021). The predictive global neuronal workspace: A formal active inference model of visual consciousness. <i>Progress in Neurobiology</i>, 199, 101918.</p>	Lew, A. (2018). Why travel? Travel, tourism, and global consciousness. <i>Tourism Geographies</i> , 20(4), 742-749.	The Global Workspace Model is a cognitive architecture proposed by Bernard Baars (2005) to explain consciousness. It likens the mind to a theater, where many unconscious processes operate backstage, while consciousness functions as a "global workspace" or spotlight on stage that broadcasts information to the entire system. When information enters this global workspace, it becomes accessible to multiple cognitive systems—such as memory, attention, and decision-making—allowing for coordinated, flexible behavior. The model suggests that consciousness emerges when information is widely distributed across the brain, enabling complex, integrated responses. It has influenced both neuroscience and artificial intelligence research on awareness and attention.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
53	Glocalization Theory	Robertson, R. (1995). Glocalization: Time-space and homogeneity-heterogeneity. In M. Featherstone, S. Lash, & R. Robertson (Eds.), <i>Global modernities</i> (pp. 25-44). London: Sage.	<p>Thompson, C. J., & Arsel, Z. (2004). The Starbucks Brandscape and Consumers' (Anticorporate) Experiences of Glocalization. <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i>, 31(3), 631-642.</p> <p>Mak, A. H.N., Lumbers, M., and Eves, A. (2011). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 39 (1), 171-196.</p>	Glocalization represents the simultaneity and the co-presence of both universalizing and particularizing tendencies. The theory of glocalization suggests that globalization of culture does not necessarily lead to the homogenization of local cultures. Rather, it states that the critical reconstruction and reinvention of local cultures is one of the major consequences of globalization (Robertson, 1995). From the market view, glocalization is the concept that in a global market, a product or service is more likely to succeed when it is customized for the locality or culture in which it is sold.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
54	Gravity Theory	<p>Carey, H. C. (1877). Principles of social science. J.B. Lippincott & Co.</p> <p>Bergstrand, J. H. (1985). The gravity equation in international trade: some microeconomic foundations and empirical evidence. <i>The review of economics and statistics</i>, 474-481.</p> <p>Tinbergen, J. (1962). <i>Shaping the world economy; suggestions for an international economic policy</i>. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund.</p>	<p>Xu, L., Wang, S., Li, J., Tang, L., & Shao, Y. (2019). Modeling international tourism flows to China: A panel data analysis with the gravity model. <i>Tourism Economics</i>, 25(7), 1047-1069.</p> <p>Morley, C., Rosselló, J., & Santana-Gallego, M. (2014). Gravity models for tourism demand theory and use. <i>Annals of tourism research</i>, 48, 1-10.</p> <p>Rossello Nadal, J., & Santana Gallego, M. (2022). Gravity models for tourism demand modeling Empirical review and outlook. <i>Journal of Economic Surveys</i>, 36(5), 1358-1409.</p>	<p>The gravity theory originated from Newton's (1687) law of universal gravitation in Physics. In the social science field, the gravity model has been applied to explain a wide range of trade flows and human movement patterns between countries. Economist Tinbergen (1962) derived the gravity metaphor to explain international trade flows and Bergstrand (1985) offered an initial theoretical econometric foundation for gravity models. The concept of it is the attractiveness between two countries is directly dependent on the economic scale and inversely proportional to the distance between the countries. The relative economic size of a country's unit is measured by GDP per capita or the number of populations.</p> <p>The theoretical foundation of gravity model specifically for tourism flows starts from Carey (1877), which was the first research to explain human movement using gravitational law. There was boom of using gravity model to examine tourism movement determinants during 1970 to mid-1980s. Even though literature on gravity models had fades for about 20 years during mid-1980s to mid-2000s in tourism field, it has re-emerged intensively in a research context for tourism demand modeling with some compensations and improvements from mid-2010s.</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
55	Health Belief Model Theory (HBM)	<p>Rosenstock, I. M. (1966). Why people use health services. <i>The Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly</i>, 44(3), 94-127.</p> <p>Eisen, M et.al. (1992). A Health Belief Model — Social Learning Theory Approach to Adolescents' Fertility Control: Findings from a Controlled Field Trial. <i>Health Education Quarterly</i>, 19.</p>	<p>Suess, C., Maddock, J. E., Dogru, T ., Mody, M., Lee, S. (2022). Using the Health Belief Model to examine travelers' willingness to vaccinate and support for vaccination requirements prior to travel. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 88.</p>	<p>The Health Belief Model (HBM) was developed by social psychologist Irwin M. Rosenstock in 1966 through his work on the uptake of TB screening and the polio vaccine. The HBM suggests that individuals' health-related behaviors are influenced by their perceived susceptibility to illness, the perceived severity of the illness, the perceived benefits of taking preventive action, and the perceived barriers to taking preventive action. The HBM has been widely used in health promotion and disease prevention programs to understand and address health-related behaviors such as smoking cessation, cancer screening, and immunization uptake. In the context of tourism, this theory has been use by Suess et al. (2022) to examine travelers' perceptions and beliefs about the threat of COVID-19 and the benefits and barriers of getting vaccinated and complying with vaccination requirements before travel.</p>
56	Imperfect Capital Market Theory	<p>Foldes, L. (1961). Imperfect Capital Markets and the Theory of Investment, <i>The Review of Economic Studies</i>, 28(3), p.182–195</p> <p>Mikhail, A., Shawky, H. (1979). Investment performance of US-based multinational corporations. <i>Journal of International Business Studies</i>, 10 (1), 54–66.</p>	<p>Koh, Y., Lee, S., Boo, S. (2009). Impact of brand recognition and brand reputation on firm performance: U.S.-based multinational restaurant companies' perspective. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 28(4).</p>	<p>An imperfect capital market occurs where information is not quickly disclosed to all participants and where the matching of buyers and sellers isn't immediate. Under imperfect market conditions, a firm can enhance its value by offering a more diversified portfolio to its shareholders. The imperfect capital market theory is based on the financial theory of portfolio diversification and links diversification to riskiness. This theory suggests that in a market where information is not perfect and readily available to all market participants, firms with superior information can have an advantage over other firms. In the hospitality and tourism context, Koh et al. (2009) use the imperfect capital market theory to explain how brand recognition and reputation can provide the type of information advantage to firms that can lead to better financial performance and investor</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
				may be more likely to invest in firms with strong brand recognition and reputation.
57	Impression Management Model	Goffman, E. (1959). The moral career of the mental patient. <i>Psychiatry</i> , 22(2), 123-142.	<p>Wei, W., L. Miao, L.A. Cai, and H. Adler. (2011). The Influence of Self-Construal and Co-Consumption Others on Consumer Complaining Behavior. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 31(3):764–771</p> <p>Lo, I.S., McKercher, B. (2015). Ideal image in process: Online tourist photography and impression management, <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 52.</p>	Goffman's (1959) impression management theory is one of the most well-known theories in identity performance. Goffman argued that individuals present the self based on the perceived audience in their front stage. Impression management represents a process through which people regulate others' impressions of them by modifying their own public behaviors. It suggests that individuals actively engage in impression management strategies to influence how others perceive them. These strategies may include self-presentation, ingratiation, intimidation, and supplication. In the tourism context, Lo & McKercher (2015) use the impression management model to explain how tourists use online photography to manage their impressions and achieve social approval and admiration.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
58	Information Adoption Model (IAM)	<p>Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). Communication and persuasion: central and peripheral routes to attitude change.</p> <p>Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. <i>MIS quarterly</i>, 319-340.</p> <p>Sussman, S. W., & Siegal, W. S. (2003). Informational Influence in Organizations: An Integrated Approach to Knowledge Adoption. <i>Information Systems Research</i>, 14(1), 47-65.</p>	<p>Santateresa-Bernat, P., Sánchez-García, I., & Curras-Perez, R. (2022). I like you, or I like what you say? Effect of influencer on tourists' behaviours. <i>Current Issues in Tourism</i>, 1-15.</p>	<p>The Information Adoption Model (IAM) developed by Sussman & Siegel (2003) highlights the assessment of information usefulness as a mediator of the information adoption process. It is a theory that seeks to explain how individuals adopt new information and integrate it into their existing knowledge and belief systems. According to the IAM, the adoption of new information is influenced by several factors, including the source of the information, the content of the information, and the individual's prior knowledge and beliefs. Importantly, IAM draws on dual-process models to make predictions about the antecedents of informational usefulness under different processing conditions. It is a combination of the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989) and dual-process models of informational influence (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).</p>
59	Information Processing Theory	<p>Miller, G. A. (1956). The magical number seven, plus or minus two: some limits on our capacity for processing information. <i>Psychological review</i>, 63(2), 81.</p>	<p>Frias, D. M., Rodríguez, M. A., & Castañeda, J. A. (2008). Internet vs. travel agencies on pre-visit destination image formation: An information processing view. <i>Tourism management</i>, 29(1), 163-179.</p> <p>Gao, J., Zhang, C., Wang, K., & Ba, S. (2012). Understanding online purchase decision making: The effects of unconscious thought, information quality, and information quantity. <i>Decision Support Systems</i>, 53(4), 772-781.</p>	<p>Effective information processing depends on both the quantity and quality of information. According to the information processing theory, people have limited information processing capacity. Therefore, complex tasks cause confusion and restrain the ability to process, respond, and perceive information (Gao et al., 2012).</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
60	Institutional Entrepreneurship	<p>Eisenstadt, S.N. (1980). Cultural orientations, institutional entrepreneurs, and social change: Comparative analyses of traditional civilizations. <i>American Journal of Sociology</i>, 85(3), 840–869.</p> <p>DiMaggio, P. (1988). Interest and agency in institutional theory. In Lynne G. Zucker, ed. <i>Research on Institutional Patterns: Environment and Culture</i>. Cambridge: Ballinger.</p> <p>Garud, R., Tuertscher, P., & Van de Ven, A. H. (2007). Institutional entrepreneurship as embedded agency. <i>Organization Studies</i>, 28(07), 957-969.</p>	<p>Battilana, J., Leca, B., & Boxenbaum, E. (2009). How Actors Change Institutions: Towards a Theory of Institutional Entrepreneurship. <i>Academy Of Management Annals</i>, 3(1), 65-107.</p> <p>Van Wijk, J., Van der Duim, R., Lamers, M., & Sumba, D. (2015). The emergence of institutional innovations in tourism: The evolution of the African Wildlife Foundation's tourism conservation enterprises. <i>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</i>, 23(1), 104-125.</p>	<p>Institutional Entrepreneurship (IE) theory is defined as the activities of actors who have an interest in particular institutional arrangements and who leverage resources to create new institutions or transform existing ones (Garud et al., 2007). It was first introduced in Eisenstadt's (1980) article and it was further developed by DiMaggio (1988). This theory emerged due to the limitations of the institutional theory in explaining how actors within an organization can contribute to changing institutions.</p> <p>In the tourism context, Van Wick et al. (2015) employed IE to understand the emergence of institutional innovation in the evolution of the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF). They describe the mechanism behind AWF's institutional entrepreneurship, drawing from Battilana et al. (2019) model, and define the institutional change with the emergence of tourism conservation enterprises as a novel organizational form.</p>
61	Institutional Theory	<p>DiMaggio, P., Powell, W. (1983). The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields. <i>American Sociological Review</i>, 48(2), 147-160.</p> <p>Meyer, J.W., Rowan, B. (1977). Institutionalized organizations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony. <i>American Journal of Sociology</i>, 83(2), 340-363.</p>	<p>Soares, A.L.V., Mendes-Filho, L. and Gretzel, U. (2021), "Technology adoption in hotels: applying institutional theory to tourism", <i>Tourism Review</i>, Vol. 76 No. 3, pp. 669-680.</p> <p>Xie, K. L., & Young, C. A. (2021). The Copycat Effect: Do Hotel-Like Features Drive Airbnb Performance? <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research</i>, 0(0).</p>	<p>The institutional theory analyzes the way in which structures become institutionalized as common behavior. It can be seen as the “rules of the game in society”. This theory has many versions and it has been studied for more than a century. The latest and most commonly used version of this theory studied the reasons why companies in a given institutional field become increasingly isomorphic (similar) over time. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) theorized that there are three types of forces pushing companies to isomorphism: coercive, mimetic, and normative.</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
62	Justice Theory	<p>Clemmer, E.C. and B. Schneider. (1996). "Fair Service." Pp. 109-126 in S.W. Brown. D.A. Bowen, and T. Swartz (eds.), <i>Advances in Services Marketing and Management</i>, 5. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.</p> <p>Blodgett, J. G., Hill, D. J., & Tax, S. S. (1997). The effects of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice on postcomplaint behavior. <i>Journal of Retailing</i>, 73(2), 185-210.</p>	<p>Lee, H. R., Murrmann, S. K., Murrmann, K. F., & Kim, K. (2010). Organizational justice as a mediator of the relationships between leader-member exchange and employees' turnover intentions. <i>Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management</i>, 19(2), 97-114.</p>	<p>Justice Theory comprises three types of justice: Distributive, Procedural, and Interactional Justice (Clemmer & Schneider, 1996). Distributive Justice is the perceived fairness of the tangible outcome of a dispute/ negotiation/ decision; Procedural Justice is the perceived fairness of the policies, procedures, and criteria used by decision makers in arriving at the outcome of the dispute/ negotiation; Interactional Justice is the manner in which people are treated during the conflict resolution process. Justice Theory posits that customers evaluate fairness with a service encounter and/ or recovery (Blodgett et al., 1997), and employees evaluate fairness on the job through the above-mentioned three types of justice.</p>
63	Knowledge Gap Theory	<p>Tichenor, P. J., Donohue, G.A., and Olien, C. N. (1970). Mass Media Flow and Differential Growth in Knowledge. <i>Public Opinion Quarterly</i>, 34, pp. 159-170.</p>	<p>Woo, E., & Schwartz, Z. (2014). Towards assessing the knowledge gap in medical tourism. <i>Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism</i>, 15(2), 213-226.</p>	<p>The Knowledge Gap Theory suggests that information is not distributed evenly throughout a society, and that certain individuals or groups may have more access to information than others. This unequal distribution of information can lead to differences in knowledge and understanding, which in turn can affect attitudes and behaviors. According to the Knowledge Gap Theory, the gap in knowledge between those with more access to information and those with less access to information tends to widen over time. This is because those with more access to information are better equipped to acquire new information and build on their existing knowledge, while those with less access to information are more likely to remain uninformed or have outdated information (Tichenor, Donohue & Olien, 1970).</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
64	Labeling Theory	<p>Becker, H. (1963). <i>Overview of Labelling Theories</i>, www. Hewett, Norfolk. Sch. uk/curric/soc/crime/labelling/diakses pada, 10.</p> <p>Becker, H. (1963). Outsiders-defining deviance. <i>The Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance</i>, 1-18.</p>	<p>Belhassen, Y., & Shani, A. (2013). Substance abuse and job attitude among hotel workers: Social labeling perspectives. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 34, 47-49.</p> <p>Belhassen, Y. (2023). Work, leisure and the social order: insights from the pandemic. <i>Annals of Leisure Research</i>, 26(4), 514-520.</p>	Labeling Theory, introduced by Howard Becker (1963), posits that deviance is not inherent in an act but is instead the result of societal labeling. When individuals are labeled as "deviant" by others, this external judgment can reshape their self-identity and affect how they are treated in society. Over time, these labels can influence individuals' behavior and reinforce the very traits they were labeled with, highlighting the powerful role of social perception and interaction in constructing deviance.
65	Livability Theory	Veenhoven, R. (2014). The overall satisfaction with life: Subjective approaches (1). In <i>Global Handbook Of Quality of Life: Exploration of Well-Being of Nations and Continents</i> (pp. 207-238). Springer Netherlands.	<p>Lindberg, K., Munanura, I., Kooistra, C., Needham, M. D., & Ghahramani, L. (2022). Understanding effects of tourism on residents: A contingent subjective well-being approach. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 61(2), 346-361.</p>	Livability Theory, developed by Veenhoven (2014), proposes that human well-being and happiness depend on the interaction between internal abilities and external living conditions. It suggests that changes in environmental and societal factors—such as employment, environmental quality, congestion, and social cohesion—can influence the fulfillment of human needs and, in turn, affect subjective well-being. The theory highlights the importance of creating supportive living environments to enhance overall life satisfaction.
66	Marginal Utility Theory	Marshall, A. (2009). <i>Principles of economics: unabridged eighth edition</i> . Cosimo, Inc..	Park, J.-Y., Jang, S. (2014). Revisit and satiation patterns: Are your restaurant customers satiated? <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 38, 20–29.	Marshall (2009) expanded on the concept of marginal utility and developed the idea of consumer surplus, which is the difference between the total amount a consumer is willing to pay for a good and the actual price of the good. The marginal utility of a product/ service is the gain from an increase or loss from a decrease in the consumption of that good or service. The law of diminishing marginal utility states that additional consumption of the same product increases total utility until marginal utility reaches zero.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
67	Means-End Chain Theory	Gutman, J. (1982). A means-end chain model based on consumer categorization processes. <i>Journal of marketing</i> , 46(2), 60-72.	Costa, A. I. A., Dekker, M., & Jongen, W. M. F. (2004). An overview of means-end theory: potential application in consumer-oriented food product design. <i>Trends in Food Science and Technology</i> , 15, 403e415. López-Mosquera, N & Sánchez, M. (2011). The influence of personal values in the economic-use valuation of peri-urban green spaces: An application of the means-end chain theory, <i>Tourism Management</i> , 32.	The means-end chain theory assumes that the decision-makers subjective perception of a good is the result of associations between its attributes (the “means”) and more abstract cognitive schemata, which include the personal values underlying certain behavior (the “ends”). Such associations determine the appeal of the characteristics of the good in question (Gutman, 1982). According to this theory, consumers’ product knowledge is organized into hierarchical levels of abstraction, where the higher the level of abstraction, the stronger and more direct the connection to the self. Six ascending levels of abstraction describe the cognitive structure linking product knowledge (concrete attributes, abstract attributes, and functional consequences) with self-knowledge (Costa, Dekker & Jongen, 2004).
68	Mere Exposure Theory	Zajonc, R.B. (1968). Attitudinal effects of mere exposure. <i>Journal of Personality and social psychology</i> , 9(2p2): p. 1.	Yang, S., Yao, J., & Qazi, A. (2020). Does the review deserve more helpfulness when its title resembles the content? Locating helpful reviews by text mining. <i>Information Processing & Management</i> , 57(2), 102-179. Stylidis, D. (2022). Exploring Resident–Tourist Interaction and its Impact on Tourists’ Destination Image. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 61(1), 186–201.	The Mere-Exposure Effect is a psychological phenomenon by which people tend to develop a preference for things merely because they are familiar with them. In the original paper, the hypothesis that mere repeated exposure of the individual to a stimulus object enhances their attitude toward it was tested. In the past decades, this theory was continuously tested on diverse stimuli, including polygons, drawings, photographs, and etc. In the field of hospitality and tourism, Yang et al. (2020) hypothesized that an online review would be perceived more helpful if its title is similar to the content.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
69	Needs-Based Model of Reconciliation	Shnabel, N., & Nadler, A. (2008). A needs-based model of reconciliation: Satisfying the differential emotional needs of victim and perpetrator as a key to promoting reconciliation. <i>Journal of personality and social psychology</i> , 94(1), 116.	Belhassen, Y. (2023). Tourism as a space of possibilities: Reconciliation tourism enterprises in a conflict-ridden destination. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 62(7), 1497-1509.	The Needs-Based Model of Reconciliation posits that conflict affects victims and perpetrators in distinct psychological ways: victims experience a loss of power and status, while perpetrators face threats to their moral and social identity. Reconciliation becomes more achievable when these specific needs—victims’ need to regain empowerment and perpetrators’ need to restore moral image—are acknowledged and addressed through mutual social exchange.
70	Optimal Stimulation Level Theory (OSL)	Hunt, J. (1965). <i>Intrinsic motivation and its role in psychological development</i> . In <i>Nebraska symposium on motivation</i> (Vol. 13, pp. 189-282). University of Nebraska Press.	Park, J.-Y., Jang, S., 2014. Revisit and satiation patterns: Are your restaurant customers satiated? <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 38, 20–29.	Individual behavior is influenced by the intrinsically motivated desire to accomplish a specific level of stimulation. This level of OSL varies between individuals. When the stimulation derived from the environment is too low, individuals will attempt to increase stimulation, and vice versa. The level of stimulation at which a person feels most comfortable is their OSL (Park & Jang, 2014).
71	Permanent Income Hypothesis/Theory	Friedman, M. (1957). <i>The permanent income hypothesis</i> . In <i>A theory of the consumption function</i> (pp. 20-37). Princeton University Press. Friedman, M. (1957). <i>A theory of the consumption function</i> . NBER Books.	Eugenio-Martin, J. L., & Campos-Soria, J. A. (2014). Economic crisis and tourism expenditure cutback decision. <i>Annals of tourism Research</i> , 44, 53-73.	Permanent Income theory suggests that consumption levels are not only determined by current income but expected future income as well. Consumption and income relation are determined by permanent income and not considered if it is transitory income. When a consumer make a consumption decision, they will focus on their current income but also they will consider their future income and the amount of risk associated with it (Friedman, 1957).

