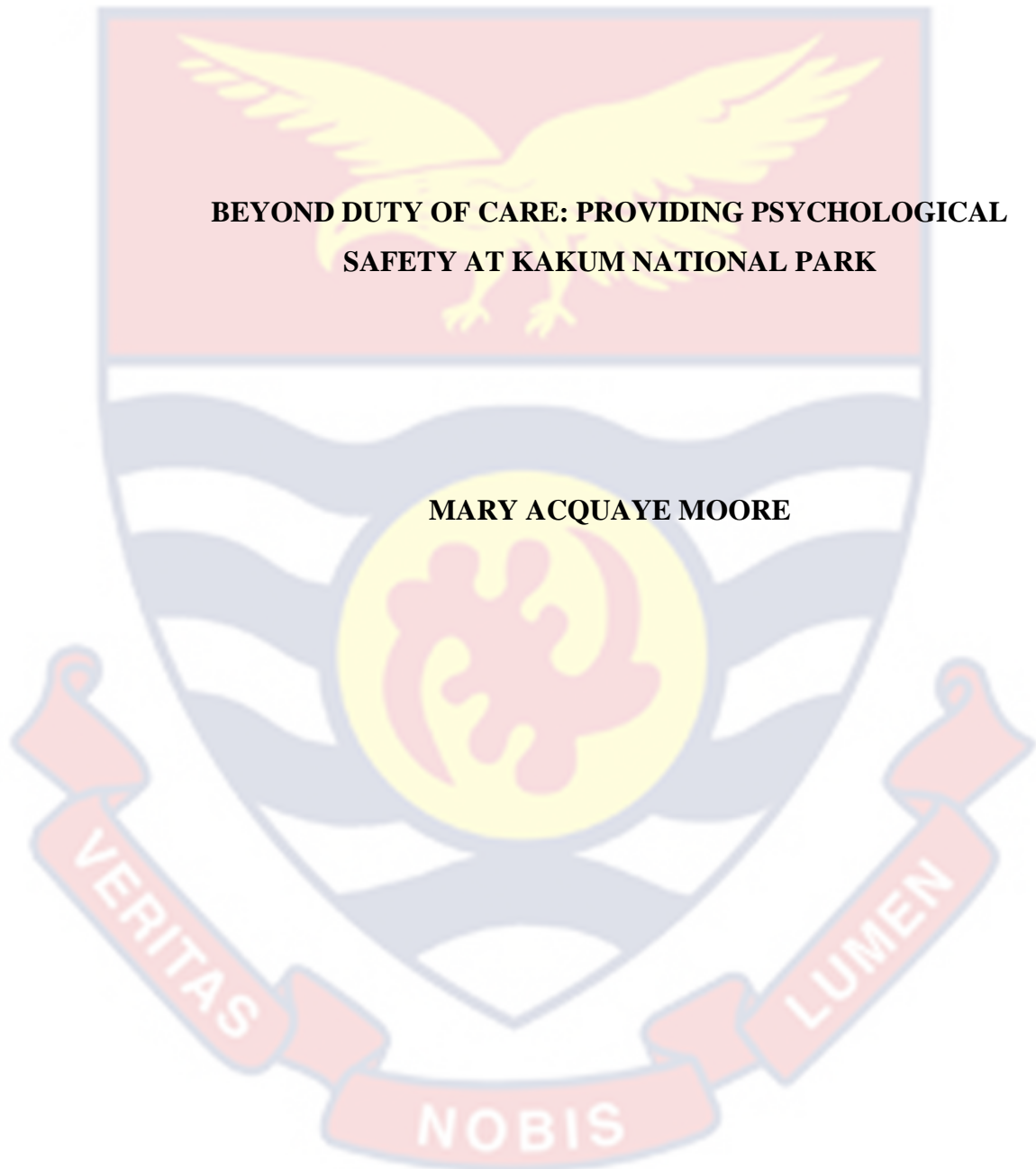


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BEYOND DUTY OF CARE: PROVIDING PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY
AT KAKUM NATIONAL PARK

BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management,
Faculty of Social Science, College of Humanities and Legal Studies,
University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Tourism Management

JANUARY, 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Mary Acquaye Moore

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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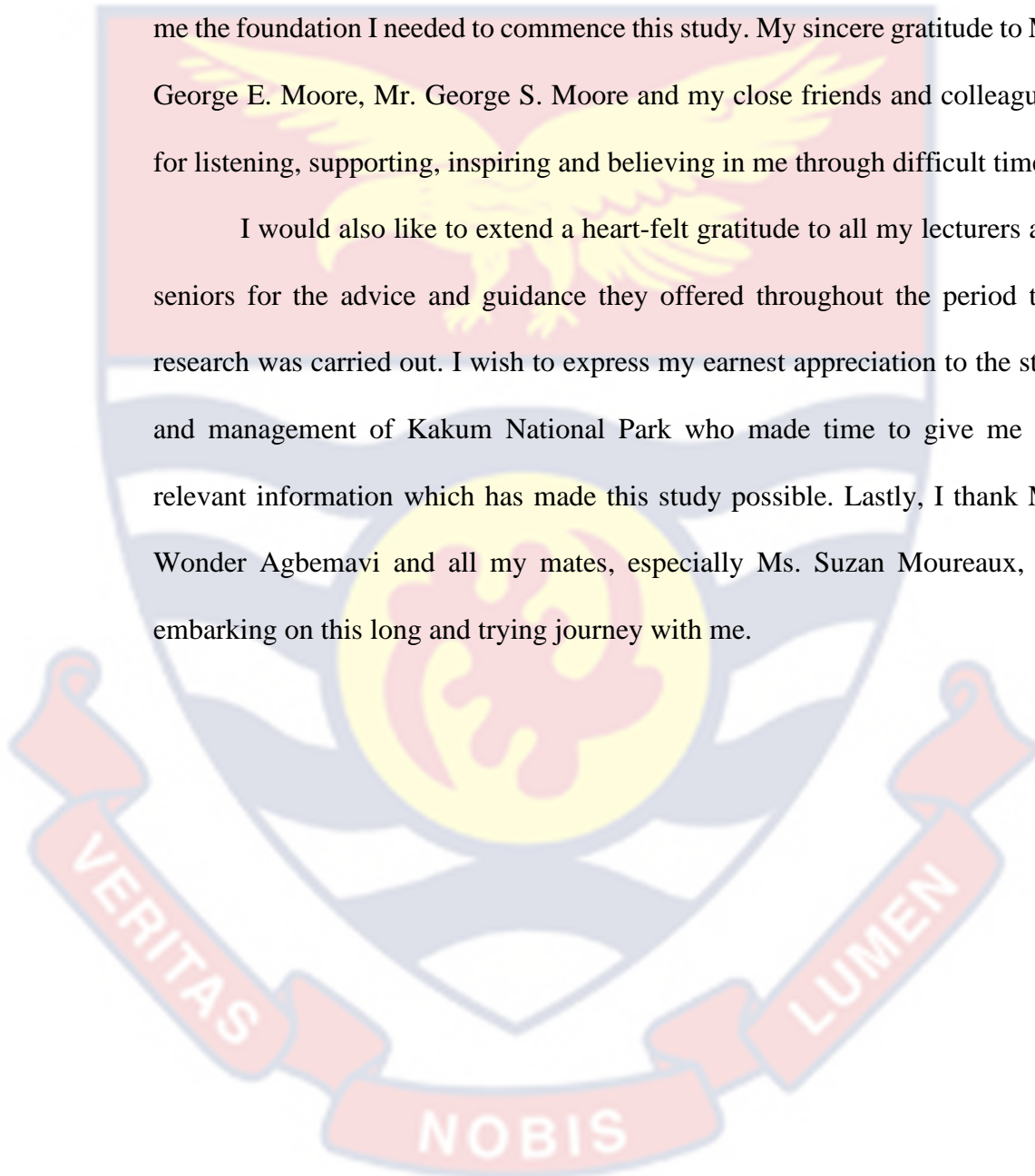
ABSTRACT

There are two dimensions to safety: the physical and psychological. However, studies on tourism safety have primarily focused on the physical dimension, with little attention paid to the psychological safety. Using Kakum National Park (KNP) as a case study, this study assessed the provision of psychological safety focusing on the institutional arrangements for psychological safety, employees' perspectives on psychological safety, psychological safety practices provided, the factors that shape its provision and visitors experience of psychological safety onsite. In-depth interviews were conducted with forty-three (43) visitors, ten (10) tour guides, and three (3) managers. The managers were purposively sampled; visitors were conveniently sampled; while a census was conducted for tour guides. MaxQDA was used for thematic data analysis. The study principally found that KNP provides some form of psychological safety to visitors. To be specific, employees were found to hold a positive perspective towards providing psychological safety to visitors, despite being motivated primarily by self-interest. Onsite, eight (8) psychological safety practices were identified. However, these practices were shaped by ten factors. These notwithstanding, KNP's institutional arrangements for psychological safety were found to be informal and weak. Also, findings on visitors' psychological safety experience were inconclusive. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that KNP erratically provides psychological safety to its visitors. The study recommends that psychological safety needs to be redefining and streamlined in order to demarginalize it as a dimension of safety. Furthermore, government agencies tasked with planning and developing Ghana's tourism must help to institutionalize psychological safety by incorporating it into their general agenda for attraction sites safety.

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DEDICATION

In loving memory of my mother – Josephine Gloria Ewurasi Ghansah



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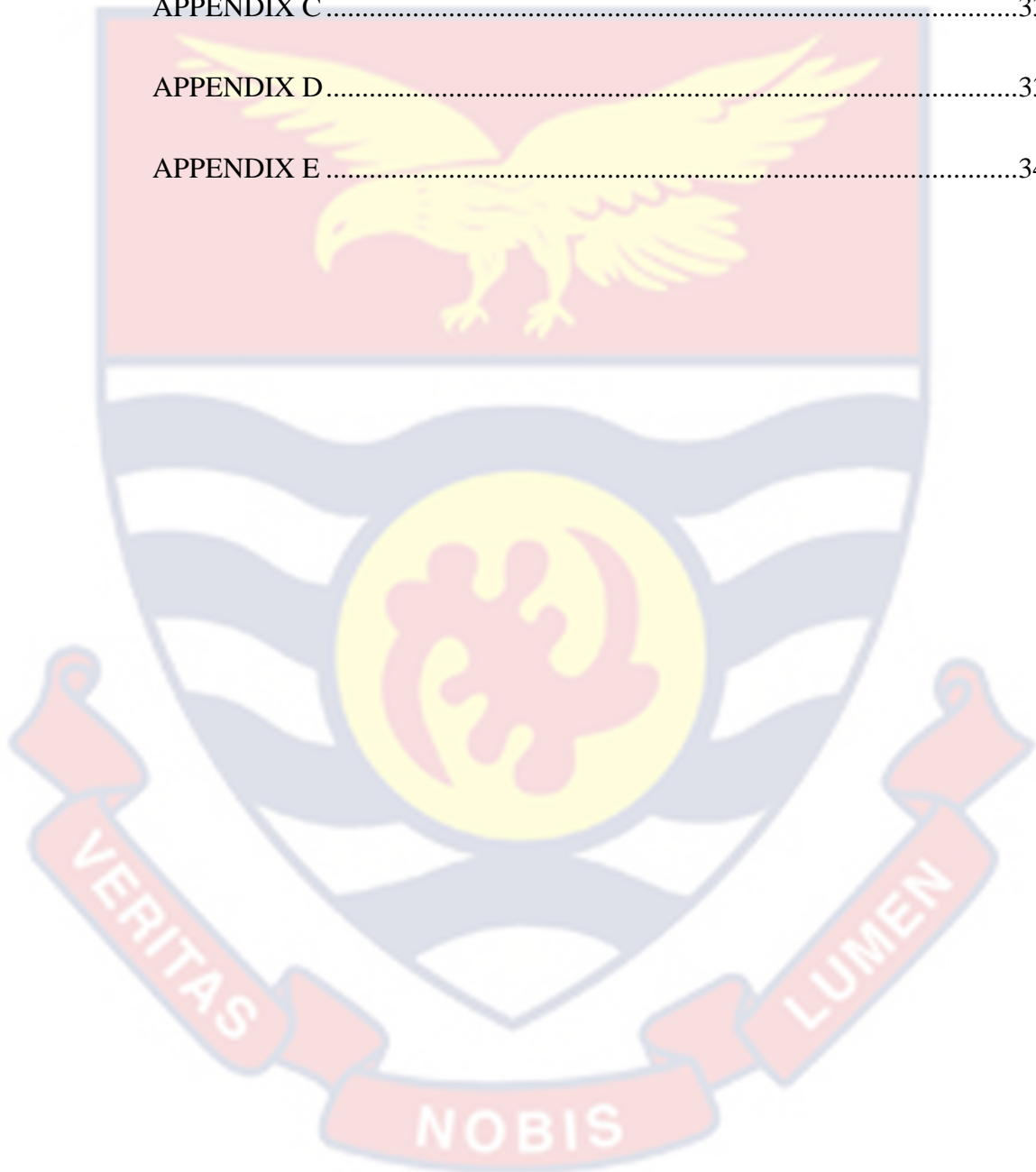
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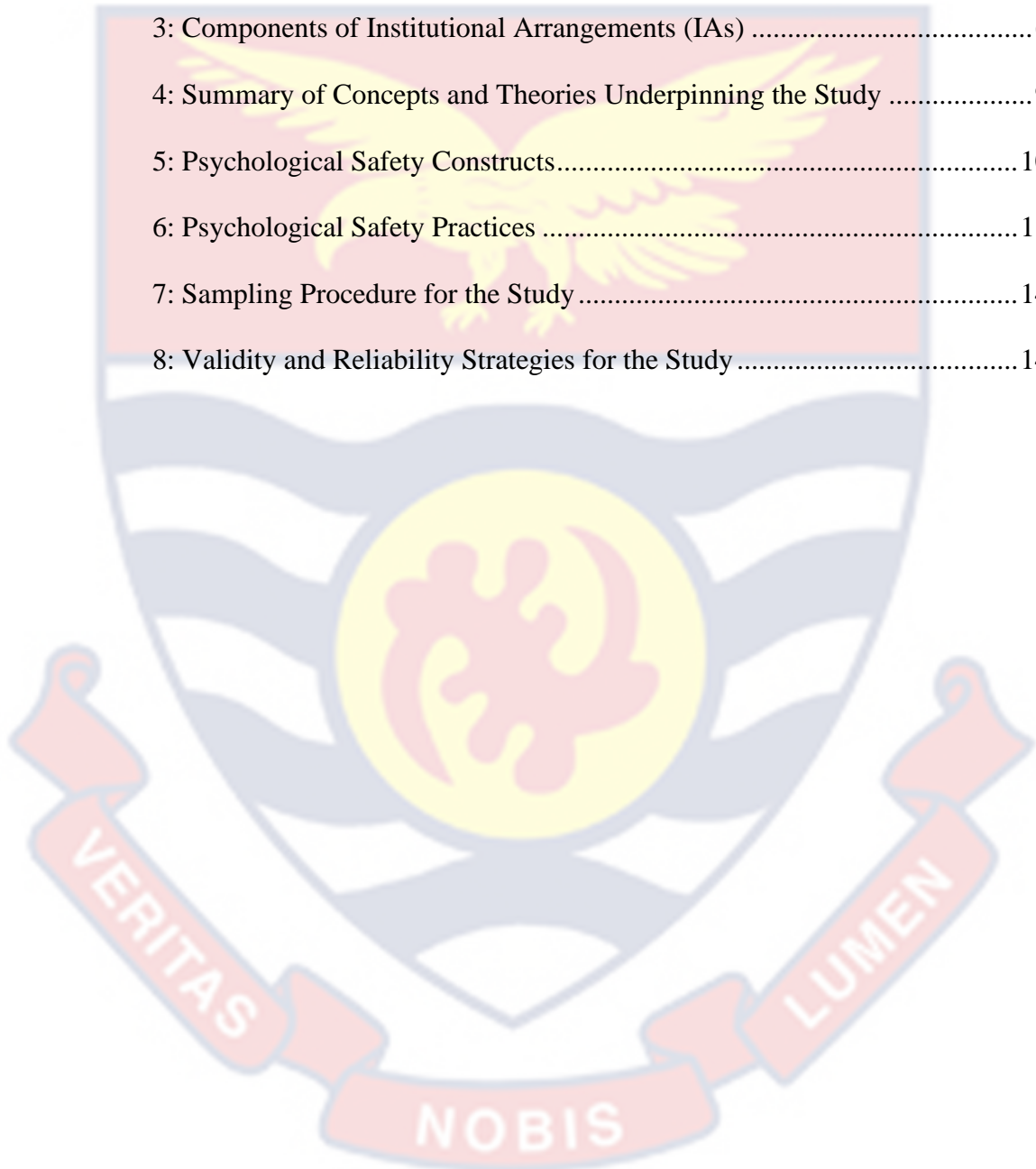
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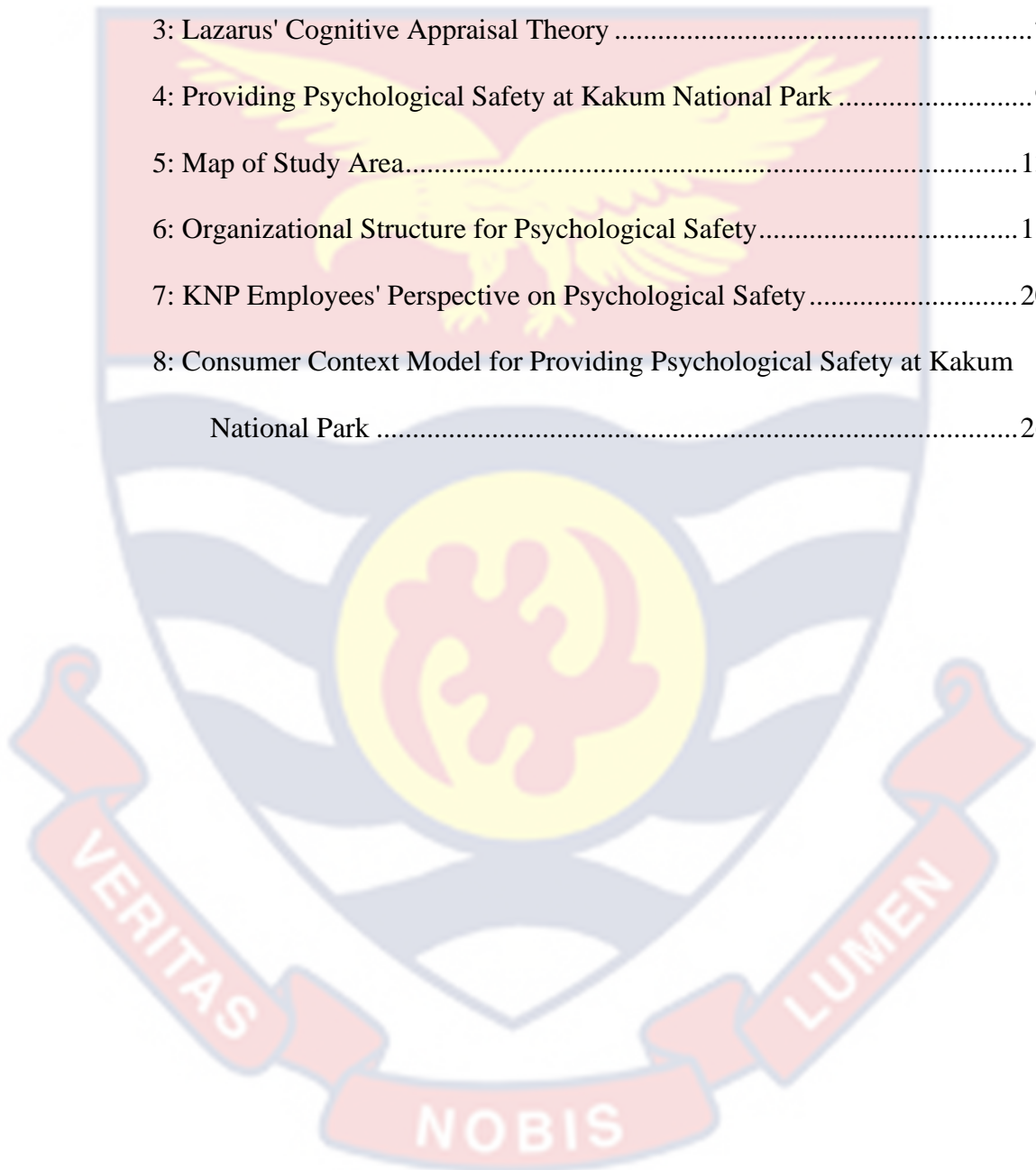
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONSThe background of the page features a large, semi-transparent watermark of the University of Cape Coast crest. The crest is a shield-shaped emblem with a yellow eagle with outstretched wings in the center. The shield is divided into three horizontal sections: a top red section, a middle white section with blue wavy lines, and a bottom yellow section. A red banner at the bottom of the shield contains the Latin motto 'VERITAS LIBERABIT VOS'.