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
72	Persuasion Theory	Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). <i>Communication and persuasion</i> ; psychological studies of opinion change.	Warren, C., Becken, S., & Coghlan, A. (2017). Using persuasive communication to co-create behavioral change–engaging with guests to save resources at tourist accommodation facilities. <i>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</i> , 25(7), 935-954.	Persuasion theory is a field of social psychology that examines the factors and processes involved in persuading others to adopt or change attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors. The theory suggests that persuasion is a complex process that involves the interaction of multiple factors, including the characteristics of the communicator, the message itself, and the audience. Persuasion theory helps to form the most persuasive messages that influence people's attitude, reasoning, emotions and behaviors (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953).
73	Post Development Theory	Sachs, W. (1992). <i>The Development Dictionary: A Guide to Knowledge as Power</i> . Zed Books. Rahnema, M., & Bawtree, V. (1997). <i>The post-development reader</i> . Dhaka, Bangladesh: Zed Books.	Ziai. A.(Eds.).(2007). <i>Exploring post-development theory and practice, problem and perspectives</i> . London; New York: Routledge Kim, H., Choe, Y., & Lee, C. K. (2019). Differential effects of patriotism and support on post-development visit intention: the Korean DMZ Peace Park. <i>Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing</i> , 36(3), 384-401.	Post-development theory is the idea that development stands like a ruin in the intellectual landscape, and it is time to dismantle this mental structure (Sachs, 1992, p.1). According to post-development critical analysis, modern development theory is an invention of the academic environment supported by a set of underlying political and economic ideologies. The academic, political, and economic nature of development means it tends to be policy-oriented, problem-driven, and therefore effective only in terms of and in relation to a particular, pre-existing social theory (Rahnema & Bawtree, 1997).
74	Power-Dependence Theory	Emerson, R. (1962). Power-dependence relations. <i>American Sociological Review</i> , 31-41.	Ford, R., Wang, Y., & Vestal, A. (2012). Power asymmetries in tourism distribution networks. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 39(2), 755-779.	Power dependence theory defines power as a reciprocal relationship between actors (Emerson, 1962). The theory argues that power is not a fixed attribute of individuals or groups but rather emerges from the interdependence of actors in a given relationship. According to this theory, the more one party depends on the other, the more power the other party holds. This leads to a power imbalance in the relationship, which can be exploited by the more powerful party. The theory also emphasizes the importance of balance and "balancing operations" in maintaining stable power-dependence relations.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
75	Practice Theory	Shove, E., Pantzer, M. & Watson, M. (2012). <i>The Dynamics of Social Practice. Everyday Life and how it changes</i> . SAGE.	Lamers, M., Van der Duim, V. & Spaargaren (2017). The relevance of practice theories for tourism research. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 62(2017), 54-63.	Practice Theory offers a distinct lens for understanding hospitality and tourism by shifting focus from individuals or structures to the social practices themselves. Practices are viewed as routinized “doings and sayings” carried out by knowledgeable actors and shaped through interactions with material objects and infrastructures. They are composed of three core elements: materials (e.g., physical objects, technologies), competences (e.g., skills, know-how), and meanings (e.g., ideas, values). Through repeated enactments, these practices form recognizable patterns—practices-as-performances—which evolve into stable entities—practices-as-entities—embedded within larger systems of interconnected practices.
76	Process Theory	Tsoukas, H. (1989). The validity of idiographic research explanations. <i>Academy of management review</i> , 14(4), 551-561. Van de Ven, A. H., & Huber, G. P. (1990). Longitudinal field research methods for studying processes of organizational change. <i>Organization science</i> , 1(3), 213-219.	Chung, N., Song, H. G., & Lee, H. (2017). Consumers’ impulsive buying behavior of restaurant products in social commerce. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i> , 29(2), 709-731.	Process theory explains the temporal sequence between input (independent variables) and output (dependent variables) (Tsoukas, 1989; Van de Ven & Huber, 1990). Originally, researchers developed this input-process-output framework to explain team performance. These theories are focused on understanding the underlying processes, mechanisms, and interactions that drive change and development in a particular context or system. Process theories are typically used to explain dynamic and complex phenomena in areas such as psychology, sociology, economics, and management. The study of process theories has led to a deeper understanding of how complex systems operate and how they can be effectively managed and influenced over time.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
77	Prospect Theory	<p>Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. <i>Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society</i>, 263-291.</p> <p>Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1992). Advances in prospect theory: Cumulative representation of uncertainty. <i>Journal of Risk and uncertainty</i>, 5(4), 297-323.</p>	<p>Schmidt, U., Starmer, C., & Sugden, R. (2008). Third-generation prospect theory. <i>Journal of Risk and Uncertainty</i>, 36(3), 203-223.</p> <p>Sellers, R., & Nicolau, J. L. (2023). Satisfaction and expenditure in wineries: a prospect theory approach. <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research</i>, 47(2), 354-374.</p>	Prospect theory is a behavioral economic theory that describes decisions between alternatives when there is a risk with known probabilities of outcomes. The theory states that people make decisions based on the potential value of losses and gains, and people evaluate these losses and gains by decision weights. Kahneman and Tversky (1979) examined how most people consistently make a less-rational choice rather than stating the optimal and rational answer. Their work treated economics not as a perfect or self-correcting machine but as a system prey to quirks of human perception.
78	Protection Motivation Theory	<p>Rogers, R. (1975). A protection motivation theory of fear appeals and attitude change. <i>The Journal of Psychology</i>, 91(1), 93–114.</p> <p>Rogers R. (1983). Cognitive and physiological processes in fear appeals and attitude change: A revised theory of protection motivation. In <i>Social psychophysiology: A Sourcebook</i> (pp. 153–177). Guilford.</p> <p>Prentice-Dunn, S., & Rogers, R. (1986). Protection motivation theory and preventive health: Beyond the Health Belief Model. <i>Health Education Research</i>, 1(3), 153–161.</p>	<p>Botha, E. (2023). Stakeholder perceptions of sustainability and possible behaviour in a biosphere reserve. <i>Sustainable Development</i>, 31, 3843–3856.</p> <p>Seow, A., Choong, Y., Choong C. & Moorthy, K. (2022). Health tourism: Behavioural intention and protection motivation theory. <i>Tourism Review</i>, 77(2):376-393.</p>	Protection Motivation Theory (PMT), developed by Rogers (1975, revised 1983), explains how individuals respond to fear-based messages, particularly in health-related contexts. It expands on the Health Belief Model by proposing two key cognitive appraisal processes: threat appraisal (including perceived severity, susceptibility, and maladaptive rewards) and coping appraisal (including response efficacy, self-efficacy, and response costs). Individuals are more likely to adopt protective behaviors when the perceived threat is high and the coping strategies are seen as effective and manageable. PMT has been applied beyond health science, including in health tourism and sustainable tourism contexts like waste management and climate change mitigation.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
79	Regulation Theory	<p>Aglietta, M. (1976). <i>A theory of capitalist regulation: The US experience</i>. London: NLB.</p> <p>Boyer, R. (1990). <i>The regulation school: A critical introduction</i>. New York: Columbia University Press.</p>	Mair, H. (2006). Global restructuring and local response: Investigating rural tourism policy in two Canadian communities. <i>Current Issues in Tourism</i> , 9(1), 1-45.	Regulation theory is a grand theory that provides a historical, political, and cultural context for economic actions at the international, national, or regional level. The theory suggests that accumulation regimes, which drive economic functions, are supported by an accumulation system, such as capitalism, and the mode of regulation, which includes social, cultural, and political support for economic actions. An accumulation regime exists until a crisis alters the accumulation system and mode of regulation, leading to the creation of a new regime. The most widely used illustration of this phenomenon is the shift from Fordism (pre-1970s) to post-Fordism.
80	Regulatory Focus Theory	Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. <i>American psychologist</i> , 52(12), 1280.	Wan, L. C., Chan, E. K., & Su, L. (2011). When will customers care about service failures that happened to strangers? The role of personal similarity and regulatory focus and its implication on service evaluation. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 30(1), 213-220.	Regulatory focus theory defines how people engage in two different motivational orientations (e.g., promotion- and prevention-focused) by proposing that promotion- and prevention-focused individuals have different sensitivity for positive or negative events. Promotion-focused individuals are concerned about the presence and absence of positive outcomes (gain vs. non-gain), whereas prevention-focused individuals are vigilant to the presence and absence of negative outcomes (loss vs. non-loss).
81	Relationship Marketing Theory	Berry, L. L. (1983). Relationship marketing. <i>Emerging perspectives on services marketing</i> , 66(3), 33-47.	<p>Palmer, A. J., & Mayer, R. (1996). Relationship marketing: a new paradigm for the travel and tourism sector?. <i>Journal of Vacation Marketing</i>, 2(4), 326-333.</p> <p>Maggon, M., & Chaudhry, H. (2015). Revisiting relationship marketing and customer relationship management in leading tourism and hospitality journals: Research trends from 2001 to 2013. <i>Journal of Relationship Marketing</i>, 14(1), 53-77.</p>	Relationship marketing is a form of marketing developed from direct response marketing campaigns that emphasizes customer retention and satisfaction rather than sales transactions. It differentiates itself from other forms of marketing in that it recognizes the long-term value of customer relationships and extends communication beyond intrusive advertising and sales promotional messages. With the growth of the Internet and mobile platforms, relationship marketing has continued to evolve as technology opens more collaborative and social communication channels, such as tools for managing relationships with customers that go beyond demographics and customer service data collection. Relationship

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				marketing extends to include inbound marketing, a combination of search optimization and strategic content, public relations, social media, and application development.
82	Resident-Tourist Relationship (by Social Exchange Theory)	<p>Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. <i>American journal of sociology</i>, 63(6), 597-606.</p> <p>Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). <i>The social psychology of groups</i>. Routledge.</p> <p>Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. <i>Annual Review of Sociology</i>, 2, p. 335 – 362.</p> <p>Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 19, p. 665 – 690.</p>	<p>Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T., & Allen, L. (1987). Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 14(3), 420-429.</p> <p>Latkova, P. and Vogt, C. A. (2012). Residents' attitudes towards existing and future tourism development in rural communities. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 51 (1), p. 50 – 67.</p>	<p>Stemming from the work of Homans, Thibaut, Kelly, and Blau (see Emerson, 1976 for discussion), SET is based on the exchange of resources (material, social, or psychological) between actors (an individual or group). It suggests that an individual weighs the costs and benefits of participating in an exchange (such as the support of a tourism development plan), if the benefits outweigh the costs they engage in the exchange. The resident-tourist relationship framed by social exchange theory could state that the more equitable (fair) the relationship between tourists firms and residents, the better the tourist experience and resident quality of life.</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
83	Resource-Advantage Theory (R-A Theory)	<p>Hunt, S., & Morgan, R. (1995). The Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition. <i>Journal of Marketing</i>, 59(2), 1-15.</p> <p>Hunt, S., & Morgan, R. (1996). The Resource-Advantage Theory of Competition: Dynamics, Path Dependencies, and Evolutionary Dimensions. <i>Journal of Marketing</i>, 60(4), 107-114.</p> <p>Hunt, S., & Morgan, R. (1997). Resource-Advantage Theory: A Snake Swallowing Its Tail or a General Theory of Competition? <i>Journal of Marketing</i>, 61(4), 74-82.</p>	<p>Russen, M., Dawson, M., & Madera, J. M. (2021). Gender diversity in hospitality and tourism top management teams: a systematic review of the last 10 years. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 95, 102942.</p> <p>Noone, B., Lin, M., & Sharma, A. (2024). Firm Performance During a Crisis: Effects of Adhocracy Culture, Incremental Product Innovation, and Firm Size. <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research</i>, 48(1), 153-183.</p>	Resource-Advantage (R-A) Theory, developed by Hunt and Morgan in the 1990s, is a dynamic theory of competition that explains firm diversity and performance through the pursuit of resource-based advantages. It posits that firms compete by acquiring and leveraging heterogeneous and imperfectly mobile resources to gain comparative advantages, which translate into marketplace competitive advantages. Unlike static models like the Resource-Based View (RBV), R-A Theory is evolutionary and integrative, incorporating insights from economics, marketing, management, and sociology. It emphasizes the roles of strategic choice, organizational learning, institutional environments, and technological change in shaping competitive dynamics across industries.
84	Resource Mobilization (a subset of New Social Movement Theory)	<p>McCarthy, J. D., & Zald, M. N. (1977). Resource mobilization and social movements: A partial theory. <i>American journal of sociology</i>, 1212-1241.</p> <p>Buechler, S. M. (1995). New social movement theories. <i>The Sociological Quarterly</i>, 36(3), 441-464.</p>	<p>McGehee, N. G., Kline, C., Knollenberg, W. (2014). "Social movements and tourism-related local action." <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 48: 140-155.</p> <p>Dillete, A., Benjamin, S. (2021). The Black Travel Movement: A Catalyst for Social Change. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 61(3).</p>	Resource mobilization is the process of getting resources from the resource provider, using different mechanisms, to implement an organization's predetermined goals. It is a theory used in the study of social movements and argues that the success of social movements depends on resources (time, money, skills, etc.) and the ability to use them. It deals in acquiring the needed resources in a timely, cost-effective manner. Resource mobilization advocates having the right type of resource at the right time at the right price by making the right use of acquired resources thus ensuring optimum usage of the same. At the organizational level, resource mobilization is central to social movements. This type of network mobilization is important because social movements are frequently started by marginalized groups trying to gain a foothold of power and resources that have been withheld (McGehee et al 2014).