ANS	Autonomic Nervous System
ASIS	American Society for Industrial Security
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CCTV	Close Circuit Television
COMCEC	Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation
DEFRA	International Standards Organization
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency
GHCT	Ghana Heritage & Conservation Trust
GPS	Ghana Police Service
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
GTI	Global Terrorism Index
IAs	Institutional Arrangements
KNP	Kakum National Park
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
SET	Social Exchange Theory
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UK. ACPO	United Kingdom Association of Chief Police Officers
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific & Cultural Organization
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
UNWTO	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
VBN	Value-Belief-Norm
WEF	World Economic Forum
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

In tourism, safety is considered an indispensable condition for success (Spencer & Tarlow, 2021) and a key factor for change in the industry (Cró, de Lurdes Calisto, Martins & Simões, 2019). Indeed, safety is said to determine not only the competitiveness, but also the social and economic well-being of tourism destinations (Khan, Hassan, Fahad & Naushad, 2020). In other words, safety's importance to tourism cannot be underestimated. Yet, to date, 'safety' still suffers definitional challenges.

Mainly, the contention surrounding the definition of safety is said to stem from it being an elementary aspect of human endeavours. As such, it has diverse multi-constructions which make it difficult to fashion a unilateral definition for what it is across different contexts (Gould & Bieder, 2020). Tase, Xhaferri and Hallunovi (2019, p. 69) describe safety as a "complex multidimensional notion with a wide range of components belonging to it". In tourism alone, safety is known to cut-across issues such as political security, public safety, health and sanitation, consumer protection, legal protection of visitors, environmental security, disaster protection, data safety, personal safety in communication, quality assurance of services, just to mention a few (Bak & Szczecinska, 2020; Mazur, Aliyev & Zhelizko, 2020).

In addition to this contextual complexity, the term 'safety' is often used interchangeably with 'security'. Indeed, these two terms are mutually defined

as: “freedom from threats and harm” (Jore, 2020; p. 44), the “absence of acute threats to the minimal acceptable levels” (von Boemcken & Schetterto, 2019; p. 2) or the protection of lives and property and provision of a free, peaceful, danger-free environment where individuals can go about their lawful actions (Afolabi & Bodunde, 2018). Yet, literature (including Cheng, Zhang, Yan & Miao, 2021) suggests a distinction between safety and security, although there is a little accord as to exactly where the difference lies.

According to popular assertions, safety is related to offering protection against risks emanating from negligence (Brookes & Coole, 2020; La Porte, 2020) or unintended acts of involuntary nature such as diseases, health issues, accidents and natural disasters (Cham, Lim, Sia, Cheah & Ting, 2021). In contrast, security is concerned with safeguarding against risks stemming from anthropogenic factors or incidents deliberately perpetrated by people (Owiyo & Mulwa, 2018). These incidents include crime-related incidents, terrorism, military conflicts/wars, and civil/political unrests (Blokland & Reniers, 2020; Jore, 2020). However, as one goes further in literature, the narrative suggests that the issue is not so clear-cut.

Indeed, Leveson (2020) indicates that trying to delineate between these concepts often results in overlaps and confusion. It is for this reason that Poku and Boakye (2019) conclude that there is little academic value in separating safety from security. Along this line, this study chooses not to distinguish between these terms, but rather opts to interpret them as one and the same under the broad term ‘safety’. Accordingly, providing safety in the context of this study is defined as creating a stable, conducive, relatively predictable

environment where visitors can pursue recreational and leisure activities in freedom without fear of natural, man-made, intentional or unintentional risks, or threat (Chhetri, 2018).

Generally, literature points to two (2) broad dimensions of safety, namely; physical and psychological/emotional safety (Beirman, 2018). Physical safety is best described as ‘preparing and hardening a facility’ against likely threats/risks (Fennelly, 2020). At its basis, it entails safeguarding against threats/risks by employing tangible measures to deter (by making itself obvious), detect (revealing threats) and delay (serving as a barrier) unfavourable events/behaviour (Hesterman, 2018). Tangible measures in this sense refer to all passive and active mechanisms/technologies as well as people focused activities employed to coordinate resources such that the probability of a threat/risk manifesting onsite is reduced, controlled or averted (Blokland & Reniers, 2020).

Usually, mechanisms employed include: perimeter barriers (warning signs, fencing, raising check-points, guard/security booths, lighting); access control tools (screening equipment such as walk-through/hand-held metal detectors; identification systems such as photo ID badges, personal identification, electronic card readers, biometric systems; lock systems like entry keypads; electronic doors), security forces (guards, security dogs), surveillance, detection or monitoring systems (emergency communication system, alarms, motion sensors, pressure mats, close circuit televisions [CCTV], panic buttons) and fire and life safety systems (exit signs, emergency assembling points, fire alarm system, fire suppression system, emergency lights,

smoke and heat detectors (Enerstvedt, 2017; Khan, Aziz, Faruk, & Talukder, 2020).

Alternatively, people-focused activities involved in the provision of physical safety include: performing due diligence when employing staff; engaging professional security personnel; enacting mail room and delivery procedures, regular emergency checks at entrances; vehicle inspection, verification of guest before they are booked as well as when they are reissued room keys; and encouraging employees and guests to immediately report any suspicious activities or item to security (Peter, 2017; Lalić, Čeranić & Sikimić, 2019).

Psychological or emotional safety, on the other hand, is generally contextual and has numerous definitions, mainly due to its ambiguous origin. From Edmondson and Lei's (2014) perspective, the concept has its origins in the earlier works of organizational change scholars of the 1960s. Chen, Gao, Zheng and Ran (2015), however, disputes this, indicating that the idea of psychological safety emerged earlier in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, where Maslow suggests that the feeling of confidence, safety and freedom from fear and anxiety is a necessary requirement for meeting current and future needs.

Notwithstanding, the concept at its core is concerned with protecting vulnerable people from their fears and perceived risks. More explicitly, it involves providing visitors with the ability to be themselves while they engage in recreational activities without fear of negative repercussions to their well-being, self-image or status (Geller, 2022). Turner and Harder (2018) further suggest that psychological safety is about providing a condition in which people

feel valued and comfortable enough to take up risks without fearing the consequences to themselves or others. Thus, at its core, the concept of psychological safety revolves around providing a conducive environment that furnishes individuals with the freedom to pursue activities without being held back by any foreboding of being at risk. In other words, psychological safety within this context is essentially hinged on providing a conducive, trusting environment (He, Sun, Zhao, Zheng, & Shen, 2020) that makes visitors feel mentally protected, comfortable and valued as they engage in destination activities (Samra, 2019).

Although literature more often than not discusses physical safety independent of psychological safety and vice versa, scholars like Grant (2021) and Payne (2012) suggest the two dimensions to be otherwise related. From Payne's perspective, psychological safety is "an aspect of personal physical safety" (p. 36). That is to say, psychological safety and physical safety are connected on a somewhat hierarchical level, with physical safety forming the basis for the presence of psychological safety. Likewise, Grant suggests that psychological safety to some extent relies on the visible cues and protocols of physical safety to engender the feeling of being safe, supported and seen. What is more, Grailey, Murray, Reader and Brett (2021) suggest that psychological safety measures fundamentally aim at improving visitors' perception of risk or their impression about safety policies, practices and procedures within a specific environment.

These scholars essentially present an alternative view of psychological safety than what is popularly portrayed by literature. Succinctly, they suggest

psychological safety to be: more inherently related to physical safety; relatively more textured and fluid in nature, rather than structured and static; and just as physical safety measures can give added assurance of psychological safety (Grant, 2021), they can similarly heighten the perception of risk and fear. These theoretical suggestions thus prompt the need to consciously pursue psychological safety as a dimension of safety, taking into consideration the influence of physical safety on it.

Safety and the Tourism Trade

Generally, safety is said to be a two-edged sword. On one side, its supply (via meeting visitors' expectation of protection) promotes quality tourism experience which subsequently boosts demand for destinations (Tayibnapis & Sundari, 2020). In detail, visitors engage in tourism in an effort to pursue relaxation, excitement, and adventure at novel locations (Shim, Park, Lee, Kim, & Hall, 2022). As such, they often possess relatively limited information of these destinations (Minar, 2019) and rely predominantly on service providers to assure their well-being. When their expectations are met, visitors have a delightful vacation and maintain positive post-purchase intention.

On the other side, failure in safety arrangement (be it as a result of nonexistence, inadequate, or an overabundance of safety measures) undermines visitors' sense of protection and well-being causing them to feel fearful, insecure or psychologically unsafe (Asongu, Uduji & Okolo-Obasi, 2019). Suggestions from authors like Lu, Zhang and Liu (2018), and Pennington-Gray and Schroeder (2018) indicate that psychologically unsafe visitors (irrespective

of the threat being real or perceived) exhibit feelings of doubt, worry, anxiety and fear about their well-being and status. It subsequently results in them stressing over; being hurt, losing their life or the lives of loved ones, or at the very least losing control over their life, property and/social relations. This situation consequently hampers their vacation and creates negative post purchase intentions (Beirman, 2018; Zou & Yu, 2022).

Generally, the effect of this insecurity is usually seen manifested in visitors thought and actions. With regard to thought, evidence from prior studies show that visitors develop a negative perception/impression/image about the destination (Owiyo & Mulwa, 2018). In terms of action, Gobin, Kitwuna and Anita (2020, p. 183) indicate that visitors would “vote with their feet”. That is to say, visitors who are already within the destination would immediately depart and those with plans to visit would either defer their demand until the situation at the destination has improved or simply substitute the destination with one that makes them feel safer (Aunga & Mselemo, 2018). Furthermore, as rumour on the destination’s riskiness spreads and becomes more profound (aided by the pervasiveness of the internet and extensiveness of media coverage), visitor source countries usually react by issuing out alerts and advice for their citizens to withdraw from or avoid the affected destination. Consequently, tour operators begin cancelling tours to affected destinations (due to insufficient bookings and fear of liability suits) and rather start promoting safer alternatives. This situation generally translates to both economic and reputational losses to service providers (Gobin, Kitwuna & Anita, 2020; Njoloma & Kamanga, 2019).

It is for this reason that Tarlow (2021) describes tourism as the largest peacetime industry. Indeed, it is an industry built on the premise of peace and tranquillity as a prerequisite for prosperity (Tayibnapis & Sundari, 2020). The sector essentially thrives on fulfilling visitors' innate desires with the least amount of complication. Hence, guaranteeing protection from harm and danger is a fundamental criterion of the industry (Zou & Meng, 2020); one that has been in effect since time immemorial (Zhou, 2022a).

Yet, Africa as a continent has been contending with the issue of safety for more than three decades (Imbeah, Khademi-Vidra & Bujdosó, 2020). In fact, the sense of danger surrounding Africa seems only second to that of the Middle East (Cilliers, 2018). According to recent reports, "Sub-Saharan Africa has emerged as the global epicentre of Islamist terrorism" (Kohnert 2022, p.1), with the region accounting for "almost half of all terrorism deaths globally" (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC] 2022, p.1). Since 2005, West Africa in particular has gained a reputation as Africa's most perilous sub-region (Okunade & Shulika, 2021). In the words of Kohnert (2022, p.1), "the West African Sahel zone harbours the world's fastest-growing and most-deadly terrorist groups".

Indeed, the sub-region has witnessed several terrorist attacks aimed at various tourism establishments including the 2015 mass shooting at Radisson Blu hotel in Mali (Devermont, 2019), the 2015 suicide bombing at a bar in Maroua, Cameroon (Groome, 2018), the 2016 mass shooting at the Étoile du Sud hotel in Cote d'Ivoire (Akamavi, Ibrahim & Swaray, 2022), the 2016 attack on the Cappuccino restaurant, Splendid and YIBI Hotels attack in Burkina Faso

(Mickolus, 2018), and the 2017 mass shooting at the Hotel Bravia and the Istanbul Restaurant in Burkina Faso (News Agencies, 2017). More devastating, Burkina Faso (4th) and Nigeria (6th) currently rank among the world's most terrorism-plagued nations (Global Terrorism Index [GTI], 2022).

Again, several countries within the region including Burkina Faso (Englebert, 2018; Maclean, 2019), Cameroon (Husted & Arieff, 2019; Maxwell, 2021), Cote d'Ivoire (Ujunwa, Okoyeuzu & Kalu, 2019), Mali (Matei, 2021; Strazzari, 2019), Nigeria (Badiora, 2017; Obaje, 2018), Senegal (Akanji, 2019; Happi, 2022) and Togo (Freedom House, 2018; Kohnert, 2017) have been faced with erratic unrests and civil wars. Additionally, authors like Cilliers (2018) and Kohnert (2019) disclose that there has been an alarming upsurge in criminal activities within West Africa, particularly with regard to banditry, maritime piracy, human and drug trafficking, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, money laundering, illegal exploitation of natural resources, serial killings, armed robbery, fraud, cybercrime, rape, and prostitution.

Furthermore, Africa as a rule contends with perennial outbreak of diseases such as malaria, cholera, typhoid, yellow fever, poliomyelitis and hepatitis (World Health Organization [WHO], 2020). Moreover, the outbreak of Ebola virus in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone (2013–2016) further reinforced global perception of West Africa as a septic destination (Richardson & Fallah, 2019). On the whole, this combination of persistent terrorism, unrest, conflicts, crime and diseases has created a negative destination image for the sub region.

Given that all of Ghana's neighbouring countries (Cote d' Ivoire, Togo and Burkina Faso) are dealing with one or more forms of security threat or the other and destinations are generally viewed in clusters rather than independently (Chen, 2019), Ghana has had to deal with the repercussions of a negative regional destination image. Besides this, as evidenced by the drop of two (2) ranks in the 2022 Global Peace Index, the country has its own localized situation that does nothing to dissuade visitors from feeling insecure.

Although not at par with its neighbours, Ghana has had its fair share of security mishaps. To begin with, Adzimah-Alade, Akotia, Annor and Quarshie (2020) as well as Bagson, Owusu and Oteng-Ababio (2019) indicate that within the last two decades, there has been a general surge in criminal activities especially within urban committees. Indeed, trend reports show an increase in perennial cases of petty and opportunistic crimes including pick pocketing, hotel burglary, bag snatching, luggage and document theft at airports, breaking into cars, fraud/scams and cybercrime (Imbeah, Khademi-Vidra & Bujdoso, 2020; Preko, 2021).

More so, Ghana has had to contend with several conjectures of possible terrorist attacks. For example, the United Kingdom issued a travel alert in 2017 warning its citizens to avoid Ghana because terrorists were trying to recruit from the country. Then again, there were rumours of the Accra Mall being targeted for a terrorist attack (Effah, 2018). Kontoh (2019) reported that two Ghanaians were killed in a terrorist attack near the Ghana-Burkina Faso border. Particularly, President Nana Akuffo Addo, in a visit to the northern parts of Ghana, stated that terrorists attempted to cause mayhem in a church within the

Upper East Region (Akplor, 2019). All of this comes amid speculations that Ghana may face a high risk of importing terrorism from its neighbouring countries (Azumah, Apau, Krampah & Amaniapong, 2020), particularly as terrorists are recruiting Ghanaians to aid their cause (Aubyn, 2021).

Aside from these, the country has also experienced a few attractions-related misadventures including: the 2015 breakdown of the Bunso canopy walkway in the Eastern Region which injured approximately twenty (20) people; the 2017 Kintampo waterfall tragedy in the Brong Ahafo Region which killed eighteen (18) and injured another twenty (20) people; the 2017 Boti falls tragedy where the dead body of a visitor was found onsite (Adom online, 2017; Poku & Boakye, 2019); and recently, the Ave Dakpa incident where a visitor sustained injuries from a crocodile (the main attraction) attack during a tour (Anane-Amponsah, 2021). Generally, this situation does not bear good testimony for Ghana's own safety situation.

According to authors like Fareed, Meo, Zulfiqar, Shahzad and Wang (2018) and Poku and Boakye (2019), these aforementioned events are a threat to the fortunes of Ghana's visitor trade. In short, Ghana's present safety situation is precarious enough to induce visitors' feeling of psychological safety. Indeed, the situation has the ability to jeopardize the attractiveness, competitiveness and success of the nation's tourism industry (Saha, Su & Campbell, 2017).

Safety at Attraction Sites

As it stands, safety is suggested to be a management imperative that spans across three (3) broad dimensions, namely; the sector level, destination level and individual tourism business or facility level (Beirman, 2018). Moreover, Tarlow (2021) indicates that providing safety in tourism requires a collaborated effort between and among diverse stakeholders including visitors, service providers, destination management organizations and the government. However, popular assertion holds that comparatively the specific task and responsibility of providing for visitors' safety at the facility level (for instance, within attraction sites) falls more firmly on the shoulders of service providers (Kililar, Usakli & Tayfun, 2018).

Indeed, studies (see Asongu et al., 2019; Imbeah & Bujdoso, 2018) prove that tourism service providers are upholding their end in the provision of safety by continually making efforts to shore up breaches in safety within their establishments. Hitherto, their resources have mainly been geared towards providing physical safety measures like: engaging the services of security guards; providing communication tools like exit signs, warning signs, directional signs, orientation boards, posters/leaflets and orientation for visitors; as well as employing the use of equipment such as fencing, check-points, biometric systems, metal detectors, alarm systems, motions sensors and CCTV (close-circuit television) cameras (Imbeah & Bujdoso, 2018; Poku & Boakye, 2020). In other words, service providers have been relying primarily on physical safety measures to guarantee visitors' safety (Poku & Bokaye, 2019).

This approach, far from being fool-proof (Long & Flaherty, 2018; Meilani, Muthiah & Muntasib, 2018), has presented several challenges. For instance, available statistics show that despite best effort at ensuring safety through tangible measures, visitors are still getting hurt onsite – a condition which consequently breeds more insecurity (Reid, 2017). Also, overdependence on physical safety measures have been found to increase fear and insecurity (especially among visitors who are unused to an atmosphere of heavy security) rather than dampen it (Abo-Murad, Abdullah & Jamil, 2019). It is for this and similar reasons that scholars like Pennington-Gray and Schroeder (2018) and Peter (2017) have advocated for more novel approaches to ensuring safety in tourism.

According to Herstein (2022) and Paraskevas, Pantelidis and Ludlow (2022), the shortfalls resulting from sole reliance on physical safety measure can fundamentally be traced back to the issue of ‘duty of care’. Duty of care is best construed as service providers’ legally obligated responsibility to safeguard those in their care from harm; otherwise, negligence is assumed, which results in a penalty (Cyril, 2020; Plunkett, 2018; Zhou, 2022b). In Herstein’s view, this concept is fundamentally flawed because it is synonymous to a fiduciary responsibility to try. Put differently, it only fosters the duty to ‘try’ not to cause harm or avert harm.

Generally, evidence from studies such as Persson-Fischer and Liu (2021) suggest that at their own discretion, tourism service providers prefer to rely on government for safety instead of devising actual in-house safety measures. To circumvent this, governments usually put in place policies to

ensure the provision of mandatory safety measures (UNWTO, 1996; UK ACPO, 2017). However, these legally obligated safety measures are often framed in the guise of ‘duty of care’. That is to say, they come with vague details on exactly how to accomplish them. Hence, these mandatory measures frequently turn out as mere attempts at protection rather than actual protection (Herstein, 2022) which renders them relatively ineffectual. In detail, the general laxness of the mandate behind these legal obligations promotes a lack of seriousness on the part of service providers with regards to implementation and enforcement which consequently culminate in a situation where visitors are continuously seen ignoring or flouting safety rules whilst service providers turn a blind eye to non-adherence (McKay, 2018).

In response to the ineffectiveness of present safety measures, this study advocates safety provision that goes beyond the duty of care. More specifically, the study argues that there is the need to reconceptualize the provision of safety to account for the absence of psychological safety (Beirman, 2018; Schneier, 2008). According to Schneier, safety in its totality must be a combination of physical preventive measures and intangible palliative (psychological) measures. Instead, most safety measures are skewed to focus primarily towards the physical dimension of safety to the neglect of psychological measures (or what Schneier refers to as the ‘security theatre’), which consequently has resulted in the implementation of ineffective measures.

At its basis, psychological safety has been recommended to influence peoples’ cognitive process (Clark, 2020; Newman, Donahue & Eva, 2017). As such, employing them essentially gives service providers the chance to

influence visitors' thought process with regards to fear and their perception of the risks onsite. It is for this reason that Samra (2019) and Turner and Harder (2018) have been advocating the implementation of psychological safety as a supplementary or contingency measure to the physical safety measures employed by service providers. It is against this background that this study seeks to take a three-prong (management, employees and clientele/visitors) approach to assessing the provision of psychological safety at a tourism facility level.

Statement of Problem

On the whole, there exists a great body of knowledge on the issue of safety and security (henceforth referred to as safety) in tourism. Indeed, extant literature on this subject have covered areas like: perceptions of safety (Atadil, & Lu, 2021; Xie, Zhang & Morrison, 2021; Zou & Meng, 2020); importance of safety to tourism (Fourie, Rosselló-Nadal & Santana-Gallego, 2020; Wang, Liu-Lastres, Shi & Li, 2019); impact of safety on tourism (Ghaderi, Saboori & Khoshkam, 2017); safety threats to tourism (Lanouar & Goaiad, 2019; Liu & Pratt, 2017); safety concerns (Mazur, Aliyev & Zhelizko, 2020; Preko, 2021); visitors' behaviour towards safety (Bağ & Szczecińska, 2020); safety management at destinations/facilities (Kılıçlar, Uşaklı & Tayfun, 2018; Zou & Yu, 2022), and so forth. However, empirical works on safety measures at attractions sites have received relatively less attention (Poku & Boakye, 2019).

Even so, the few studies (including Beirman, 2018; Cooper, Volo, Gartner and Scott, 2018; Schneier, 2008) that have attempted to bridge the gap on the issue of safety provision in tourism have mainly focused on physical

safety, despite literature suggesting that safety comprises two dimensions – the physical and psychological. Within the Ghanaian context, for instance, Imbeah and Budjoso (2018) explored safety from the perspective of visitors at three attraction sites, focusing primarily on the presence of physical measures such as close-circuit television [CCTV] cameras, alarm systems, safety deposit boxes, directional signs and the presence of security guards. Then again, Poku and Boakye (2020), in assessing safety from managements' perspective at Kakum National Park, based their study on physical measures like: documentation and communication tools; skills and knowledge of personnel; facilities onsite; and equipment.

It is only in a study on backpackers' risk perception and risk reduction strategies that Adam (2015) intimated that the risks faced by backpackers extend beyond the physical to include psychological risks related to their social standing and future career prospects. From the aforesaid, it can be deduced that academic discourse on the issue of providing psychological safety for clients/customers/visitors has not been forthcoming in the literature.

All things considered, with visitors' increased consciousness and sensitivity to risks in the 21st century, coupled with the swelling interest in the psychological dimension of safety, literature on the issue should have correspondingly been burgeoning. Yet, contrary to prior trends, psychological safety practices in tourism have generally received very little emphasis. In fact, evidence thus far is insufficient to ascertain visitors or employees' conceptualization of the concept, much less determine how the concept is being implemented within tourism facilities.

This is not surprising, given that the customer-service provider dimension of psychological safety has remained relatively unexplored (Newman, Donohue & Eva, 2017). Largely, psychological safety has been addressed exclusively within the organizational setting. To this end, authors have explored the concept from the individual/employee (Turner & Harder, 2018; Zaman & Abbasi, 2020), team (Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020; Edmondson, 2019) and organizational/superior-subordinate (Samra, 2019; Xu, Qin, Dust & DiRenzo, 2019) perspectives. Indeed, with the exception of Kuppelwieser and Finsterwalder's (2011) tangential study on 'psychological safety, contributions and service satisfaction of customers' service experiences', the concept has generally received little attention outside organizational behaviour literature.

Acknowledging the dearth in knowledge on the provision of psychological safety at visitor attraction sites, this study sought to investigate the issue using Kakum National Park (KNP) in the Central Region of Ghana as the case study. KNP was chosen for this study specifically because literature (including Milligan & Bingley, 2007; Poku, 2017) suggests that forested national parks with their dense and ominous nature usually reinforce visitors' perceptions of danger and risks. Additionally, the fact that the Bunso canopy walkway collapsed in 2015 gives the impression that the walkway might not be safe. The aforementioned suggests that the park's forested setting and the activities it offers may present a number of risk factors, raising concerns about visitors' safety.

Objectives

The main objective of this study is to evaluate the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park (KNP) from the perspectives of management, employees and visitors.

The specific objectives are to:

1. Examine KNP's institutional arrangements for providing psychological safety;
2. Assess KNP employees' perspective on psychological safety;
3. Analyze the practices for providing psychological safety at KNP;
4. Assess visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP; and
5. Analyze the factors that shape the provision of psychological safety at KNP

Research Questions

This research poses the following questions:

1. What are KNP's institutional arrangements for providing psychological safety?
2. How do employees of KNP perceive psychological safety?
3. What are KNP's practices for providing psychological safety?
4. How do visitors' experience psychological safety at KNP?
5. What factors shape the provision of psychological safety at KNP?

Significance of the Study

From the academic point of view, this study would contribute to the general discourse on safety in tourism. Specifically, it would provide

information on the elusive topic of psychological safety, particularly filling the gaps in: visitors' and employees' conceptualization of the concept; how the concept is put into practice; as well as the institutional arrangements and factors shaping its provision. Furthermore, it would serve as a base line for monitoring changes in the provision of psychological safety at KNP in particular.

In terms of theoretical contributions, the study would offer a model for the provision of psychological safety at attraction sites, looking at it from a service provider- visitor perspective. The study would also advance knowledge of how psychological safety manifests in transient relationships with equal power dynamics. Additionally, it would add to existing theory regarding how institutional structures and personal norms contribute to psychological safety.

On the part of management, this study would generally provide information on psychological safety, thus, prompting the need for attitudinal proactiveness towards ensuring visitor safety as they patronize attraction sites. In other words, it would offer a different approach to onsite visitor safety; one which literature suggests would breed less insecurity if used effectively. This is important because negligence claims against tourism service providers have been on the increase as visitors become less forgiving about security mishaps (Cyril, 2020). Following this trend, it will only be a matter of time before tourists begin suing Ghanaian service providers for security misadventures.

This study would also prove useful in policy direction. This is to say that, the outcome of this study can serve as a precursor to the introduction of psychological safety measures as part of capacity building initiatives for ensuring visitors safety. As it stands, the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) and

the National Tourism Development Fund as part of their mandate are slated to have several training seminars on varied issues concerning industry practitioners. This study might justify the need for the said trainings to be geared more towards the provision of psychological safety measures at visitor facilities. More so, as a reference document, this study can be used to update the existing safety manual for attraction sites, that is, the Tourism (Visitor Sites) Regulations (L.I. 2393).

This study also indirectly advances Sustainable Development Goal 3 (SDG 3), which seeks to promote good health and well-being. Tourists go on vacation for fun and relaxation, ultimately hoping to unwind and have a memorable experience. Incorporating psychological safety into visitor experiences not only helps to achieve this goal, but it also improves mental well-being, which is an integral part of overall health. Psychological safety helps accomplish this by reducing visitors' anxiety, increasing their emotional resilience, and encouraging more open dialogue, social engagement, and interactions.

Delimitation

According to Amuquandoh (2017) and Poku (2017), Kakum National Park (KNP) forms part of a larger forest reserve collectively under the purview of the Kakum Conservation Area. However, this study is geographically restricted to only the 375 square kilometer area available for tourism purposes.

Furthermore, safety is a multi-dimensional construct; hence, depending on the context from which it is taken, there are multiple components including:

political security, public safety, health and sanitation, personal data safety, legal protection of visitors, disaster protection, environmental security and obtaining authentic information, just to mention a few (Bak & Szczecinska, 2020).

Nonetheless, this study focuses solely on psychological safety in the context of consumer protection at attraction sites (specifically the Kakum National Park).

Additionally, Whittington (2015) describes 'structure' in the context of an organization as comprising rules, regularities, norms and resources. This study, however, delimits the concept to only institutional arrangements.

Definition of Terms

Risk

Harris, Maymi and Ham (2018) define risk as the likelihood of a threat (potential danger) source exploiting a vulnerability (weakness in a system/facility) to correspondingly impact operations. Risk perception or perceived risk is, therefore, a person's cognitive impression that is of probable exposure to loss (Badu-Baiden, Baokye & Otoo, 2016). Simply put, it is thinking there is risk, when in actual fact there is not.

Fear

Fear is best defined as a defensive response to an actual or perceived imminent threat within an environment (Sangha, Diehl, Bergstrom & Drew, 2020). Within the tourism context, Tichaawa, Bob and Swart (2018) suggest that fear emanates primarily from lack of knowledge about a destination or activity and lack of knowledge about future conditions.

Tourism

According to the UNWTO (2019), tourism is a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal/leisure, business/professional or other purposes. They are required to stay more than twenty-four (24) hours but not more than one consecutive year.

Visitor

A visitor, guest or tourist is anyone embarking on a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for tourism purposes. Visitors can be people engaged in same-day trips or trips involving overnight stay (UNWTO, 2019).

Destination

A destination is a geographical area consisting of all the services and infrastructure necessary for the stay of a specific visitor or tourism segment (Švajdová, 2019). According to Muhoho-Minni and Lubbe (2017), it is the larger area where attractions are located and where the visitor is heading. A classic example is Walt Disney World, Orlando.