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
85	Resource-Based View/Theory	<p>Wernerfelt, B. (1984). A Resource-Based View of the firm. <i>Strategic Management Journal</i>, 5(2): 171-180.</p> <p>Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. <i>Journal of Management</i>. 17(1) 99-120.</p> <p>Priem, R., and Butler, J. (2001). Is the Resource-Based "View" a Useful Perspective for Strategic Management Research? <i>The Academy of Management Review</i>, 26(1): 22-40.</p>	<p>Denicolai, S., Cioccarelli, G., & Zucchella, A. (2010). Resource-based local development and networked core-competencies for tourism excellence. <i>Tourism management</i>, 31(2), 260-266.</p> <p>Kruesi, M. A., & Bazelmans, L. (2022). Resources, capabilities and competencies: a review of empirical hospitality and tourism research founded on the resource-based view of the firm. <i>Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights</i>.</p>	The resource-based view (RBV) argues that a firm's sustained competitive advantage is based on its valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable resources (Barney, 1991). The key assumptions of the RBV are that firms have heterogeneous access to resources and that these resources are not perfectly mobile across firms, which means that firms can maintain sustained competitive advantages that other firms cannot duplicate. There has been a heated debate within the literature over whether RBV is a theory or not since it cannot be empirically tested due to the intangibility of strategic resources. RBV can be useful in HTM because it may explain why some destinations/firms constantly outperform others.
86	Rites of Passage	<p>Van Gennep, A. (1909). <i>The rites of passage</i>. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul (1960).</p>	<p>Graburn, N. H. (1983). The anthropology of tourism. <i>Annals of tourism research</i>, 10(1), 9-33.</p>	Rites of Passage, introduced by Arnold van Gennep (1909), describe ritualized processes that mark transitions between social statuses. These involve three key phases: separation (leaving a prior role), liminality (a transitional state), and incorporation (reentry with a new status). While not a formal theory, this concept provides a valuable framework for analyzing cultural practices surrounding life transitions.
87	Role Theory	<p>Sarbin, T. R. and Allen, V. L. (1968). <i>Role theory</i>. In <i>The handbook of social psychology</i>, Gardner, Lindsey and Elliot, Aronson (eds) 488-538. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA</p>	<p>Dev, C. S., & Olsen, M. D. (1989). Applying role theory in developing a framework for the management of customer interactions in hospitality businesses. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 8(1), 19-33.</p> <p>Kim, B. P., Murrmann, S. K., & Lee, G. (2009). Moderating effects of gender and organizational level between role stress and job satisfaction among hotel employees. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>, 28(4), 612-619.</p>	Role theory is a concept in sociology and in social psychology that considers most everyday activity to be the acting out of socially defined categories (e.g., mother, manager, teacher). Each role is a set of rights, duties, expectations, norms, and behaviors that a person has to face and fulfill. The model is based on the observation that people behave in a predictable way and that an individual's behavior is context-specific, based on social position and other factors. Role theory has evolved in HTM to include consequences of role stress (low satisfaction, high turnover intentions, low commitment, and poor performance) as well as role