Visitor Attraction

A visitor attraction is anything (in the context of this study, a named site) that has the power to draw or compel visitors to visit it. Attraction sites usually possess a human or natural feature that is the focus of the visit (Fyall, Garrod, Leask, & Wanhill, 2022).

Providing Safety

Providing safety refers to creating a stable, conducive, relatively predictable environment where tourists can pursue recreational and leisure activities in freedom without fear of natural, man-made, intentional or unintentional risks, or threat (Chhetri, 2018).

Psychological Safety

Psychological safety involves providing a conducive, trusting environment which would make tourists feel mentally protected, comfortable and valued as they engage in destination activities (Samra, 2019).

Organization of Chapters

This study is divided into ten (10) chapters. This section being chapter one provides a background to the study. It outlines the research problem, gives the research questions, states the objectives as well as the significance of the study. It also defines the delimitations of the study and presents some definitions of terms.

Chapter two presents the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for the study. Six (6) theories were reviewed to serve as the foundation of this study, namely; the social exchange theory, structuration theory, the new institutional theory, value-belief-norm theory, 4Es of behaviour change model, and the cognitive appraisal theory. Based on the aforementioned theories, a conceptual framework was proposed to disclose the linkage between the constructs underpinning this study.

Chapter three which is the empirical review begins with an overview of general conceptualizations of psychological safety in literature, then continues with empirical evidence on the institutional arrangements and personal norms that facilitate psychologically safe environments, common practices employed to provide psychological safety. The chapter further provides an overview of safety from visitors' perspective and concludes with literature on how psychological safety can be experienced.

Chapter four is the research methodology. It begins by providing information on the study area. It is followed by the underlying research philosophy, and research design. It also contains information on the study's unit of analysis, survey procedures, research instruments, pre-test criteria, fieldwork and challenges faced, method of data analysis and ethical issues.

Chapters five to nine present the data analyses for the study. It includes data presentation, analysis, and discussion of findings. The chapters are respectively titled: *Institutional arrangements for psychological safety at Kakum National Park*; *Employees' perspective on psychological safety*; *Psychological safety practices at Kakum National Park*; *Visitors experience of psychological safety* and *Factors shaping the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park*.

Chapter ten, being the final chapter, provides a summary of the study, its major findings, and a post-analysis review of the proposed conceptual framework. The chapter sums up with conclusions drawn from the study and relevant recommendations for policy, practice and future studies.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter looks at the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of this study. The chapter begins by exploring the concept of safety and its physical and psychological dimensions. In unravelling the cognitive processes involved in visitors' conceptualization and employees' adoption and delivery of psychological safety, six (6) theories were reviewed. They are the Social Exchange Theory, Structuration Theory, the New Institutional theory, Value-Belief-Norm Theory, 4Es of Behaviour Change Model and the Cognitive Appraisal Theory. Based on these aforementioned theories, a conceptual framework is proposed for this study.

Safety: The Concept and How it Intersects with Security

Safety as a concept is not so easily defined. Apart from being highly contextual, often, definitions provided for the concept in literature are indistinguishable from the ones provided for security. For instance, security is defined by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985, p. 47) as "freedom from danger, risk, or doubt"; by Chhetri (2018) as the pursuit of freedom from threat and the ability of entities to maintain their image, reputation as well as functioning against hostile changes; and by Afolabi and Bodunde (2018) as assuaging any kind of threat to people and their precious values.

In a similar manner, safety has been defined in the literature as: protecting against abnormal conditions that can endanger people, property and enterprises (ASIS International, 2012); “the application of hazard controls through workplace, person and system measures, to mitigate potential injury and reduce risk to as low as reasonably practical” (Balderson, 2016, p. 68); and “a state in which hazards and conditions leading to physical, psychological or material harm are controlled to preserve the health and well-being of an individual” (Maurice et al., 2001, p. 2).

The confusion between safety and security can mainly be attributed to linguistics and loss in translation (Ghazi, 2016). Etymologically, when traced to their roots, safety and security are two distinct Latin words. Safety is derived from the word *salvus* which means being uninjured or in good health (Nilsen et al., 2004). Thus, originally, the word was meant to convey a feeling/perception/state of well-being and protection.

On the other hand, security originated from the word *securitas* which basically translates to ‘without concern, fear or anxiety’ (Serowanec & Bien-Kacala, 2016). It was essentially meant to convey a condition or state of being free from the risks, threats and/or dangers that trigger the emotional response of fear and/or anxiety.

Simply put, safety was originally used in implying a feeling of protection whereas security was meant to insinuate reducing harm or danger. However, given that both words revolve around protection, overtime, as the English language evolved, the distinction between these two words gradually

became blurred, leading to their current ambiguous use (Ghazi, 2016; Hamarneh & Jerabek, 2018).

In the literature, this ambiguity is indeed prevalent. For instance, Serowaniec and Bien-Kacala (2016) in an attempt to conceptualize security in a political context described it as the lack of threat or feeling of certainty. Yet, going forward, the authors likened security to Maslow's safety needs, indicating that it is about providing certainty, stability, support, care, structure, law and order, as well as feeling free from fear, anxiety and chaos. Likewise, in the healthcare setting, Wills-Herrera (2014, p. 2233) in describing what 'feeling safe' entails defined it as 'the state of being free from threat and danger' and thereafter equated it to subjective well-being and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Although these are but a few examples, extant literature provides evidence of more instances where the words safety and security are increasingly being regarded as synonymous terms.

In tourism literature, several attempts have been made to distinguish between safety and security (as made evident in Table 1 below). Thus far, the delineation has chiefly been along the lines of risk being intentionally or unintentionally perpetrated (Albrechtsen, 2003; Idsø & Jakobsen, 2000) cited in Albrechtsen, 2003; Owiyo & Mulwa, 2018; Payam, 2015).

Table 1: Delineation between Safety and Security in Literature

Source	Safety	Security
Idsø and Jakobsen	protection from unintended incidents	protection from incidents, where people act deliberately
Albrechtsen (2003)	protection of human lives and health	protection against criminal activities
Enz (2009)	providing protection for employees and customers against potential injury or death whilst they patronize a facility	it goes beyond protecting employees and visitors, to include visitors' possessions and the facility's property
Hamarneh and Jerabek (2018)	protecting visitors and employees from the situations of being exposed to personal danger like crime, accidents and emergencies	guarding against hostile acts that seek to inflict large scale damage such as espionage, sabotage, crime, attack or escape
Imbeah and Budjoso (2018)	state or condition of being protected from risk, harm or inconvenient outcome or the control of identified and anticipated dangers in order to achieve an appreciable level of being free from risks	a system of preventing and protecting against dangers that threaten a person, a group of persons, an organization or a facility of its purpose of existence
Owiyo and Mulwa (2018)	deals with the effects of accidents or hazardous forces of nature	involves protection against anthropogenic factors
Payam (2015)	activities carried out in order to define all potential hazards and risks for tourism and visitors within the scope of tourism activities and to reduce them to an acceptable level	all the activities done in relation to protecting visitors against all types of risks and threats that can be produced deliberately and have criminal elements at the destination
Pearsall and Hanks (2001)	the condition of being protected from or unlikely to cause danger, risk or injury	the state of being free from danger or threat
Radović and Arabska (2015)	a condition of being protected	a condition of being free from danger

Source: Moore (2022)

From this perspective, safety is seen as protection against risks, dangers and threats of involuntary nature (such as diseases, health issues, accident, natural disaster, unsafe travel conditions, etcetera) whilst security is suggested to centre around protection against anthropogenic factors or incidents perpetrated by people to cause harm (including crime, terrorism, military conflicts/wars, and civil/political unrests) (Yang & Nair, 2014).

Another proposed criterion for delineation looks at what is being protected. From this perspective, safety is intimated to only entail the protection of people (such as visitors and employees), whilst security being broader is said to encompass the protection of people as well as their property (Enz, 2009).

Some scholars also suggest that the difference lies in the magnitude or extent of impact. In this sense, safety is posited to be on a personal level; thus, it is said to only affect visitors. On the other hand, security is suggested to have an all-encompassing effect (Hamarneh & Jerabek, 2018; Imbeah & Budjoso, 2018). In other words, the impact of security-related risks, threats and dangers is not limited solely to individual visitors but also embroils the facility and even the entire industry.

Nonetheless, most scholars within the field of tourism regard safety and security as interchangeable terms (George, 2003; Payam, 2015; Tarlow, 2009) or, as Ghazi (2016, p. 2) refers to them, “twin concepts”. As the earlier paragraphs on the delineation between the concepts affirm, the difference between safety and security is indeed slight, unremarkable, and riddled by overlaps and confusion (Lukas, 2016; Poku, 2017). Hence, most tourism

professionals and academics prefer to overlook these differences, rather opting to treat them as one and the same.

Indeed, authors like Poku and Boakye (2019) and Wichasin and Dounghummes (2012) explain that there is little academic value in separating safety from security. Throwing more light on this opinion, Tarlow (2014) states that separating the two terms is inconsequential; after all, a ruined vacation is a ruined vacation, irrespective of where the blame might lie. To simplify matters, Tarlow theorized the term 'tourism surety' and defined it as "the point where safety, security, reputation, and economic viability intersect" (p. 12).

Other collective definition of safety and security include: the absence of a threatening factor or the presence of a negligent state of mind (Niemisalo, 2014); protecting against hazards/threats by creating safe/secure conditions (Ghazi, 2016); the "absence of acute threats to the minimal acceptable levels" (von Boemcken & Schetterto, 2019; p. 2); decreasing the possibility of a negative event occurring (Tarlow, 2006); and safeguarding people against threatening factors emanating from the nature of the physical environment, limiting the chances of involvement in criminal activities or decreasing the possibility of a visitor being attacked (Tan, Chong & Ho, 2017).

This study in particular supports the view that the difference between safety and security is practically non-existent in the tourism context. On this ground, this study opts to adopt the term 'safety' to represent all forms of protection offered against the risks (perceived or real), threats and dangers present in the attraction environment that can cause harm to or trigger fear in visitors. Specifically, safety is defined as providing a stable, conducive,

relatively predictable environment where visitors can pursue recreational and leisure activities in freedom without fear of natural, man-made, intentional or unintentional risks or threat (Chhetri, 2018; Fisher, 2004).

Dimensions to Safety

Several authors have suggested that safety in tourism entails more than just tangible measures. Indeed, safety is suggested to transcend the physical to include perceptual, emotional or psychological elements. For instance, Korstanje (2017, p. 212) expresses that “the concept of safety [security] does not only depend on conjuncture or environmental factors, but also include individual predispositions or psychological profiles”. To be concise, Cooper, Volo, Gartner and Scott (2018, p. 155) state that “tourism safety involves a feeling of both physical and psychological security when visitors visit a place outside their usual environment”. Correspondingly, similar declarations have been echoed in studies such as Beirman (2018), Moreira (2013) and Pizam and Mansfeld (2006), just to mention a few. These studies essentially lend support to the stance of authors like Gressley, Serido, Villareal and Borden (2010) and Schneier (2008) who emphatically state that there are two (2) basic dimensions to safety, namely; physical and psychological safety.

Physical Safety

Literature on physical safety defines the concept from three (3) main perspectives, namely; people, property/assets and facilities. For instance, from a facility perspective, Federal Emergency Management Agency [FEMA] (2007) describes physical safety as preparing and hardening a facility against likely

threats/risks. From a people's perspective, Love (2017) defines it as controlling risks and hazards in order to protect people from harm. Physical safety has also been defined by Cobb (2021) as actions taken to protect buildings, property and assets (like equipment) against theft, vandalism, natural disaster, man-made catastrophes and accidental damage.

Irrespective of its focus, physical safety essentially involves safeguarding against threats/risks/dangers by employing tangible measures to deter (by making itself obvious), detect (revealing threats) and delay (serving as a barrier) unfavourable events/behaviour (Campbell, 2014; FEMA, 2013). The American Society for Industrial Security [ASIS] International (2005), for one, broadly categorizes the tangible measures employed to provide physical safety into three (3), namely; security forces, security systems, and security procedures.

Security forces

Security forces are the beings employed to provide and coordinate the resources needed to reduce, control or avert risks/dangers/threats. Specifically, security forces encompass the people (from the human resource/security departments) as well as animals (such as dogs) trained to provide safety. Particularly, people as an aspect of security forces are deemed to be the most vital element in the provision of safety (Fennelly, 2017). This is because they bear responsibility for conceptualizing, initializing and implementing the systems and procedures needed to provide safety. In detail, they “oversee proprietary or contract uniformed security operations, identify security system

requirements, assess internal and external threats to assets, and develop policies, plans, procedures, and physical safeguards to counter those threats” (ASIS International, 2005; Fennelly 2017, p. 1). Thus, without them, the act of providing safety would be unsuccessful, if not impossible.

Extant literature documents the specific activities of people involved in safety provision to include: performing due diligence when employing staff; engaging professional security personnel; enacting mail room and delivery procedures; enforcing regular emergency checks at employee entrances; conducting vehicle inspections; verifying guests before they are booked and/or reissued room keys; and encouraging employees and visitors to immediately report any suspicious activities or item to security (AlBattat & Mat Som, 2013; Cetron, 2006, Henderson, Shufen, Huifen & Xiang, 2010; Peter, 2017).

Security systems

Security systems are described as the facilities and hardware needed to provide safety (Fennelly, 2017). Although not mutually exclusive, security systems are generally classified as either passive or active. Passive security systems are described as mechanisms/technologies that detect, deter and disrupt threats by serving as a barrier or by recording the event for later review and analysis. Examples of passive security systems include site design and layout (architecture and landscaping), lighting and perimeter barriers (like warning signs, fencing, raising check-points, et cetera) (AlBattat & Mat Som, 2014; Hutter, 2016; Vitalii, Khorram-Manesh, & Nyberg, 2017). These forms of

safety mechanisms are usually the first line of defence against threats/risks/dangers.

Active security systems, on the other hand, are physical safety mechanisms that do not only record or block threats but also alert, notify or prompt appropriate authorities of breaches in the system. They include facilities and hardware like: access control tools (screening equipment such as walk-through/hand-held metal detectors; identification systems such as photo ID badges, personal identification, electronic card readers, biometric systems; lock systems like entry keypads; electronic doors), surveillance, detection or monitoring systems (emergency communication system, alarms, motion sensors, pressure mats, CCTV, panic buttons, etc.) and fire and life safety systems (exit signs, emergency assembling points, fire alarm system, fire suppression system, emergency lights, smoke and heat detectors) (AlBattat & Mat Som, 2014; COMCEC, 2017; FEMA, 2013; Kovalevskiy, 2015).

Security procedures

Security procedures is the third identified component of physical safety. Threat Analysis Group (2010) and Zhang (2018) describe it as the policies, processes, training, written and unwritten protocols needed to provide safety. They also include all information and documentation which allow easy enforcement of safety measures (Fennelly, 2017). The aim of security procedures is to create an internal system that guides the implementation of physical safety measures within an organization. Thus, they are basically

employed to inform employees on what to do and how to do it in order to ensure consistency.

Ricks, Ricks and Dingle (2015) suggest that there are two (2) primary types of security procedures. They are (1) security guidelines pertaining to the workforce/all employees (such as policies aimed at access control, guests control policies, use of equipment and information security) and (2) those related specifically to the security force (including authority and jurisdiction, code of ethics, use of force, use of equipment, uniform requirements and reporting of incidents).

Physical safety is particularly important to organizations because of its ability to affect productivity and organizational success. As explained by Harris, Maymi and Ham (2018), organizations require control over their administrative, technical and physical processes in order to operate smoothly. Yet, their operating environment (both internal and external) is generally riddled with diverse dangers, threats and risks, all of which possess the ability to create chaos and disrupt organizational processes. Hence, the purpose of physical safety is to help shore-up these vulnerabilities by protecting the organizational facilities, assets and personnel from harm, so that operations remain uninterrupted (Hutter, 2016). It is for this reason that organizations expend their limited resources in implementing physical safety measures. Nonetheless, this study seeks to focus exclusively on the marginally explored area of psychological safety, specifically looking at its role within the visitor-service provider nexus of tourism.

Psychological Safety

General consensus indicates that research on psychological safety remained dormant till the seminal works of MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) professors - Edgar Schein and Warren Bennis in 1965 (Kim, Lee & Connerton, 2020). Even so, it was only after the late 1990s onwards that the concept truly began to flourish (Edmondson, 2019). To date, psychological safety has been applied on three (3) levels of analysis, namely; the individual, organizational and team levels.

Schein and Bennis' (1965) initial concept of psychological safety developed out of Kurt Lewin's (1947) three-stage model of organizational change. According to Lewin, change is elicited in a transitional process of unfreezing (breaking existing status quo), instituting change (transition) and refreezing (institutionalizing change). Given this premise, Schein and Bennis introduced psychological safety as a complex part of the unfreezing process of change. They suggested that for people to willingly and readily accept change, there is need to diminish their perceived fears (of hazards, threats and uncertainty), remove barriers to change and create an environment that encourages provisional tries and tolerates failure without inflicting guilt, renunciation or retaliation (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Zaman & Abbasi, 2020).

To this end, Schein and Bennis defined psychological safety as organizational activities directed at: (1) helping people overcome the defensiveness and anxiety associated with performing actions that are contrary to their status quo; (2) making people feel safe, secure and capable of responding to the shifting challenges within their environment; and (3) creating a climate

in which people are comfortable to express and be themselves (Bornemisza, 2013; Edmondson, 2002; Edmondson, 2019; Schein, 1993). In fact, Rudolph, Raemer, and Simon (2014) liken Schein and Bennis' idea of psychological safety to providing a safe container in which people can engage in a behaviour.

Kahn (1990) took this general idea of psychological safety and adapted it to an organizational behaviour context. On an individual employee level of analysis, Kahn (1990, p. 708) defined psychological safety as “feeling able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career”. Essentially, the concept was reinvented as an individual's willingness to express him/herself physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performance (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Since then, psychological safety on an individual level has been conceptualized as feeling safe and comfortable with oneself and how this feeling of safety reflects in general output (Grant, 2021).

Again, in 1996, Brown and Leigh further extended the concept from an individual to an organizational level. Here, psychological safety was seen as employees' perception about the characteristics of an organizational environment. In this capacity, psychological safety was conceived as creating a conducive work environment in which employees would feel comfortable and safe enough to exhibit their full capabilities. Hence, to Brown and Leigh, organizational psychological safety involves perception about management support, clear job roles and self-expression (Chen, Gao, Zheng & Ran, 2015).

Table 2: Definitions of Psychological Safety

Proponent	Context	Perspective/Level of analysis	Definitions of psychological safety
Schein and Bennis (1965)	Organizational change	Organizational level	activities directed at: (1) helping people overcome the defensiveness and anxiety associated with performing actions that are contrary to their status quo; (2) making people feel safe, secure and capable of responding to the shifting challenges within their environment; and (3) creating a climate in which people are comfortable to express and be themselves
Kahn (1990)	Organizational behaviour	Individual employee level	being able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequence of self-image, status or career
Brown and Leigh (1996)	Organizational behaviour	Organizational level	employees' perception about the characteristics of an organizational environment
Edmondson (1999)	Organizational behaviour	Team level	the shared belief that the team is a safe haven for taking interpersonal risk
Turner and Harder (2018)	Organizational behaviour	Individual level	providing a condition in which one feels valued and comfortable enough to take up risks without fearing the consequences to oneself or others.
Clark (2020)	General behaviour	Social units, teams and organizations	a condition in which human beings feel (1) included, (2) safe to learn, (3) safe to contribute, and (4) safe to challenge the status quo – all without fear of being embarrassed, marginalized, or punished in some way.

Source: Moore (2022)

The concept was once more introduced by Edmondson (1999) into organizational teams. In this context, psychological safety was described as an employee's perception of the consequences of taking interpersonal risks within a team. Put differently, it is the shared belief that the team is a safe haven for taking interpersonal risk. According to Edmondson as cited in Torralba, Jose and Byrne (2020), psychological safety in this context goes beyond trust and niceness; rather, it is more about being given the benefit of a doubt despite admitting a mistake. Edmondson and Lei's (2014) work extensively looked at the role of psychological safety in work engagement, quality improvement, error reporting, and team learning. Based on its conclusions, team psychological safety is suggested to centre around: employees' ability to voice their opinions freely; holding shared beliefs and opinions for objectives; organizations' encouragement for risk-taking behaviour; as well as trust and respect among team members (Chen, Gao, Zheng & Ran, 2015).

In the literature, psychological safety is opined as a particularly timely issue for service-oriented industries (like tourism), given the current level of global insecurity (Sarma & Ramesh, 2007; Kuppelwieser & Finsterwalder, 2011). To elaborate, psychological safety is generally touted to reduce doubt, hesitation, insecurity and general defensiveness, whilst boosting cognitive and behavioural flexibility which encourages provisional tries and increases tolerance for failure without retaliation, renunciation, or guilt (Edmondson, 1999; Frazier, Fainshmidt, Klinger, Pezeshkan & Vracheva, 2017; Kahn, 1990; Schein & Bennis, 1965). In fact, its impact is suggested to become particularly pronounced in complex, interdependent and uncertain conditions (Edmondson

& Lei 2014, p. 40) where safety is paramount (Newman, Donahue & Eva, 2017) but the effectiveness of physical safety measures is diminished.

As it stands, tourism is a multifaceted and multidimensional sector which relies on an intricate network of suppliers to create products that are intangible, inseparable, heterogeneous, and perishable. Thus, the industry by nature is complex and interdependent and in recent years, has become marked by uncertainty due to diverse unknown dangers, threats and risks (Guia, 2018; Lo, Cheung & Law, 2011; Yang & Nair, 2014). This situation has created a global sense of insecurity among the industry's clientele – visitors. Given that tourism is a discretionary purchase which is inversely related to insecurity, there is the need to explore psychological safety as a measure for arresting the current perilous situation that the industry finds itself in. In the words of Frazier et al. (2017, p. 140), “fostering perceptions of psychological safety appears to be an important consideration for organizations attempting to maintain competitiveness” in today's dynamic business environment.

To this end, this study attempts to extend psychological safety beyond the individual, organizational and team levels of analysis into the sphere of tourism consumer behaviour. Specifically, it seeks to explore the process through which attraction sites (service providers) provide psychological safety to visitors (their consumers) as they engage in tourism activities onsite. This, visitor-attraction site perspective of psychological safety, is otherwise being referred to as the consumer context of psychological safety.

The Consumer Context of Psychological Safety in Tourism

Psychological safety within this context involves creating a conducive environment that safeguards visitors against their fears and forebodings of risk, thus allowing them to fully immerse themselves in their tourism experience without concern for negative repercussions to themselves or others. Alternatively, it is being described as making visitors feel comfortable enough to be themselves and express their fears and doubts without being guilted, embarrassed, shamed, ridiculed or punished in any way (Torralba, Jose & Byrne, 2020). Against this background, providing psychological safety essentially rests on three (3) fundamental elements, namely; the attraction site, visitors, and the dyadic relationship existing between the two.

Element 1: The Attraction site

Within this setting, attraction sites (which comprise management and employees) are the providers of psychological safety. To be specific, their role in the psychological safety process is to positively influence the thought process of visitors with regards to their fear and perceived safety of the site and its offering (Baiden, Boakye & Otoo, 2016). To put into perspective how management and employees interact within the attraction site in order to fulfil their role as providers of psychological safety, the structuration theory is reviewed.

Structuration Theory

According to the Structuration theory propounded by Anthony Giddens in 1984, institutions (that is, structures) and an actor's personal norm (otherwise

referred to as agency) work together to determine the performance or non-performance of a behaviour. Thus, in the structure-agency debate, the theory takes the position that by itself, neither structures (institutions) nor actors (agency) can claim supremacy in determining the performance of a behaviour.

In detail, the structuration theory posits that observed behavioural outcomes are as a result of duality rather than dualism. Dualism claims that structures and agency are separate entities with either structures constraining the capacity of human actions (agency) or agency begetting structures (Lamsal, 2012). Whichever be the case, dualism suggests the pre-eminence of either structure or agency. Taking an opposing stance, duality argues that structure and agency cannot be separated when accounting for human actions because they are essentially connected (Oppong, 2014).

From Giddens' perspective, free will and choice (agency) are what bring structures into being, but once in place, structures tend to influence agents' behaviour. Thus, structure and agency are not individual entities but rather complexly interrelated with neither claiming superiority over the other (Lamsal, 2012). The interface in which an actor meets a structure is what Giddens calls structuration.

In the context of this study, the structuration theory suggests that the roles of management and employees are not mutually exclusive but rather interrelated when it comes to providing psychological safety. That is to say, the presence of structures at Kakum National Park will not necessarily dictate their implementation; rather, it will be influenced to some extent by employees' personal norms towards the structures. Similarly, while employees' personal

norms would influence their stance on providing psychological safety, the Kakum National Park's structures will either reinforce or constrain the actual implementation of psychological safety practises.

Giddens' (1984) theory has been extensively applied within organizational and management research (Albano, Masino, & Maggi, 2010; Balogun & Johnson, 2005; den Hond, Boersma, Heres, Kroes, & van Oirschot, 2012; Elbasha & Wright, 2017; Jarzabkowski, 2008). Thus far, the theory is suggested to provide a 'high-level' or meta-framework for which studies can be situated; however, this conversely makes it suffer a divorce from the 'empirical soil' (Oppong, 2014, p. 116). Specifically, critics indicated that structuration has been unable to specify exactly how structures and agency interrelate (Lamsal, 2012). Notwithstanding, given that the saturation theory is not the only theory underpinning this study, and also sufficiently helps in establishing the role of structures and agency in determining the observed behavioural outcomes of KNP employees in their provision of psychological safety, this study chooses to review this theory bearing in mind its limitation.

The Role of Management

Within attraction sites, management is primarily responsible for formulating and institutionalizing the structures (Kililar, Usakli & Tayfun, 2018) that foster psychological safety. Within the broader context, Hay (cited in Afenyo, 2018, p. 32) defines structures as the "setting within which social, political and economic events occur and acquire meanings". Within the work context, Whittington (2015) describes it as the organizational context, rules,

regularities, norms and resources. This study, however, delimits the concept of structures to focus solely on institutional arrangements.

Institutional Arrangements (IAs)

There are diverse proposed definitions for institutional arrangements (IAs) in the literature. For instance, they have been defined as: ‘sets of working rules that are used to determine who is eligible to make decisions and what actions are allowed or constrained’ (Jaspers, 2003, p. 79); sets of rules, contracts and agreements governing the activities of a specific group as they work to pursue a common objective (Eaton, Meijerink & Bijman, 2008); the policies, practices and systems used to legislate, plan and manage an organization’s activities to ensure efficient and effective implementation (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2009); and the broad systems of norms and values that characterize a given entity, sector or society (Friedland & Alford, 1991). Fundamentally, Hassenforder and Barone (2018) suggest that IAs are put in place to govern the structure of decision-making authority, management, monitoring and decision enforcement within an organization.

Just as there are numerous definitions of institutional arrangements, similarly, there are also diverse views on what constitute the components of IAs (as evident from Table 3 below). Yet, regardless of its domain (be it, public, private or jointly owned organizations), IAs are considered to be robust when it incorporates the following components: a clearly stipulated desired outcomes/policy (strategic vision¹) without duplicity or omission of significant elements; working rules backed by a clear mandate (guidelines²); requisite

resources provided to facilitate implementation of policies³; a well-defined hierarchy of its actors and their roles and responsibilities (organizational structure⁴); and where multiple users or clientele are involved, ways provided to integrate the needs of all individuals or groups (operational strategy⁵) (Ayana, Vandenabeele & Arts, 2017; Hassenforder & Barone, 2018; McGinnis, 2011; Ostrom, 2011; Subramanian, 2012; United Nations, 2013; UNSD, 2017).

Arguing from a tourism perspective, Barišić and Marić (2012) describe the strategic vision component of IAs as the glue that holds together and synchronizes the other component. Within tourism, IAs are explained to be of particular importance, given the dynamic and uncertain environment surrounding the industry which constantly requires businesses to adapt in order to survive and thrive. Buble (2005) explains that without a strategic vision of what a business ultimately seeks to achieve, it is quite easy for its intent to get lost in the ensuing chaos surrounding business operations.

The framework presenting how duties are divided, organized and coordinated within a setting is known as the organizational structure (Ahmady, Mehrpour & Nkooravesh, 2016). According to Rishipal (2014), organizational structures usually take two (2) basic forms (hierarchical/vertical and flat/horizontal) based on the layer of management. In hierarchical structures, role and responsibilities are specific, and authority is centralized, with upper-level management far removed from lower-level employees. Also, since autonomy is heavily invested at the top, employees are generally removed from organizational decision-making.

Table 3: Components of Institutional Arrangements (IAs)

Author (Year)	Domain/ Perspective	Proposed Components of IA
Subramanian (2012)	Public Sector	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. laws and regulations² 2. arrangements with corporate organizations⁴ 3. participatory planning⁵ 4. incentives³ 5. monitoring⁴ 6. institutional capacities³ 7. enhancement³
Mills, Lee & Rassekh (2019)	Public Sector	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. rules² 2. stakeholders⁴ 3. coordinating mechanism⁵
UN-GGIM (2017)	N/A0	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. responsible organizations⁴ 2. human resource⁴ 3. funding³ 4. equipment & supplies³ 5. leadership effectiveness⁴ 6. communication⁴
Hassenforder & Barone (2018)	Private Sector	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. actors⁴ 2. their position⁴ 3. autonomy granted⁴ 4. permissible actions² 5. desired outcomes¹ 6. costs & benefits assigned to actions & outcomes (accountability)⁴ 7. information and its availability⁴ 8. frequency and duration of required behaviour⁴
Eaton et al. (2008)	Private & Public Sectors	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. agreement governing exchange⁵ 2. producer organizations (labour)⁴ 3. regulatory process²

Source: Moore (2022)

On the other hand, flat organizational structures are decentralized with fewer layers of authority between upper-level management and low-level employees. Roles and responsibilities of actors are also general and broadly defined; thus, lower-level employees usually feature in organizational decision-making (Rishipal, 2014).

Operational strategy, as a component of IAs, can be likened to an organization's game plan for achieving its strategic vision. According to Slack and Lewis (2019), there are four (4) basic forms of operational strategies based on what an organization seeks to focus on, namely; top-down, bottom-up, market requirements, and operational resources. In detail, when the game plan solely reflects on what management has envisioned for the organization, a top-down operational strategy is being adopted. In contrast, when the game plan is to "incorporate the ideas that come from each function's day-to-day experience" (p.12), the bottom-up approach is being adopted. Adopting a market requirement approach means the organization is focusing solely on what its clientele demands, irrespective of what management or actors decide. Lastly, when an organization allows its resources to determine its decision-making, the operational resource approach is being adopted. In addition to the aforementioned, there has been increasing adoption of the participatory approach to operations especially in relation to developmental and community projects. The participatory operational strategy is best described as a collaborative approach where management engages and/or empowers its employees to be actively involved in the planning, implementation and maintenance processes of the organization (Bäckström & Hermansson, 2014).

According to UNDP (2009), guidelines can manifest as either formal written rules or unwritten codes of conduct/informal norms/generally accepted values. Eaton et al. (2008) describe formal IAs as working rules embodied in constitutions, laws, structures of state or enforceable regulations. On the other hand, informal IAs constitute all norms of conduct, historical or cultural traditions and religious percepts governing the behaviour of a group or organization (Eaton et al., 2008). For effective implementation, scholars indicate that institutional arrangements in general must be explicitly stated in a single document (Ayana et al., 2017), be flexible enough to incorporate changes in the external environment and encourage stakeholder participation especially in decision-making (Subramanian, 2012).

Aligned with the aforesaid, Institutional Arrangements (IAs) in the context of this study is conceptualized as KNP's principles, organizational structure and operational strategy put in place by management to guide employee behaviour according to a set criterion (strategic vision) for ensuring visitors' psychological safety. According to Barrett, Lee and McPeak (2005), IAs are enacted to influence (that is, facilitate or constrain) behaviour within a given context. Hence, the performance or non-performance of a behaviour within an organization is determined by its prevailing institutional arrangements (Hassenforder & Barone, 2018). To detail how KNP's IAs for psychological safety become and influence employees' behaviour, the New Institutional Theory is reviewed.

The New Institutional Theory

Generally, the central theme for all institutional theories (both classical and new) is the claim that there is something at a higher level that explains the processes and outcomes at a lower level of analysis (Amenta & Ramsey 2009, p.15). In the words of Clemen and Cook (1999), it focuses on how institutions structure actions rather than aggregate individual actions.

Unlike classic institutional theory which focuses on economic matrices to explain organization-environment relations, the new institutional theory (also known as neo-institutionalism) proposed by Meyers and Rowan (1977) and later augmented by DiMaggio and Powell (1983) adopts a sociological perspective to explain how organizations navigate the prevailing systems within their micro and macro environments in order to appear legitimate enough to survive (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020; David, Tolbert & Boghossian, 2019; Greenwood, Oliver, Sahlin & Suddaby, 2008). To be specific, the theory explains ‘why organizations reflect the myths of their institutional environments and the mechanisms/pressures at play to make it occur’ (Aksom & Tymchenko 2020, p. 0954).