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
				conflict (taking on multiple roles and responsibilities) in the hospitality context (Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009)
88	Script Theory	<p>Schank, R. C., & Abelson, R. P. (1977). <i>Scripts, plans, goals and understanding: An inquiry into human knowledge structures</i>. Lawrence Erlbaum.</p> <p>Tomkins, S. S. (1978). <i>Script theory: differential magnification of affects</i>. In <i>Nebraska symposium on motivation</i>. University of Nebraska Press.</p>	Miao, L., Mattila, A. S., & Mount, D. (2011). Other consumers in service encounters: A script theoretical perspective. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 30(4), 933-941.	<p>Script theory is a psychological theory which posits that human behaviour largely falls into patterns called "scripts" because they function analogously to the way a written script does, by providing a program for action.</p> <p>Scripts refer to a “predetermined, stereotyped sequence of actions that define a well-known situation” (Schank and Abelson, 1977, pp. 41).</p> <p>Consumers use such well-established scripts to make judgments on a product evaluation. When the product is judged incongruent with the script, an emotional reaction from the product is elicited.</p>
89	Segmented Assimilation Theory	<p>Portes, A., & Zhou, M. (1993). The new second generation: Segmented assimilation and its variants. <i>The annals of the American academy of political and social science</i>, 530(1), 74-96.</p> <p>Zhou, M. (1997). Segmented assimilation: Issues, controversies, and recent research on the new second generation. <i>International migration review</i>, 31(4), 975-1008.</p>	Vermeulen, H. (2010). Segmented assimilation and cross-national comparative research on the integration of immigrants and their children. <i>Ethnic and racial studies</i> , 33(7), 1214-1230.	Segmented assimilation is a theory that suggests different immigrant groups assimilate into different segments of society (Portes et al., 1993). Following the theory, second generation (US Born) minority populations will have the best life chances (less depression, more income, etc.) due to their ability to differentially choose between US and Native culture.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
90	Self-Concept Theory	<p>Wylie, R. C. (1961). <i>The self concept</i>. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.</p> <p>Rosenberg, M. (1979). <i>Conceiving the self</i>. New York: Basic Books.</p> <p>Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-concept in Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review. <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i>, 9(3), 287-300.</p>	<p>Todd, S. (2001). Self-concept: a tourism application. <i>Journal of Consumer Behaviour: An International Research Review</i>, 1(2), 184-196.</p> <p>Simanjuntak, D., & Fitriana, R. (2020). Culture shock, adaptation, and self-concept of tourism human resources in welcoming the new normal era. <i>Society</i>, 8(2), 403-418.</p> <p>Gratton, D., Raciti, M., & Arcodia, C. (2011). The role of consumer self-concept in marketing festivals. <i>Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing</i>, 28(6), 644-655.</p>	<p>Self-concept is a theory that states that humans' subjective thoughts towards themselves guide their behavior because their actions attempt to build upon their desired self-image. Self-concept is a popular psychological factor used to explain consumer behavior in car preferences, house preferences, and tourism destinations. It has been measured on one to four dimensions. The dimensions consist of an actual self-concept (what one thinks of oneself) and a social self-concept (what one thinks others think of him/her). Self-concept has also been broken down into actual self-concept and ideal self-concept, where actual self-concept is what one thinks about themselves and ideal self-concept is what one would like to think of themselves.</p>
91	Self-Determination Theory (SDT)	<p>Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2012). Self-determination theory. In P. A. M. Van Lange, A. W. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), <i>Handbook of theories of social psychology</i> (pp. 416–436). Sage Publications Ltd.</p>	<p>Nazir, O., Islam, J.U., Rahman, Z. (2021). Effect of CSR participation on employee sense of purpose and experienced meaningfulness: A self-determination theory perspective. <i>Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management</i>, 46(123-133)</p>	<p>Self-determination theory (SDT) is a motivational theory in psychology that seeks to explain how individuals develop intrinsic motivation and self-regulation in their behaviors. Work leading to the theory began with experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. During more than thirty years since the initial studies, researchers have developed five mini-theories to address different, though related, issues: the effects of social environments on intrinsic motivation; the development of autonomous extrinsic motivation and self-regulation through internalization and integration; individual differences in general motivational orientations; the functioning of fundamental universal psychological needs that are essential for growth, integrity, and wellness; and the effects of different goal contents on well-being and performance. Although much of SDT was developed through laboratory experiments, it is also supported by a great deal of</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
				applied research using both field studies and clinical trials to address significant social issues.
92	Self-perception Theory	<p>Bem, D. J. (1967). Self-Perception: An Alternative Interpretation of Cognitive Dissonance Phenomena. <i>Psychological Review</i>, 74, 183-200.</p> <p>Bem, D. J. (1972). <i>Self-Perception Theory</i>. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), <i>Advances in Experimental Social Psychology</i> (Vol. 6, pp.1-62). New York: Academic Press.</p>	<p>Woosnam, K. M., Draper, J., Jiang, J. (K.), Aleshinloye, K. D., & Erul, E. (2018). Applying self-perception theory to explain residents' attitudes about tourism development through travel histories. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 64, 357-368.</p> <p>Grewal, L., Hmurovic, J., Lamberton, C., & Reczek, R. W. (2019). The Self-Perception Connection: Why Consumers Devalue Unattractive Produce. <i>Journal of Marketing</i>, 83(1), 89–107.</p>	Self-perception theory is a theory of attitude formation proposed as an alternative to the theory of cognitive dissonance. It explains how individuals form their attitudes and beliefs based on their observations of their own behavior. Self-perception theory asserts that when a person lacks a particular attitude (perhaps because of lack of experience) he/she develops his/her attitude by observing their own behavior and concluding what attitudes might have caused it. According to this theory, people infer their attitudes and beliefs from their own actions and the circumstances surrounding their actions, rather than relying on any pre-existing attitudes or beliefs. For example, Jane observes that she travels internationally several times a year. Jane may then infer that she has an interest in diverse cultures.
93	Servant Leadership Theory	<p>Greenleaf, R. (2007). The servant as leader. In Corporate ethics and corporate governance (pp. 79-85). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.</p> <p>Van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant Leadership: A Review and Synthesis. <i>Journal of Management</i>, Vol. 37, No. 4, p. 1228 – 1261.</p>	Ling, Q., Lin, M., and Wu, X. (2016). The Trickle-Down Effect of Servant Leadership On Frontline Employee Service Behaviors and Performance: A Multilevel Study of Chinese Hotels. <i>Tourism Management</i> , Vol. 52, p. 341 – 368.	Servant Leadership Theory is one of several theories in the landscape of leadership studies. This theory inverts the power pyramid, thus placing the employee at the nucleus of focus rather than the leader. The philosophy of servant leadership was first articulated by Greenleaf (1970) who hailed from the business sector. He consulted and lectured on servant leadership to MIT, Harvard Business School, and American Foundation for Management Research, to name a few, thus resulting in early adoption by industry, followed by academic research contributions beginning in 1995 by L.C. Spears.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
94	Service-Dominant Logic Perspective/Framework	Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. <i>Journal of marketing</i> , 68(1), 1-17.	Shaw, G., Bailey, A., & Williams, A. (2011). Aspects of service-dominant logic and its implications for tourism management: Examples from the hotel industry. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 32(2), 207-214.	Service-dominant (S-D) logic, in behavioral economics, is an alternative theoretical framework for explaining value creation through exchange among configurations of actors. The underlying idea of S-D logic is that humans apply their competencies to benefit others and reciprocally benefit from others' applied competencies through service-for-service exchange. Over time, marketing has transformed from goods dominant logic to the service dominant view (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Specific to tourist experience and behavior, service-dominant logic, which encompasses co-production with suppliers, can provide a conceptual framework since interactive experience is the central element in tourism (Shaw, Bailey, and Williams, 2011).
95	Signaling Theory	Spence, M. (1974). <i>Market Signaling</i> . Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.	Magnusson, P., Haas, S. M., & Hongzin, Z. (2008). A Branding Strategy for Emerging Market Firms Entering Developed Markets. <i>Journal of International Consumer Marketing</i> , 20(3/4), 95-107. Tsaor, S. H., & Wang, C. H. (2009). Tip-collection strategies, service guarantees, and consumer evaluations of group package tours. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 47(4), 523-534.	Consider a market interaction in which sellers know the quality of their goods or services but buyers are not fully informed about the quality of sellers' goods or services. In this setting, consumers would like information that allows them to distinguish the seller of high-quality goods or services from the seller of low-quality goods or services (Tsaor & Wang, 2009). In economics, more precisely in contract theory, signaling is the idea that one party (termed the agent) conveys some meaningful information about itself to another party when information asymmetry exists between transacting parties in a variety of settings (Spence, 1974).
96	Social Capital Theory	Bourdieu, P. (1986). <i>The forms of capital</i> . Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education. Putnam, R. D. (1994). <i>Social Capital and Public Affairs</i> . Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 47(8), 5–19.	Flora, C. (1997). <i>Building social capital: the importance of entrepreneurial social infrastructure</i> . Rural development news (USA). Flora, C. B. (2004). <i>Community Dynamics and Social Capital</i> . In Agroecosystems Analysis, edited by D. Rickerl and C. Francis. Madison, Wisconsin: American Society of Agronomy, Inc., Crop Science Society of America, Inc., Soil Science Society of America, Inc. Pp.93-	Social capital is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to the possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition (Bourdieu, 1986). Another useful way to typologize social capital has been via what is known as the Networks View (McGehee et al., 2010). This perspective recognizes the differentiation between bonding social capital and bridging social capital (Putnam,