At the micro level, the theory posits that the complex networks of interactions between organizations give rise to a generalized social understanding of how to do things known as rationalized myths. Although variances in complexity and conflicts within fields or networks might cause these rationalized myths to give rise to different organizational forms (Greenwood et al., 2008), ultimately, they all evolve into codified formal regulations and laws (known as institutions or institutional arrangements) and

are diffused along the various relational networks. These rationalized myths-turn-institutions then become the standard for rational behaviour (what is appropriate) and a necessary requirement for organizations to fit in (that is, appear legitimate) and survive (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020; Greenwood et al., 2008). The end result of this process is a general homogenization among organizations known as isomorphism (David et al., 2019). Put differently, all organizations would be reflecting or imitating the myths within their environment (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020).

According to DiMaggio and Powell (1983), the pressures within the environment result in three types of isomorphism, namely; regulatory, normative and mimetic. Regulatory isomorphism arises when external regulatory agents (such as the State) exert coercive force to pressure organizations to adopt and conform to institutions. Normative isomorphism is rather driven by pressures brought on by the professional standards or prevailing norms of the organizational network/field (the socialization process). Mimetic isomorphism, on the other hand, occurs when due to uncertainty, organizations imitate institutions that have proven successful for others on the assumption that it might prove beneficial to them or it is the safe way to proceed. On a continuum, Hoffman (1997, p. 36) claims that regulatory, normative and mimetic isomorphisms respectively range from the “conscious to the unconscious, legally enforced to the taken for granted”.

The theory further posits that, when prescribed institutions conflict with an organization’s strategic interest, decoupling occurs. At length, the organization would adopt the institution, put in place evaluative measures but

neglect implementation in order to project an illusional confidence in the institution whilst actually reducing its efficiency impact. That is to say, the institution becomes adopted in a 'ceremonial' capacity in order for the organization not to seem irrational or negligent and still maintain the trappings of legitimacy (Greenwood et al., 2008). Zucker (1987, p. 672) refers to this situation as surface isomorphism.

Applied within the context of this study, the theory suggests that the complex interactions between KNP employees and visitors would result in rationalized myths about how to ensure that visitors feel psychologically safe onsite. As time goes on, management would codify these rationalized myths into rules, procedures and guidelines which all KNP employees would be mandated to conform to. In order to maintain their jobs, more and more employees would submit to the institutions until independent actions ceases and homogenization occurs. However, if the provision of psychological safety is contrary to the interest of either the KNP in general or employees in particular, decoupling would occur. That is to say, the enacted intuitional arrangements would be merely cosmetic with very little emphasis on implementation.

The new institutional theory is acknowledged as a dominant theory for explaining organization-environment relations (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020); as such, it has been widely applied in diverse studies including Adams and Kastrinaki (2022), Gao-Zeller, Li, Yang and Zhu (2019), Lehner and Harrer (2019), Loi, Lei and Lourenco (2021), Karyawati, Subroto, Sutrisno and Saraswati (2020) and Osinubi (2020), just to mentions a few. Generally, the theory has been identified to possess two main limitations: first, it fails to

consider that there might be other forces such as power and self-interest within the environment opposing the pressures of isomorphism (David et al., 2019; Suddaby, 2015); and secondly, it neglects to account for institutional creation and change (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020; Tsakatika, 2004). These limitations, however, have little bearing on this study because it seeks to simply describe the present nature of KNP's institutional arrangement for providing psychological safety rather than addressing how institutional arrangements come into being or how they change overtime. Therefore, based on its simplicity, extensiveness of use and practically no identified limitation that has bearing in this context, this study considers that neo-institutional theory is adequate to provide a theoretical basis to describe the nature of institutional arrangements in this study.

The Role of Employees

Institutions, as previously stated, do not exist in isolation. Instead, people are put in charge of implementation. Employees at attraction sites are responsible for putting the devised institutions into practice in order to create a conducive environment (safe container) that provides psychological safety to visitors as they patronize attractions. To illustrate their role in the provision of psychological safety, the Value-Belief-Norm (VBN) theory is reviewed to detail how their perspective on a behaviour is formed and the values that shape their perspectives.

Value-Belief-Norm (VBN) Theory

According to López-Mosquera and Sánchez (2012), the value-belief-norm (VBN) theory is an integration of three (3) other psychological theories, namely; the universal theory of human values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987); the normative influence model (Schwartz, 1970); and the New Ecology Paradigm (Dunlap et al., 2000). It was proposed by Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano and Kalof (1999) to explain how the psychological state of an individual intervenes with social processes to influence the adoption and practice of pro-environmental behaviour (Pronello & Gaborieau, 2018).

The theory essentially positions human values as an antecedent in a causal chain leading to behaviour (Ghazali, Nguyen, Mutum & Yap, 2019). More explicitly, the theory posits that the value orientation of individuals influences their formation of general beliefs and acknowledgement of responsibility which subsequently leads to their performance of a behaviour and mitigation of problems (Choi, Jang & Kandampully, 2015; Stern, 2000; Tölkes, 2018). In a nutshell, personal norms are formed out of transformed values and beliefs.

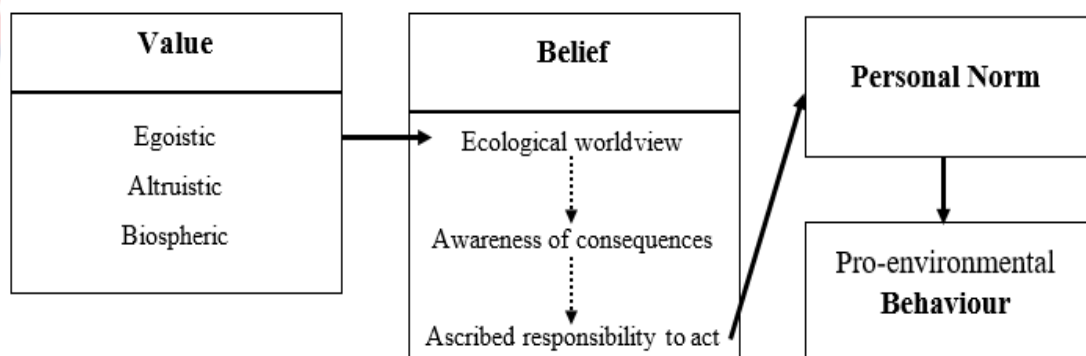


Figure 1: VBN theory of Pro-environmental Behaviour Model

Source: Ajuhari, Aziz and Hasan (2015)

Value (V.O)

Value or value orientation (V.O) is defined by Sagiv, Roccas, Cieciuch and Schwartz (2017, p. 3) as “broad desirable goals that motivate people’s actions and serve as a guiding principle in their lives”. Hansla cited in Ajuhari, Aziz and Hasan (2015) define it as a cognitive representation of abstract goals (such as keeping everyone safe and happy) and abstract means of behaviour (such as being helpful) which tends to vary based on how desirable or important the person thinks the idea is. In this study, values refer to attraction employees’ mental picture (understanding) of what a safe attraction site ought to be and the ideal way (process involved and elements required) of creating this imagined conducive environment for visitors (Landon, Woosnam & Boley, 2018). As follows, the value-belief-norm (VBN) theory posits three (3) components to value orientation, namely; altruistic values, biospheric values and egoistic values.

Altruism values is best described as engaging in a behaviour due to general concern for people (Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017). Thus, it is the general concern that attraction-employees have towards the vulnerable state of visitors. According to Schwartz (2012), altruism is usually motivated by universalism (need to ensure the welfare of all) and benevolence (fulfilling this welfare through acts of devotion, solicitude, diligence, zeal, attention, sympathy, empathy, compassion, respect, concern and responsiveness to clients in their experiences) (Hammer, Cartwright-Alcarese & Budin, 2019).

Biospheric values, within its original context, refers to concern for maintaining the environment. Fundamentally, it entails being motivated by

obedience and the need to maintain the status quo. Thus, it is about respecting and showing commitment and acceptance for existing customs. In the visitor-attraction site nexus, it is about ensuring relative stability in the operational environment of the attraction site and maintaining harmonious relationships between stakeholders (employees, visitors and management) by restraining actions, inclinations and impulses that are likely to cause unwanted changes in others or social norms (Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017; Ghazali, Nguyen, Mutum & Yap, 2019).

Egoistic values are about self-interest (Schwartz, 2012). By way of explanation, when attraction-employees feel motivated to implement psychological safety measures because of the advantages or personal benefits they will gain from said actions, they are said to be inspired by egoistic values. Thus, in a like manner, when there are no benefits to be gained, said employees would not provide psychological safety to visitors. According to Ghazali et al. (2019) and Stern et al. (1999), egoistic values are driven by the need for self-gratification, personal success, prestige, social status, wealth, authority and power. Armstrong and Taylor (2014) add that avoiding a negative consequence or punishments (such as removing rewards or being queried for non-adherence) is also a motivator of egoistic values.

According to Sagiv et al. (2017), the level of importance each individual assigns to each of these three components results in a different behaviour set. In other words, value orientation is subjective in nature. The VBN theory further posits that value orientations in itself do not influence behaviour; rather, they

transform into beliefs about the behaviour (Ajuhari et al., 2015; Steg et al., 2005).

Belief

The VBN theory describes belief as the thought that one has about a particular behaviour. More explicitly, Beck (2011) defines it as the fundamental, often inflexible, absolute and generalized idea that a person holds about a behaviour, themselves, others, the world or even the future. According to Landon et al. (2018), it is an individual's cognitive representation of how things are. Thus, it is generally how a person perceives their world and the things in it.

Hence, contrary to values which are an individual's depiction of an ideal situation, beliefs are how the individual perceives the actual situation. Ajuhari et al. (2015) indicate that beliefs comprise three (3) linear constructs, namely; ecological worldview, awareness of consequences and ascription of responsibility.

Ecological worldview is seen as people's beliefs about the human-environment relationship (Tölkes, 2018). It essentially reflects people's belief regarding humanity's ability to upset the balance of nature (Chen, 2014). In the context of this study, the worldview in question would not be ecological but rather safety. Thus, this aspect of belief would aim at exploring attraction employees' perspective on if they can actually influence visitors' fears or perception of risk by employing psychological safety measures (self-efficacy) (Wong, Gaston, Dejesus & Prapavessis, 2016).

Awareness of consequence is essentially the belief or consciousness that one's actions or inaction would either threaten or improve the interest of others or oneself (Choi, Jang & Kandampully, 2015). In practical terms, it is attraction employees' awareness that failing to provide psychological safety for visitors will increase visitors' perception of risk onsite as well as their fear of activities. Subsequently, this fear or perception of risk would trigger a 'fight or flight' behaviour on the part of visitors; either way, visitors would become dissatisfied with their patronage of the attraction site leading to negative post-purchase intentions. Essentially, VBN postulates that the level of awareness a person possesses regarding the proposed behaviour precedes the level of responsibility assumed for that behaviour.

Ascription of responsibility is defined by Kiatkawsin and Han (2017) as the belief that one's actions can either promote or prevent an unwanted outcome. To illustrate, if an attraction employee strongly believes that visitors are vulnerable when they are onsite or when they are partaking in the activities on offer (there is a problem) and that by implementing psychological safety measures (performing proposed behaviour) the problem can be prevented or at least its consequence can be minimized, he/she would assume a high level of responsibility towards the performance of that behaviour. On the other hand, if the attraction employee should assume any of the following: (1) that his/her actions would not prevent or cause any change in visitors' perception of risk or fear; (2) that visitors are not actually vulnerable onsite; and (3) that psychological safety is not achievable or within his/her job prescription, he/she would likewise assume a negligible level of responsibility towards providing

psychological safety (the behaviour). As López-Mosquera and Sánchez (2012) indicate, people motivated to gain deeper awareness of a behaviour usually ascribe greater responsibility towards that behaviour; eventually, they begin to view the said behaviour as a moral obligation.

Personal Norms

According to the VBN theory, the guiding principles (values) of people transform to determine their stance on issues (beliefs), subsequently leading to the development of their personal norms. Personal norms are best described as the internal standards (experienced as a feeling of moral obligation) of what is right or wrong (bad or good) which determines the way an individual would behave given a particular situation (Jansson & Dorrepaal, 2015; Thøgersen, 2006; Schwartz, 1977).

According to Tölkes (2018), personal norms are activated when people believe that something of value to them (moral code) is under threat. In this sense, they begin to feel that they have an avowed duty to act in order to ease the damage being caused and restore the value of what they treasure (Choi et al., 2015). In the context of the study, what is of value to attraction employees is the safety of the attraction site, which when assured results in the continuous arrival of visitors. In other words, positive personal norms are formed when attraction employees comprehend the threat that a psychologically unsafe attraction site has on the continuous arrival of visitor, and then decide to remedy the situation.

Despite popular use of the Value-Belief-Norm theory in explaining the formation of behaviour (specifically, pro-environmental behaviour), there have been several criticisms levelled against the theory. To begin with, authors like Kiatkawsin and Han (2017) and Tölkes (2018) indicate that the theory is not actually capable of predicting the adoption of a behaviour because behaviour depends on more than just values and norms. Chen (2014) and Landon et al. (2018) also suggest that there are temporal constraints in concurrently assessing the values, beliefs and personal norms involved in the performance of a behaviour. Notwithstanding, VBN has proven to be a useful guide in providing a linear representation of the cognitive process for people's intent to engage in a behaviour based on their values and moral norms in diverse behaviour and behaviour change studies.

In tourism, the theory has been extensively applied to understand tourist' commitment to adopting pro-environmental behaviour (Ajuhari et al., 2015; Han, Hwang & Lee, 2017; Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017; Landon, Woosnam & Boley, 2018; Sharma & Gupta, 2020), tourists' decision to purchase green items (Choi, Jang & Kandampully, 2015; Han, 2015; Hwang, Kim & Kim, 2020), and effective environmental attitudes of hotel managers (Kasim, 2009; Rubin, White, Lee & Basile, 2016). However, its application in relation to the field of safety and security has been seldom at best.

Nevertheless, the tenets of the theory aim at explaining the cognitive process involved in the adaptation of a particular behaviour (as seen in Ford et al., 2009; Menzel & Bögeholz, 2010; Steg, Dreijerink & Abrahamse, 2005). As such, it is the researcher's opinion that VBN would suffice in providing an

explanation for the cognitive process involved in employees' provision of psychological safety to visitors. Presumably, when supportive institutional arrangements act in unison with favourable personal norms, employees at KNP are more likely to provide a conducive environment in which visitors would feel psychologically safe enough to partake in offered activities.

Nature of Psychological Safety Practices

Providing psychological safety necessitates the use of a repertoire of institutionalized and/or voluntary practices. According to Grant (2021), Reiss (1991), and Urry and Larsen (2011), regardless of the practices, they should strive for three (3) fundamental goals. First, provide visitors with a channel to express their safety concerns and complaints. Second, offer support to help them overcome their fears and perceived risks. Third, devise methods to dampen detrimental tensions and behaviour (within a tour group) that subconsciously triggers the expectation of being judged negatively when fear is displayed during participation in an activity. The 4Es of behaviour change theory is reviewed to put into perspective the span of practices that may be employed by employees to make the KNP setting psychologically safe.

The 4Es of Behaviour Change Model

The 4E's of behaviour change model (also known as Defra's 4E model of pro-environmental behaviour) was originally proposed by the Department of Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) in 2008 as a guideline tool for those responsible for supporting and implementing interventions aimed at causing change in people's behaviour.

The model posits that there is no single technique/method for influencing people to act in a particular way; however, there are basic practices that can help in determining the performance or non-performance of a behaviour as well as its outcomes. To this end, DEFRA proposes four (4) necessary actions/practices that can lead to favourable behaviour outcomes, namely; enable, encourage, engage and exemplify.

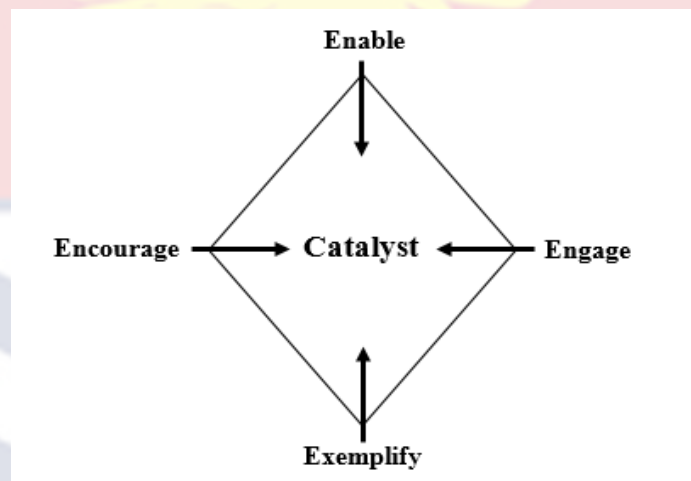


Figure 2: Framework for Behaviour Change

Source: Fudge and Peters (2011)

Enabling is described by the model as making things easier. Holden and Stuart (2014) suggest it is about education. Thus, enabling aims at empowering visitors with the right kind of information, skill-set, attitude and resources that would influence their decision-making with regards to participation. According to Brook Lyndhurst (2007), enabling serves the purpose of making or breaking heuristics, myths, habits, personal values, identity and social norms that serve as barrier to participation in an endeavour. In essence, it comprises practices which educate visitors on the activity they are about to engage in, some of the risks involved, how the facility helps in overcoming those risks as well as

helping them develop a sense of responsibility towards their own safety as well as those of their co-participants.

Engaging centres around getting visitor to participate or get involved (Fischer, 2013). Basically, it centres around practices that help in establishing trust, building friendship, communication and understanding between the stakeholders of the experience, with the aim of enforcing actions that remove the psychological barriers (like the fear of public recrimination, shame, ridicule or guilt) that characterize participation. Additionally, it comprises support systems put in place to make any decision (participate/abstain) arrived at by visitors a favourable option (Fudge & Peters, 2011). Thus, proposed practices under this element include stating that the option to not participate is available, provisions in place for passive participants, as well as provisions for visitors who begin the activity but for one reason or the other are unable to complete (Brook Lyndhurst, 2007; Holden & Stuart, 2014).

Encouraging is described as persuading people to amend or enhance their conduct with regard to a behaviour in question (Fischer, 2013). In other words, it comprises both incentives for favourable visitor behaviour and disincentives to discourage unfavourable behaviour (Fudge & Peters, 2011). Additionally, it is depicted as giving the right signals to build understanding regarding participation in an activity (DEFRA, 2008). Thus, within this context, encouraging practices are those practices that signal to visitors that it is okay to perceive risk or fear whilst partaking in recreational activities. Ultimately, these practices aim at getting everyone (all visitors) involved, be it actively or passively. As regards active participants, it is about cheering them up in their

endeavours, whilst breaking any negative opinion they may hold against passive participants. On the part of passive participants (observers), it involves actions to make them feel part of the experience. According to Chatterton (2011), DEFRA (2008) and Holden and Stuart (2014), soliciting feedback is crucial to the implementation of encouraging practices.

Exemplify is about leading by example and demonstrating shared responsibility for the behaviour by ensuring that there is consistency in the policies or guidelines supporting participation (DEFRA, 2008). Thus, the practice of exemplifying involves the actual participation of attraction employees in recreational activities with visitors. It essentially projects the idea that “I am taking the same risks as you and my willingness to participate shows that there is not much to fear”. As a consequence, visitors begin to comprehend that the activity involves all, not just them.

The 4Es theory has been applied across a broad spectrum of social interventions such as waste management and recycling behaviour change (Brook Lyndhurst, 2007), pro-environmental behaviour (DEFRA, 2007), energy consumption behaviour (Chatterton, 2011; Darby, 2006) and sustainable behaviour (Eppel, Sharp & Davies, 2013; Jackson, 2005; Knott, Muers & Aldridge, 2008) just to mention a few. However, its application has mainly been from the perspective of government, with experiential evidence from a consumer perspective and theoretical application in organizations being elusive.

In Brook Lyndhurst (2007, p. 9), the 4Es theory of behaviour change is tagged as “a ‘package’ to ‘unlock’ entrenched behaviours, personal and social norms”; however, in reality, the theory simply provides and describes factors

for providing an enabling environment for the performance of a behaviour (Jackson, 2005), with no actual procedure or process for behaviour implementation. Thus far, this is the only identified limitation for the theory. Notwithstanding, the features of this theory is being applied in the context of this study to provide pointers for the spectrum of practices that attraction employees can engage in their provision of psychological safety for visitors.

Element 2: The Visitor

Visitors are at the receiving end of the psychological safety process. At length, to enjoy attraction site's unique, memorable and exciting experiences, visitors are required to purposefully travel outside their home environment to places where they are likely to encounter foreign objects, people, settings and circumstances. Often, the unfamiliar nature of the attraction's environment and offering leave visitors feeling anxious or defensive as a result of perceived risks or fear.

Thus, they require psychological safety to help reinforce their sense of safety and comfort, so that they can fully (that is, physically, cognitively and emotionally) immerse themselves willingly in the tourism experience without concern for negative repercussions. In the absence of psychological safety, visitors maintain their perception of risks or fear which consequently has a negative influence of their tourism experience (Kahn, 1990; Phakdisoth & Kim, 2007; World Economic Forum, 2016). In other words, the ultimate aim of psychological safety practices is to influence visitors' feeling of safety. To

explore this dimension, Lazarus's Cognitive Appraisal Theory is reviewed to demonstrate the role that visitors play as recipients of psychological safety.

Lazarus' (1991) Cognitive Appraisal Theory

In 1991, Richard Lazarus in his book *Emotions and Adaption* proposed a cognitive theory of emotions which states that "emotions have intentionality and that their significance and force are determined by our cognition" (Alvi 2016, p. 399). Interpreted within the context of this study, Lazarus implies that, when visitors encounter something/someone (stimuli) at an attraction site that causes them to exhibit fear or perceive risk, they think about the situation they are in and based on their judgement (cognitive appraisal), react in a specific way (subjective experience). This reaction (emotion) is both physiological and behavioural in nature.

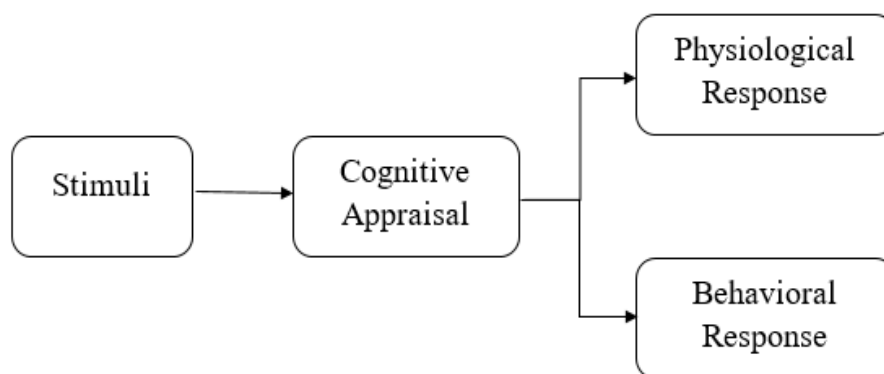


Figure 3: Lazarus' Cognitive Appraisal Theory

Source: Adapted from Spielman et al. (2014)

Stimuli as antecedent to visitors' psychological safety

Lazarus (1991) defines stimuli as the change within the environment that triggers a response. In the context of this study, stimuli are depicted as all the things within and about the attraction environment or activities on offer that

triggers the perception of risk or arouses fear within visitors. The tourism endeavour is inherently riddled with risks, dangers and uncertainties; as such, there are numerous factors that trigger risk perception or fear among attraction site visitors (Lo, Cheung & Law, 2011; Yang & Nair, 2014). These factors can broadly be categorized into endogenous and exogenous stimuli.

Exogenous stimuli are risk factors that are external to the attraction environment or activity on offer. They include factors like natural disasters, terrorism, crime, wars and unrest (Avraham, 2015; Bodea, Elbadawi & Houle, 2017; Briggs, 2012; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Liu & Pratt, 2017; Neumayer, 2004; Njoloma & Kamanga, 2019).

In contrast, endogenous stimuli are risk factors that directly characterize the attraction environment or stem from participating in a tourism activity. These factors include risks stemming from food safety, diseases, quality of medical service, incurring financial loss, psychological stress, stress from cross-cultural differences, life-threatening accident, malfunction in equipment, among other (Cui et al., 2016; Hasan, Ismail & Islam, 2017).

Cognitive appraisal

Cognitive appraisal is defined as the conscious or unconscious mental process of forming an opinion, judgment, or assessment of the stimuli (Spielman et al., 2014). That is to say, when visitors encounter any stimuli within the attraction environment (especially ones outside their status quo), they begin to think carefully about the encounter.

According to Lazarus (1991), this thinking (appraisal) process is in two stages: (1) the primary process which involves establishing the meaning or significance of the stimuli (is it a threat or not?); and (2) the secondary process which involves assessing the ability to cope with consequences of the event (Campbell, Johnson & Zernicke, 2013).

The tourism product is inseparable, meaning it requires visitors to travel to a destination in order to consume its service in situ. Thus, when confronted with stimuli (whether real or perceived), visitors' cognitive appraisal is generally about worrying about being hurt, losing lives, losing control over life or property and/social relations (Lu, Zhang & Liu, 2018; Wills-Herrera, 2014). Conclusions from this cognitive appraisal process determines visitors' subjective experience onsite.

Visitors' subjective experience to stimuli

Subjective experience is an individual's interpretation of the changes within his/her environment and its impacts (Campbell, Johnson & Zernicke, 2013). In the context of this study, subjective experience refers specifically to the perception of risk or fear that visitors develop when they encounter endogenous or exogenous risks within the attraction environment or when participating in any of the activities on offer. As its name suggests, subjective experience is unique or distinct to each and every individual. Thus, it is highly unlikely that any two visitors would have the same level or intensity of feelings towards a stimulus (Lazarus, 1991). Put differently, some are likely to feel more afraid or weary of the stimulus compared to others.

The exact intensity of visitors' feeling (that is, of risk or fear) is often contingent on factors such as: the novelty of the stimuli to the visitor; the suddenness of the change; visitor's consciousness towards the change; general worldview (values, beliefs, outlook, cognition) of the stimuli; personal and cultural background/experiences; memories of past events; perception of controllability; behaviour of co-participants; among others (Cui et al., 2016; Moors, Ellsworth, Scherer & Frijda, 2013). Ultimately, subjective experience influences the extent to which a visitor would respond to the stimuli within the environment.

Response to subjective experiences

Following subjective experience, Lazarus (1991) indicates that visitors would respond or react to the encountered stimuli. The response is simultaneously behavioral and physiological. By behavioral response, Lazarus is referring to the negative emotions expressed as a result of fear and risks such as worry, insecurity, defensiveness, doubt, dread, anger, anxiety, et cetera (Afolabi & Baloguna, 2017; Schneier, 2008). Essentially, this response translates to visitors developing a negative impression or image about the attraction site (George, 2003; Phakdisoth & Kim, 2007).

Physiological response is about responding to stimuli via actions (World Economic Forum, 2016). More accurately, it is a visitor's autonomic nervous system (ANS) reaction to encountered risks. It usually manifests in the form of fight or flight. Fight in this regard refers to visitors' participating in tourism

activities regardless of the perception of risk or fear. Flight, on the other hand, is when visitors decide to avoid or sit-out an activity entirely.

Akin to behavioral response, if unassuaged, physiological response has detrimental effects on tourism (Cater, 2006; Fennell, 2017; Mura, 2010). In the sense that, the strain from ‘fighting fear/perceived risks’ generally overshadows any pleasure to be derived from the tourism activity. In essence, this option fundamentally defeats the purpose for engaging in tourism – which is to gain a relaxing and pleasant experience (Heimtun & Abelsen, 2012).

Then again, the flight option usually breeds disappointment among visitors, given that they often perceive financial loss in travelling to a destination but being unable to engage in the experience they travelled there for. After all, as Kavet (2005) expresses, no one is truly happy to pay for a product they never got/get to consume. This feeling of disappointment often translates to dissatisfaction and negative post purchase intentions.

From Lazarus’ cognitive appraisal theory, two major conclusions can be drawn about general visitors’ behavior towards stimuli: (1) feelings such as perceived risk or fear are cognitively based, hence are subject to psychological influence; and (2) visitors’ reaction to changes within their environment does not happen simultaneously but rather goes through a mental process before unveiling itself. This implies that the cognitive appraisal process can be influenced, and if influenced appropriately, visitors’ response to stimuli (both physiological and behavioral) can be changed or modified.

Generally, researchers (including Breitsohl & Garrod, 2016; Fugate, Harrison & Kinicki, 2011; Wiezer et al., 2011) have engaged Lazarus’ cognitive

appraisal theory to explore the role of appraisal in predicting people's reactions and consequences to events. Indeed, studies like Abrahamson (2000), Akers (2017) and Stanley, Meyer, and Topolnytsky (2005) demonstrate that the cognitive appraisal process can be influenced and that its effects can either result in the acceptance of stimuli or evoke further resistance.

Indeed, psychological safety is often touted as a measure geared towards influencing the subjective experiences of employees within an organization (Carmeli & Zisu, 2009; Edmondson, 2018). Findings thus far indicate that introducing psychological safety into an organization often marginalizes or at least minimizes the intensity of employees' feelings towards stimuli (stressful environment), which consequently bolsters their willingness to engage with their work (Newman, Donohue & Eva, 2017; O'Donovan & McAuliffe, 2020). It is against this background that the study proposes psychological safety as a measure for influencing visitors' fears or perception of risk as they engage in tourism at the attraction level.

Element 3: The Dyadic Relationship

The process of providing psychological safety at attraction sites is not unidirectional but rather dyadic (Newman, Donahue & Eva, 2017). That is to say, it is not entirely dependent on the actions or efforts of the attraction site. Instead, it is co-created via interactive exchanges between individual visitors, their co-participants, the attraction site and other third-party individuals within the environment (Aranzamendez, James & Toms, 2015; Campos, Mendes, Oom do Valle & Scott, 2018; Edmondson, 2018; Kuppelwieser & Finsterwalder,

2011; Zhang, Fang, Wei & Chen, 2010). As such, visitors' psychological safety is posited as not exclusively determined by the actions of attraction site management and employees but also contingent on the shared belief that the tour group is a safe haven for interpersonal risk taking.

Primarily, the dyadic relationship between the attraction site and visitors is suggested to serve two (2) main purposes. Firstly, it is intended to establish trust, acceptance and respect between visitors and the attraction site's management and employees (Kuppelwieser & Finsterwalder, 2011). Through this, stimuli that trigger fear and risk perceptions can be identified, and in turn existing norms that do not facilitate safety but rather breed fear can be broken (Schein & Bennis, 1965). Secondly, O'Donovan and McAuliffe (2020) explain that through regular interactions with the providers of psychological safety, visitors become more accepting or tolerant of the stimuli that trigger fear or perceived risks in their environment. As such, this link offers the opportunity to replace visitors' fears and perceived risks with freedom and acceptance (Clark, 2020; Edmondson, Bohmer & Pisano, 2001).

In a nutshell, psychological safety from a consumer perspective is fundamentally three-dimensional; that is to say, it combines all three levels of analysis (individual, team and organizational). This is not particularly surprising, given that Frazier et al. (2017) and Grant (2021) suggest that these perspectives are more complementary rather than competing viewpoints of the same construct. This consumer context of psychological safety is best depicted by the social exchange theory.

Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory (SET) is one of the few theories that have been adapted in the literature to explain the psychological safety process (Frazier et al., 2017; Newman, Donahue & Eva, 2017). According to Emerson (1976), the theory is fundamentally rooted in the works of Blau (1964), Homans (1958) and Thibaut and Kelley (1959). These theorists borrowed extensively from the economic, sociological, psychological and socio-psychological spheres of knowledge to provide a comprehensive explanation of human behaviour within dyadic relationships.

The theory at its basis suggests that all human interactions are based on a subjective cost-benefit analysis, with people only seeking relationships that can provide resources of value to them. As Emerson (1976, p. 336) describes it, SET “is a two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process involving transactions or simply exchanges”. In this sense, the theory suggests three (3) underlying tenets to all human relationships, namely; exchange, reciprocity and equity.

Exchange

The debate on exchange as a basis for social relationships began with Homans' (1961) assertion that “men are more likely to perform an activity, the more valuable they perceive the reward of the activity to be” (Emerson 1976, p. 338). Homans, by this assertion, meant that dyadic relationships are grounded on stimulus response principles (psychological processes) and the economic motive of give-and-take. Indeed, Pizam (1978) likens the exchange involved in

social relationships to a process of negotiations, where the ultimate aim is to maximize gains and minimize losses. Put differently, people will abandon a relationship/behaviour if the cost/risk to them outweighs any potential benefits/rewards.

Supporting Homans' perspective, Blau (1964) conceptualized social exchange as involving "voluntary actions that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (Alonso & Nyanjom 2016, p. 618). However, Blau, just like Thibaut and Kelley (1959), parted ways with Homan on the idea that the resources in exchange are purely economic. Blau argues that the resource in social exchanges can be anything of value, not necessarily material or monetary. Thus, it may include things of social or relational (non-material) values like social approval, respect, esteem, compliance, affection trust, gratitude, loyalty, freedom and safety (Alonso & Nyanjom 2016; Mensah, 2018; Petersitzke, 2009).

Essentially, SET suggests that in dyadic relationships, there is exchange of resources that can be either material or non-material so far as it is of value. Since the idea of exchange is founded on the premise of a receiver and a giver, it gives rise to the question of payment. This prompts the next tenet of SET – reciprocity.