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
			<p>107.</p> <p>McGehee, N. G., Lee, S., O'Bannon, T. L., & Perdue, R. R. (2010). Tourism-related social capital and its relationship with other forms of capital: An exploratory study. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 49(4), 486-500.</p>	<p>1994). The internal relationships, networks, and trust that occur “horizontally” (Putnam, 1993) within a community are referred to as bonding social capital. Conversely, bridging social capital occurs when bonded groups within a community reach out (often “vertically”) to groups and institutions outside the community to seek information, resources, or support. In the tourism context, social capital can include connections with government officials at the destination or relationships tourism businesses have with their external partners.</p>
97	Social Control Theory	<p>Hirschi, T. (1969). Key idea: Hirschi’s social bond/social control theory. <i>Key ideas in criminology and criminal justice</i>, 1969, 55-69.</p>	<p>Belhassen, Y., Santos, C., & Uriely, N. (2007). Cannabis usage in tourism: A sociological perspective. <i>Leisure Studies</i>, 26(3), 303-319.</p>	<p>Social Control Theory, developed by Travis Hirschi, suggests that people are naturally predisposed to deviant behavior, but strong social bonds deter them from acting on these impulses. These bonds—attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief—connect individuals to societal norms and values. When these bonds are strong, individuals are more likely to conform to rules and expectations, reducing the likelihood of engaging in criminal or deviant acts.</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
98	Social Exchange Theory	<p>Blau, P. M. (1964). Exchange and power in social life. New York: John Wiley.</p> <p>Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. <i>American journal of sociology</i>, 63(6), 597-606.</p> <p>Thibault, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). <i>The social psychology of groups</i>. New York: John Wiley.</p>	<p>Chow, C. W., Lai, J. Y., & Loi, R. (2015). Motivation of travel agents' customer service behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: The role of leader-member exchange and internal marketing orientation. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 48, 362-369.</p> <p>Grissemann, U. S., & Stokburger-Sauer, N. E. (2012). Customer co-creation of travel services: The role of company support and customer satisfaction with the co-creation performance. <i>Tourism management</i>, 33(6), 1483-1492.</p>	Social Exchange Theory posits that human social interactions are based on an implicit cost-benefit analysis, where individuals seek to maximize rewards and minimize costs in their relationships. It applies across diverse relationship types, from personal to professional contexts, highlighting how decisions to initiate, maintain, or end relationships hinge on the balance of perceived benefits versus drawbacks. The theory suggests that people assess the value of interactions based on expected outcomes, influenced by past experiences and societal norms. Central to this theory is the notion of reciprocity, where the actions of one party lead to reciprocal actions by others, ideally benefiting all involved. Additionally, it acknowledges that personal expectations and the availability of alternative options can significantly affect relationship dynamics. Ultimately, Social Exchange Theory offers a lens through which to understand the complex motivations underlying human social behavior.
99	Social Identity Theory	Tajfel, H. (1981). <i>Human Groups and Social Categories</i> . Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press	<p>Zhang, C. X., Fong, L., & McCabe, S. (2023). Intergroup Identity Conflict in Tourism: The Voice of the Tourist. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 00472875231217898.</p> <p>Palmer, A., Koenig-Lewis, N., & Jones, L. E. M. (2013). The effects of residents' social identity and involvement on their advocacy of incoming tourism. <i>Tourism Management</i>, 38, 142-151.</p>	Social Identity Theory explores how individuals categorize themselves and others into social groups, and how these group memberships influence behavior and attitudes. According to this theory, people derive a sense of identity and self-esteem from their membership in social groups, and strive to maintain a positive social identity by favoring their own group (in-group) over others (out-groups). In-group favoritism and out-group discrimination can arise as individuals strive to maintain a positive social identity by enhancing their in-group status. This theory helps explain intergroup behavior, including prejudice, discrimination, and group dynamics, and has applications in understanding social conflicts and promoting social cohesion.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
100	Social Influence Theory	Kelman, H. C. (1958). Compliance, identification, and internalization three processes of attitude change. <i>Journal of conflict resolution</i> , 2(1), 51-60.	Book, L. A., & Tanford, S. (2020). Measuring social influence from online traveler reviews. <i>Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights</i> , 3(1), 54-72.	Social influence theory explains how individual's attitudes, beliefs, and subsequent behaviors are influenced by others (Kelman, 1958). Kelman (1958) proposed three varieties of social influence to clarify how social influence occurs: compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance happens when individuals accept social influence because they want to get favorable reactions from others. In this process, people conform the induced behavior because they hope to acquire rewards or avoid punishments. Identification happens when you accept social influence to establish or maintain a relationship with others. As it is due to expected relationships with others, the specific content of induced behavior is not highly important (Kelman, 1958). Lastly, internalization happens when a person follows others because he or she actually likes the content of induced behavior. If the induced behavior fits with his or her value system, he or she tends to adopt social influence. Hence, this process is due to the content of behavior (Kelman, 1958).
101	Social Learning Theory	Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1977). <i>Social learning theory</i> (Vol. 1). Prentice Hall: Englewood cliffs.	Crittenden, W. F. (2005). A social learning theory of cross-functional case education. <i>Journal of Business Research</i> , 58(7), 960-966. Reynolds, K. L., & Harris, L. C. (2005). When service failure is not service failure: an exploration of the forms and motives of "illegitimate" customer complaining. <i>Journal of services marketing</i> .	Bandura explains in his 1977 book Social Learning Theory, "most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action." Behavior results from the interaction of people and situations where learning can take place vicariously through observing other people on the social environment (Bandura, 1977). This suggests that behavior of employees or customers may be mimicked or invite more of the same behavior from other employees/ customers (Reynolds & Harris, 2005).

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
102	Social Network Theory (SNT)	<p>Barnes, J. A. (1954). Class and committees in a Norwegian island parish. <i>Human Relations</i>, 7(1), 39-58.</p> <p>Haythornthwaite, C. (1996). Social network analysis: An approach and technique for the study of information exchange. <i>Library & Information Science Research</i>, 18(4), 323-342.</p>	<p>Chang, K. C. (2021). The affecting tourism development attitudes based on the social exchange theory and the social network theory. <i>Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research</i>, 26(2), 167-182.</p>	<p>Social network theory is the study of how the social structure of relationships around a person, group, or organization affects beliefs or behaviors. It focuses on the role of social relationships in transmitting information, channeling personal or media influence, and enabling attitudinal or behavioral change. It is generally assumed that people are embedded in relationships and cannot be viewed in isolation from their social environment. The starting point of research questions includes relations, the embeddedness of the individuals within a network, and the interaction between social structure and individual attributes (Barnes, 1954).</p>
103	Socio-Technical Theory	<p>Pasmore, W., Francis, C., Haldeman, J., & Shani, A. (1982). Sociotechnical systems: A North American reflection on empirical studies of the seventies. <i>Human Relations</i>, 35(12), 1179-1204.</p>	<p>Majchrzak, A., & Borys, B. (2001). Generating testable socio-technical systems theory. <i>Journal of Engineering and Technology Management</i>, 18(3), 219-240.</p>	<p>Socio-Technical Theory evaluates the relationship of the social setting and technology in the work environment. The goal of the theory is to create joint optimization between employees and technology. The theory also attempts to improve organizational performance while enhancing the quality of work life. The socio-technical approach is a “method of viewing organizations which emphasizes the interrelatedness of the functioning of the social and technological subsystems of the organization and the relation of the organization as a whole to the environment in which it operates (Pasmore et al., 1982). The sociotechnical system perspective contends that organizations are made up of people who produce products or services using some technology and that each affects the operation and appropriateness of the technology as well as the actions of the people who operate it.” Within this definition is the value-added notion, whereby the products and services produced are “valued by customers (who are part of the organization’s external environment)” (Griffith & Dougherty, 2001).</p>

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
104	Source Credibility Theory	Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). <i>Communication and persuasion: Psychological studies of opinion change</i> . Yale University Press.	<p>Ayeh, J. K., Au, N., & Law, R. (2013). "Do we believe in TripAdvisor?" Examining credibility perceptions and online travelers' attitude toward using user-generated content. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 52(4), 437-452.</p> <p>Filieri, R., Alguezaui, S., & McLeay, F. (2015). Why do travelers trust TripAdvisor? Antecedents of trust towards consumer-generated media and its influence on recommendation adoption and word of mouth. <i>Tourism management</i>, 51, 174-185.</p>	The theory implies that the positive characteristic of communicators impacts the receiver's perception and the level of message acceptance. In other words, a receiver is more likely to accept a message and be persuaded if the source presents itself as credible. The source is the principal element that determines the credibility of the message (Hovland, 1948; Rieh & Danielson, 2008). Source credibility theory is used to distinguish the uniqueness of an outcome compared to other typical outcomes.
105	Stakeholder Theory	Freeman, R. E. (1984). <i>Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach</i> . Boston, MA: Pitman.	<p>Friedman, A.L. and Miles, S. (2006). <i>Stakeholders: Theory and Practice</i>, Oxford University Press.</p> <p>Sautter, E. T., & Leisen, B. (1999). Managing stakeholders a tourism planning model. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i>, 26(2), 312-328.</p>	Stakeholder theory is a theory of organizational management and business ethics that addresses morals and values in managing an organization. It has a view of capitalism that stresses the interconnected relationships between a business and its customers, suppliers, employees, investors, communities and others who have a stake in the organization. It was originally detailed by R. Edward Freeman in the book <i>Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach</i> , and identifies and models the groups which are stakeholders of a corporation, and both describes and recommends methods by which management can give due regard to the interests of those groups. In short, it attempts to address the "Principle of Who or What Really Counts".

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
106	Structuration Theory	Giddens, A. (2013). <i>The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration</i> . John Wiley & Sons.	Jansen-Verbeke, M., & Dietvorst, A. (1987). Leisure, recreation, tourism: a geographic view on integration. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 14(3), 361-375.	Structuration theory takes the position that social action cannot be fully explained by the structure or agency theories alone. Instead, it recognizes that actors operate within the context of rules produced by social structures, and only by acting in a compliant manner are these structures reinforced (Giddens, 2013).
107	Technology Acceptance Model	Davis Jr, F. D. (1986). A technology acceptance model for empirically testing new end-user information systems: Theory and results (Doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology). Venkatesh, V., & Davis, F. D. (2000). A theoretical extension of the technology acceptance model: four longitudinal field studies. <i>Management Science</i> , 46(2), 186-204.	Kim, T. G., Lee, J. H., & Law, R. (2008). An empirical examination of the acceptance behaviour of hotel front office systems: An extended technology acceptance model. <i>Tourism management</i> , 29(3), 500-513. Go, H., Kang, M., & Suh, S. C. (2020). Machine learning of robots in tourism and hospitality: interactive technology acceptance model (iTAM)—cutting edge. <i>Tourism review</i> .	The Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989), or TAM, posits that there are two factors that determine whether a computer system will be accepted by its potential users: (1) perceived usefulness, and (2) perceived ease of use (Davis Jr., 1986). Further, the attitudinal and behavioral intentions of end-users of an information system can be predicted by their perceived ease-of-use and perceived usefulness of the IS. This model has been extended and revised multiple times in the face of ever-changing technologies and functions of systems. For example, TAM has been extended to the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) (Venkatesh, et al., 2003) and the more recent UTAUT2 (Venkatesh, et al., 2012) by combining with seven other theories, such as theory of reasoned action, motivational model, social cognitive theory, combined theory of planned technology/behavior acceptance model.
108	Terror Management Theory (TMT)	Greenberg, J., Pyszczynski, T., Solomon, S., Rosenblatt, A., Veeder, M., Kirkland, S., & Lyon, D. (1990). Evidence for terror management theory II: The effects of mortality salience on reactions to those who threaten or bolster the cultural worldview. <i>Journal of</i>	Lyu, J., Wang, L., & Wei, W. (2023). Mitigating mortality anxiety: Identifying heritage tourism's role in terror management. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 62(6), 1221-1236.	Terror Management Theory (TMT) proposes that the awareness of our own mortality creates deep existential anxiety. To manage this fear, individuals rely on an anxiety-buffering system composed of cultural worldviews, self-esteem, and close relationships. These elements provide a sense of meaning, value, and permanence, helping individuals cope with the psychological threat

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
		<i>Personality and Social Psychology</i> , 58(2), 308.		posed by the inevitability of death. TMT highlights the profound influence of mortality awareness on human motivation, behavior, and social dynamics.
109	Theory of Allocentrism-Psychocentrism	<p>Plog, S. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. <i>Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly</i>, 14(4), 55–58.</p> <p>Plog, S. (2001). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: An update of a Cornell Quarterly classic. <i>Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly</i>, 42(3), 13–24.</p> <p>Plog, S. (2002). The power of psychographics and the concept of venturesomeness. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 40(3), 244–251.</p>	<p>Griffith, D. & Albanese, P. (1996). An examination of Plog’s psychographic travel model within a student population. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 34(4), 47–51.</p> <p>Merritt, R., Kline, C., Crawford, A., Viren, P., & Dilworth, G. (2016). An exploration of recreational activities while travelling relative to psychographic tendencies. <i>Tourism Recreation Research</i>, 41(3), 302–313.</p> <p>Poon, K. & Huang, W. (2017). Past experience, traveler personality and tripographics on intention to use Airbnb. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i>, 29(9), 2425–2443.</p> <p>Litvin, S., Guttentag, D., Smith, W., & Pitts, R. (2024). Revisiting and extending: “Who should you market to in a crisis? Examining Plog’s model during the COVID-19 pandemic”. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i>, 63(5), 1304–1309.</p>	The Allocentrism–Psychocentrism Theory, introduced by Plog (1974), categorizes tourists along a psychographic continuum based on personality traits. Allocentrics (or "venturers") are adventurous, self-directed travelers who seek novelty, variety, and risk in their travel experiences. In contrast, psychocentrics (or "dependables") prefer safety, familiarity, and routine, favoring well-known and comfortable destinations. Mid-centrics fall between these extremes, exhibiting a blend of both traits. This theory helps explain how personality influences destination choice and travel behavior, highlighting internal psychological "push factors" in tourism motivation.
110	Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)	Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl, & J. Beckman (Eds.). <i>Action-control: From cognition to behavior</i> (pp. 11–39). Heidelberg: Springer.	Hsu, C. H., & Huang, S. (2012). An extension of the theory of planned behavior model for tourists. <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research</i> , 36(3), 390-417.	The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a social psychological theory which is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). TPB suggests that an individual's behavior is influenced by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Attitudes refer to an individual's positive or negative evaluation of a behavior, subjective norms refer to the individual's perception of social pressure to perform the behavior, and perceived behavioral control refers to the individual's perception of their ability to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1985).

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
111	Theory of Repurchase Decision-Making (TRD)	Han, H., & Ryu, K. (2012). The theory of repurchase decision-making (TRD): Identifying the critical factors in the post-purchase decision-making process. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> , 31(3), 786-797.	Han, H., Hwang, J., & Kim, Y. (2015). Senior travelers and airport shopping: Deepening repurchase decision-making theory. <i>Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research</i> , 20(7), 761-788. Han, H., & Yoon, H. (2015). Customer retention in the eco-friendly hotel sector: Examining the diverse processes of post-purchase decision-making. <i>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</i> , 23(7), 1095-1113.	In order to better understanding decision-making process, socio-psychological theories, such as theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and model of goal directed behavior, need to be adopted. However, previous studies overlook the critical parts of decision formation, belief. In addition, previous studies that adopting theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and model of goal directed behavior target the broad decision formation. Therefore, the Theory of repurchase decision-making process (TRD) is developed explaining individuals' post-purchase decision-making processes. combines belief construct and with the model of goal directed behavior.
112	Theory of the Leisure Class	Veblen, Thorstein (1899). <i>The Theory of the Leisure Class</i> .	Smith, S. L., & Godbey, G. C. (1991). Leisure, recreation and tourism. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 18(1), 85-100.	The Theory of the Leisure Class argues that the leisure class engages in conspicuous consumption, which is the use of wealth and resources to display social status and demonstrate one's superiority over others. Veblen suggests that this behavior is driven by a desire for social prestige, rather than practical or functional considerations. The leisure class also engages in what Veblen calls "pecuniary emulation," which is the imitation of the consumption patterns of those in higher social classes (Veblen, 1899).
113	Tourism Motivation Theory	Iso-Ahola, Seppo E. 1982. "Toward a Social Psychological Theory of Tourism Motivation: A Rejoinder." <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> 9 (2): 256-62.	Ettinger, A., Grabner-Kräuter, S., Okazaki, S., & Terlutter, R. (2021). The desirability of CSR communication versus greenhushing in the hospitality industry: The customers' perspective. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 60(3), 618-638.	Tourism motivation theory proposes that people travel driven by two main forces: the desire to escape daily life's routine and pressures, and the pursuit of new experiences and personal growth. This theory, framed within social psychology, highlights the intrinsic motivations behind travel, focusing on the psychological need for novelty, relaxation, and escape from societal roles. Iso-Ahola's dualistic approach, categorizing motivations into "escape" and "seeking", provides a simplified yet profound understanding of tourist

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
				behavior, emphasizing both the personal and social dimensions of travel.
114	Trait Theory of Personality	Eysenck, H. J. (1967). <i>The Biological Basis of Personality</i> , Springfield: C.C. Thomas	Huang, L., Gursoy, D., & Xu, H. (2014). Impact of personality traits and involvement on prior knowledge. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 48, 42-57.	The trait theory of personality posits that individuals' personalities can be described and understood in terms of specific traits or dimensions. People differ from one another in terms of the extent to which they possess certain personality traits, which are relatively stable and enduring over time. The author identified three primary dimensions of personality that account for much of the variation in human behavior: extraversion-introversion, neuroticism-emotional stability, and psychoticism.
115	Transaction Cost Theory	Williamson, O. E. (1975). Markets and Hierarchies, <i>Analysis and Antitrust Implications: A Study in the Economics of Internal Organization</i> . New York: Free Press.	Calveras, A., & Orfila-Sintes, F. (2019). Intermediation in hospitality and transaction cost theory: Evidence from the Balearic Islands, 2001–2010. <i>Journal of destination marketing & management</i> , 11, 281-291.	First proposed by Williamson (1975) in his seminal book Markets and Hierarchies, TCE has emerged as one of the most influential theory in social science. The central question of TCE is whether a transaction is more efficiently performed within the firm or across independent companies.
116	Transactional Theory of Stress	Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). <i>Stress, appraisal, and coping</i> . Springer.	Li, P., Xiao, X., & Jordan, E. (2023). Tourists' visual attention and stress intensity in nature-based tourism destinations: An eye-tracking study during the COVID-19 pandemic. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 62(8), 1667-1684.	The Transactional Theory of Stress conceptualizes stress as the result of a dynamic interaction between an individual and their environment, highlighting the process of stress appraisal and coping. It suggests that stress is not merely derived from the situation itself but from the individual's perception of the situation and their belief in their ability to cope with its demands. This theory emphasizes the importance of cognitive processes in evaluating potential stressors (appraisal) and selecting coping strategies to manage or alter the stress-inducing situation, underscoring the subjective nature of stress and coping mechanisms.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
117	Transformative Learning Theory	Mezirow, J. (1991). <i>Transformative dimensions of adult learning</i> : ERIC.	Hoggan, C. D. (2016). Transformative learning as a metatheory: Definition, criteria, and typology. <i>Adult Education Quarterly</i> , 66(1), 57-75. Müller, C. V., Scheffer, A. B. B., & Closs, L. Q. (2020). Volunteer tourism, transformative learning and its impacts on careers: The case of Brazilian volunteers. <i>International Journal of Tourism Research</i> , 22(6), 726-738.	Mezirow (1991) formulated the transformative learning experience within the field of education. It aims to understand how adults can experience experiences that lead them to alter their perspectives of the world. The transformative learning experience can be defined as “processes that result in significant and irreversible changes in the way a person experiences, conceptualizes, and interacts with the world” (Hoggan, 2016, p.71).
118	Travel Career Pattern Theory	Pearce, P. L. (1988). <i>The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings</i> . New York: Springer-Verlag Ryan, C. (1998). The travel career ladder An Appraisal. <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 25(4), 936-957.	Pearce, P. L., & Lee, U. I. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. <i>Journal of Travel Research</i> , 43(3), 226-237.	TCL describes tourist motivation as consisting of five different levels: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and self-actualization/fulfillment needs. TCP is a modification of the earlier TCL work. It emphasizes the pattern of motivations and their structure rather than steps on a ladder or hierarchy (Pearce & Lee, 2005).
119	Trust-Commitment Theory	Rusbult, C. E. (1980). Commitment and satisfaction in romantic associations: A test of the investment model. <i>Journal of experimental social psychology</i> , 16(2), 172-186. Morgan R.M & Hunt S.D. (1994). The commitment-Trust theory of relationship Marketing	Crotts, J. C., Coppage, C. M. A., & Andibo, A. (2001). Trust-commitment model of buyer-supplier relationships. <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research</i> , 25(2), 195-208.	Trust-Commitment Theory is a social psychological theory that explains how trust and commitment influence the development and maintenance of relationships. According to Trust-Commitment Theory, trust and commitment are two key factors that contribute to relationship satisfaction and longevity. Trust is defined as the belief that one is reliable and honest, while commitment is defined as the decision to remain in a relationship and work towards its success. It theorizes that the presence of relationship commitment and trust is central not power and its ability to condition others (Crotts, Coppage, & Andibo, 2001).

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
120	Two-Factor Theory	Herzberg, F. (2017). <i>Motivation to work</i> . Routledge.	Lundberg, C., Gudmundson, A., & Andersson, T. D. (2009). Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of work motivation tested empirically on seasonal workers in hospitality and tourism. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 30(6), 890-899.	Two-Factor Theory, also known as Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, is a motivational theory that was first proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg in 1959. The theory suggests that there are two distinct factors that influence motivation and job satisfaction in the workplace: hygiene factors and motivational factors (Herzberg 2017). Hygiene factors are the basic needs that must be met in the workplace to prevent job dissatisfaction. These factors include things like salary, working conditions, job security, and company policies. When hygiene factors are inadequate, they can lead to job dissatisfaction, but when they are met, they do not necessarily lead to job satisfaction. Motivational factors, on the other hand, are the factors that actually lead to job satisfaction and motivation. These factors include things like recognition, achievement, responsibility, and personal growth opportunities. When these factors are present, employees are motivated and satisfied in their jobs.
121	Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT2)	Venkatesh, V., Morris, M. G., Davis, G. B., & Davis, F. D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. <i>MIS Quarterly</i> , 425-478.	San Martín, H., & Herrero, Á. (2012). Influence of the user's psychological factors on the online purchase intention in rural tourism: Integrating innovativeness to the UTAUT framework. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 33(2), 341-350.	The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) is a comprehensive model created to understand how users come to accept and use technology. Developed by Venkatesh et al., it integrates elements from eight previous models to offer a unified perspective on the determinants of technology adoption. UTAUT identifies four key factors that influence an individual's intention to use technology and their actual usage: performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions. Additionally, it highlights the moderating effects of demographic variables such as gender, age, experience, and voluntariness of use on these relationships. The theory has proven its robustness, explaining a significant portion of the variance in users' behavioral intentions and actual technology use, making it a

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
				pivotal framework in the field of information systems research.
122	Upper Echelons Theory	Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 193-206.	Carpenter, M. A., Geletkanycz, M. A., & Sanders, W. G. (2004). Upper echelons research revisited: Antecedents, elements, and consequences of top management team composition. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 30(6), 749-778.	This theory suggests that the characteristics and experiences of top executives in organizations, also known as the "upper echelons," influence organizational outcomes. According to Upper Echelons Theory, the beliefs, values, and experiences of top executives can shape the strategic direction and decision-making of the organization. The theory proposes that there are three key characteristics of top executives that influence organizational outcomes: demographic characteristics, cognitive characteristics and behavioral characteristics.

No	Theory Name	Original Reference	HTM Example Reference	Brief Description
123	Value Belief Norm (VBN)	Stern, P. C., Dietz, T., Abel, T. D., Guagnano, G. & Kalof, L. (1999). A Value Belief Norm Theory of Support for Social Movements: The Case of Environmentalism. <i>Research in Human Ecology</i> , 6(2), pp. 81-97.	Han, H. (2015). Travelers' pro-environmental behavior in a green lodging context: Converging value-belief-norm theory and the theory of planned behavior. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 47, 164-177.	Value-Belief-Norm Theory was first suggested to explain peoples' participation in social movement activities to support and accept environmental policies. This theory suggests that individuals who hold certain values and beliefs about the environment are more likely to act in support of environmental causes, and that social norms play a key role in shaping these behaviors (Stern, et al.1999). It has been applied to marketing and social psychology disciplines in order to describe consumers and their eco-friendly consumption behaviors. This theory was first introduced to the tourism research field in 2015 (Han, 2015) for supporting pro-environmental travelers' behaviors.
124	Variety Seeking Behavior	McAlister, L., & Pessemier, E. (1982). Variety Seeking Behavior: An Interdisciplinary Review. <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i> , 9, 311. McAlister, L. (1982). A dynamic attribute satiation model of variety seeking behavior. <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i> , 9(Sep), 141-150. Givon, M. (1984). Variety Seeking through Brand Switching. <i>Marketing Science</i> , 3(1), 1.	Legoh��rel, P., Hsu, C. H., & Dauc��, B. (2015). Variety-seeking: Using the CHAID segmentation approach in analyzing the international traveler market. <i>Tourism Management</i> , 46, 359-366.	Variety-seeking behavior has been observed in many aspects of consumer behavior, and many studies have identified it as a critical determinant in brand switching (Givon, 1984). Variety-seeking behavior is a phenomenon in which the choices of consumers fluctuate over time among various acceptable alternatives (McAlister and Pessemier, 1982). The variables that influence the behavior of consumers can be grouped into intrinsic, or direction variation, and extrinsic or derived variation. The intrinsic variation is explained by seeking optimal stimuli, curiosity, novelty, and complexity. Variety-seeking behavior is a good example of this variation. Extrinsic variation means that consumer may switch brands because of extrinsic motivation, such as preference among family members and changes in situations, changes in taste, and constraints.

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