Reciprocity

Although, exchange within social relationships do not necessarily mandate payment, Emerson (1976, p. 359) indicates that "resources will continue to flow only if there is a valued return contingent upon it". In other

words, without the expectation of returns of economic or relational nature, social relationships will not progress. For this reason, people face pressure of various forms to reciprocate what they have been given. In the words of Homans (1958, p. 606), givers “try to get much from [those who have received benefits from] them”. Alternatively, receivers feel significant pressure to return what they have been given.

Thus, reciprocity is the *quid pro quo* propensity of any exchange (Mensah, 2018). It essentially rests on the assumption that for anything given, an obligation is created that compels the return of something of equal value. According to Blau (1964, p. 93), social exchange creates enduring social patterns which lead to ‘unspecified’ obligations; ones that “involve favours that create diffused future obligations... the nature of which cannot be bargained but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it”.

Even though Blau asserts that the obligations from reciprocal acts are unspecified, Ekeh (cited in Petersitzke, 2009) posits that they are driven by either an implied sense of psychological contract or by direct moral obligation. In relation to the psychological contract implicit in reciprocity, Ap (1992) indicates that it can be positive or negative. In the sense that, positive treatment begets positive treatment whilst negative treatment is rewarded with negative treatment. Mensah (2018) compares it to the situation of an eye for an eye.

In terms of reciprocity driven by moral obligations, Fehr and Henrich (2003) describe it as binding with non-compliance resulting in punishments. Usually, the punishment is not legal but rather social. It is based on this that

authors like Levi-Strauss (1949) and Stegbauer (2002) consider social exchanges to be governed by social rules and norms.

Equity

Equity in social relationships stem from the interplay of power and exploitation in social exchange. Blau (1964) indicates that there is a shift of power embedded in every benefit bestowed. That is to say, when a giver bestows a reward on a receiver, power shifts from the receiver to the giver. Once the receiver reciprocates, the power that was taken by the giver is returned and equilibrium is restored (Alonso & Nyanjom 2016).

Blau indicates that in scenarios where benefits are bestowed in such a way that the receiver cannot reciprocate, it leads to a state of inequilibrium with power retained by the giver. This state of inequilibrium essentially lowers the social status of the receiver, subsequently ‘forcing him/her into the position of subordinate’ (Petersitzke 2009, p. 69). Additionally, inequilibrium provides diverse avenues for the giver to exploit the relationship.

Ekeh (1974), however, counters that the state of inequilibrium does not necessarily offer the giver power to exploit the relationship. In the sense that exploitation is based on the receiver’s ability and willingness to reciprocate. In the scenario indicated by Blau, the receiver is willing to reciprocate but lacks the ability to do so, thus is relegated to a subordinate role and can be exploited. However, in a situation where the receiver is able but unwilling to repay (due to being in a more powerful position), the receiver rather retains the power to exploit the giver.

Applied in the context of this study, the social exchange theory suggests that the provision of psychological safety relies on an exchange of resources between the attraction site and visitors. In this dyadic relationship, the attraction site is trading the provision of psychological safety for economic (like continuous operation, job security, monetary incentives, etc.) and relational (like respect, social approval and acceptance, acknowledgement, etc.) values. It is worth noting that, in organizations such as the attraction site, what is considered to be of value in the exchange typically rests on either institutional directives and/or personal norms. On the part of visitors, they are trading their time and money for returns like assured safety, a satisfactory experience, feeling of being valued et cetera. SET cautions that in case one side of the exchange decides not to reciprocate, the other side would lose motivation to continue with the exchange.

At length, the exchange between the attraction site and visitors begins with management and employees providing a safe attraction site (usually via mandatory safety measures). Visitors reciprocate by being attracted to visit and spend money (GAP 1). A second cycle of exchange commences when an employee voluntarily provides psychological safety to a visitor or tour group. For this, the employee is expecting extra value (be it, economic or relational) for their additional effort (GAP 2). It is worth noting that this cycle can also happen vice versa, with visitors offering tips (monetary incentives), and expecting attraction employees to reciprocate.

Equity suggests that, in each of the abovementioned cycles, power shifted from the attraction site (the givers) to visitors (the receivers) and back again. In other words, equilibrium was maintained in the visitor-attraction site

relationship. GAP 1 and GAP 2, however, identify avenues for exploitation in this relationship.

For instance, if after buying the ticket, visitors suffer a mishap due to the negligence of the attraction site (GAP 1) or if after receiving the tip, an attraction employee fails to ensure the psychological safety of the visitor (GAP 2), in either case, the attraction site fails to reciprocate or does not reciprocate with something of value to the visitor(s). As such, power is not returned to the visitor(s), relegating the attraction site to a subordinate position (such as being tagged as greedy or incompetent) in the relationship. In reality, this translates to visitors feeling dissatisfied with their experience and having negative post purchase intentions. In future, the attraction site would have to employ aggressive marketing strategies to attract said visitor(s) again (essentially this can be likened to the act of begging visitors to return).

SET further suggests that there are exemptions to the rule of equity. That is to say, it is not always the case that the attraction site would be demoted to the subordinate position when they fail to reciprocate in the exchange. For instance, during peak seasons when there are more visitors than required, the attraction site may lower its safety standards to accommodate the excess visitors. Given that they have the option of turning away visitors but choose to cater for them, they gain a superior position and the opportunity to exploit visitors. Furthermore, if an attraction employee truly perceives the provision of psychological safety to be a voluntary action, and if failure to implement measures has no personal, social or work-related repercussions, then irrespective of tickets bought or tips given, an attraction employee may simply decide not to provide psychological safety for visitors. In other words, it is not

so much the inability to provide but rather willingness that would grant the attraction site the power to exploit visitors.

Generally, the social exchange theory (SET) has been engaged in the study of diverse dyadic relationships. In tourism, SET has been used extensively in exploring the residents' attitude in the visitor-host relationship (Kang & Lee, 2018; Jani, 2018). Others have used it to explain the attitude of volunteer visitors (Mensah, 2018; Paraskevaïdis & Andriotis, 2017), tourism development attitude (Chang, 2021; Kanwal, Chong & Pitafi, 2019) and the nature of sharing economies (Altinay & Taheri, 2019; Lai, Chuang, Zhang & Nepal, 2020; Priporas, Stylos, Rahimi & Vedanthachari, 2017), just to mention a few.

Although results have been somewhat mixed on specific interactions, studies generally prove that SET adequately helps in explaining the dyadic relationships that exist in the tourism milieu (such as host-resident, management-visitor, visitor-service provider, etc.). Nonetheless, critics suggest that the very basis of the theory is flawed since it is based on the concept of a rational human being (Mensah, 2018). According to Simon (1957), the idea of a rational man is a myth because people do not possess full information of any given situation and they sometimes make impulsive rather than calculating decisions. Hoy and Miskel (2013) also indicate that SET is descriptive rather than prescriptive. Thus, it only describes the dyadic relationship without providing pointers or guidelines on how to effect change. This notwithstanding, SET is being engaged for this study because rather than prescriptive guidelines, this study requires a framework for explaining the relationship involved in the provision of psychological safety at an attraction site.

Table 4: Summary of Concepts and Theories Underpinning the Study

Concepts and Theories	Issues
Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959)	<i>Social dyadic relationships are founded on:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exchange (negotiation for economic and relational resources) - Reciprocity (driven by psychological & moral obligations) - Equity (power and exploitation)
Structuration Theory (Giddens, 1984)	<i>Interface between structure and agency</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Structure (institutional arrangements) - Agency (employees' personal norms)
New Institutional Theory (Meyers & Rowan, 1977; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983)	<i>Pressures driving institutionalism</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Regulatory - Normative - Mimetic
Value-Belief-Norm theory (Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano & Kalof, 1999)	<i>Psycho-social constructs influencing behaviour</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Values (altruistic, biospheric and egoistic) - Belief (ecological worldview, awareness of behaviour and its consequences & ascription of responsibility) - Norm (obligation to perform behaviour)
The 4Es of behaviour change model (DEFRA, 2008)	<i>Providing an enabling/facilitating environment entail:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enable (education) - Encourage (motivation and empowerment) - Engage (Participation and involvement) - Exemplify (leading by example)
Cognitive appraisal theory of emotions (Lazarus, 1991)	<i>Sequence of visitors' reaction to perceived risks/fear:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stimuli - Cognitive appraisal process - Subjective experience - Response (Physiological and Behavioural)

Source: Moore (2022)

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is based on all theories previously reviewed in this chapter. Figure 4 is essentially a graphical explanation of the process involved in providing psychological safety from a consumer (visitor- attraction site) perspective at the Kakum National Park. In this regard, the Social Exchange Theory has been used extensively as the theoretical lens to serve as the basis for this conceptual framework.



Figure 4: Providing Psychological Safety at Kakum National Park

Source: Author's Construct

To set the tone, the Social Exchange Theory depicts visitors and the attraction site (management and employees) as the main actors in the provision of psychological safety. It further suggests that the actions of these actors are not mutually exclusive but rather convoluted in a dyadic relationship marked by exchange, reciprocity and equity. In this visitor-attraction site exchange, if one

party chooses not to reciprocate, the other party will become less motivated to maintain the relationship.

The structuration theory suggests that institutional arrangements and employee personal norms would act in unison as antecedents prior to this exchange. According to the new institutional theory, visitors' need for psychological safety may begin as a rationalized myth. However, as time goes on, management will deem it a necessary requirement of visitors and develop formal institutional guidelines to govern employees' provision of psychological safety. Subsequently, pressures (regulatory, normative or mimetic) within the KNP setting would compel employees to conform to these institutional arrangements eventually leading to uniformity in psychological safety provision.

As regards employees' moral/ethical obligation (personal norm) towards the provision of psychological safety, the VBN theory equally adds that whatever values (self-interest, concern for visitors or need to maintain the status quo) employees possess would inform their worldview on the need for psychological safety, who a psychologically safe visitor ought to be and the ideal processes and elements required to ensure visitors' safety. Employees' worldviews subsequently shape their opinions on whether they can effect change in visitors' response to stimuli by implementing psychological safety practices, as well as the level of awareness they have about the consequences for adhering or not adhering to psychological safety institutions. Ultimately, the level of responsibility that employees would ascribe to providing psychological safety would rest on their awareness of the consequences of their behaviour.

The outcome of KNP's institutional arrangements and employees' norm regarding psychological safety would be a set of practices aimed at ensuring that visitors feel psychologically safe onsite. According to the 4Es model of behaviour change, employees are more likely to implement practices that enable, encourage, engage and exemplify psychological safety.

On the part of visitors, Lazarus' Cognitive Appraisal Theory indicates that when visitors encounter either endogenous or exogenous stimuli (risk and fear factors) at KNP, they go through a cognitive appraisal process to determine whether the stimulus is harmful to them or not. Harmful stimuli would induce a fight or flight response in visitors, subsequently resulting in dissatisfaction with the tourism experience. However psychological safety practices can change or modify the cognitive appraisal process to make visitors more tolerant of harmful stimuli, thus, resulting in a favourable subjective experience (not dissatisfied).

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a theoretical discourse on the issues surrounding the concept of psychological safety. To begin, the chapter delved into the concept of safety, providing details on both physical and psychological safety as complementary dimensions to safety. Psychological safety, which is the main focus of this study, was explored for its ability to aid in overcoming fears and perceptions of risk, especially in today's sensitive tourism industry. Given that research on psychological safety has only recently begun to flourish, literature in the field of tourism is generally lacking and practically non-existent from a

consumer perspective. Thus, the chapter provides a conceptualization of psychological safety in the context of tourism's visitor-attraction site nexus.

Subsequently, the Social Exchange Theory (SET) was reviewed to establish that the provision of psychological safety is grounded on the dyadic relationship that exists between visitors and the management and employees of attraction sites. On the part of the attraction site, four theories were reviewed in order to position their role in the dyadic exchange involved in providing psychological safety. First, the Structuration Theory was reviewed to substantiate the mutual role of institutional arrangements and employee norms as antecedents for the visitor-attraction site exchange. The New Institutional Theory was reviewed to provide further details on the nature of potential psychological safety institutional arrangements. Similarly, the VBN theory was reviewed to inform how employees' personal norms emerge and how it shapes their adherence to organizational practices. The 4Es of behaviour change model was also reviewed to provide the broad range of practices that could emerge in the provision of psychological safety. Finally, to position the role of visitors within this dyadic exchange, the Cognitive Appraisal Theory was reviewed to outline how visitors behave when they encounter stimuli within the attraction environment and how psychological safety practices are likely to intervene to ensure a favourable visitor experience.

The chapter concluded with a conceptual framework assembled from the six (6) earlier reviewed theories. First, it establishes that an exchange takes place between visitors and the attraction site via the provision of psychological safety. Secondly, institutional arrangements and personal norms facilitate the attraction

site's provision of psychological safety. Thirdly, the psychological safety practices of the attractions site have influence on the cognitive appraisal process that visitors go through when confronted with stimuli within the attraction environment. Finally, factors emanating from both visitors and the attraction site may shape the extent to which psychological safety practices are successful.



CHAPTER THREE

PERSPECTIVES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY: CONCEPTUALIZATION, PRACTICES AND EXPERIENCES

Introduction

This chapter provides empirical evidence on the process surrounding the provision of psychological safety. It begins by deconstructing psychological safety as it appears in literature and follows with the institutional arrangements and personal norms necessary for facilitating a psychologically safe environment. The chapter further reviews general practices employed to provide psychological safety and concludes with visitors' perspectives of safety and experiences of psychological safety.

Deconstructing Psychological Safety

The nature of psychological safety is one of the least explored but highly contentious areas in literature (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017). In Hoenderdos' (2013, p. 57) view, psychological safety by nature is "largely an unobservable affective state, consisting of motivational tendencies, relations among team members and affective reactions". This subjectiveness of the concept has given rise to diverse opinions as to what it is, what it entails and what drives it. Primarily, the contention surrounding the nature of psychological safety can be summarized along the lines of: its purported origin, and the acceptance or rejection of structural factors and trust as components in the

construct. To this end, two main schools of thought have emerged in the literature.

One group comprising scholars such as Chen, Gao, Zheng and Ran (2015), De Clercq and Rius (2007), Hirak, Pang, Carmeli, and Schaubroeck (2012) and Yang (2002) propose the tenet of psychological safety as originating from the concept of psychological climate. These scholars, therefore, base their characterization of psychological safety on Maslow's definition of psychological security as "a kind of feeling of confidence, safety and freedom detached from fear and anxiety" (cited in Chen et al., 2015, p. 433) or feeling valued and unafraid to show and employ one's self without fearing negative consequences (Kahn, 1990).

To these scholars, psychological safety is purely centred on the feeling of safety or what Tynan (2005, p. 224) refers to as "self-psychological safety". That is to say, they view the concept as how comfortable or safe an individual feels to take interpersonal risks in relation to his or her surroundings. Thus, they refuse the claim that organizational support is a construct of psychological safety, although they agree that it is somewhat related (Carmeli & Giffell, 2009; Liang, Farh & Farh, 2012). In consequence, scholars from this school oppose the view that structural factors such as the presences of physical safety measures would have any bearing on how psychologically safe a visitor would feel at an attraction site.

The other school of thought, which is more prevalent, argues that psychological safety stemmed from Schein and Bennis' (1965) earlier works on organizational change (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Edmondson, 1999; 2004;

Hoenderdros, 2013; May et al., 2004; Newman et al, 2017; Turner & Harder, 2018; Zaman & Abbasi, 2020). Thus, in contrast, they acknowledge psychological safety as not mutually exclusive from structural factors. This study in particular ascribes to this perspective, arguing that the physical or tangible measures, procedures and protocols put in place has just as much influence on visitors' psychological safety as the intangible measures implemented by the attraction site.

On the matter of trust, individual scholars choose to reject or accept its inclusion as a construct of psychological safety. On the opposing side, scholars like Edmondson (1999; 2004), Carmeli and Giffell (2009) and Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon and Ziv (2010) justify their exclusion of trust as a construct of psychological safety on three (3) grounds.

First, they indicate that trust by nature focuses on the other (giving others the benefit of the doubt) whilst psychological safety focuses on the self (believing that others would give you the benefit of the doubt) (Newman et al., 2017). Secondly, although both trust and psychological safety are related aspects of perceived risks and vulnerability, psychological safety is said to pertain to a narrower and shorter time frame compared to trust which encompasses a wide temporal range and takes time to build (Edmondson, 2004). Thirdly, trust is interpersonal, in the sense that, it is limited to the conviction that two people hold about each other. However, psychological safety is considered as an emergent property of the collective; that is to say, it takes on the connotation of us versus them. Put differently, it asks the question – would they keep us safe at Kakum National Park? rather than, is this employee going

to keep me safe? Thus, psychological safety is about taking the risk that you can trust the group/collective (Edmondson, 2004). Against this backdrop, scholars from this school of thought deem trust to be related to psychological safety, although the two concepts have differing views and serve different purposes. In contrast, scholars like Baer and Frese (2003) and May et al. (2004) do not acknowledge these differences and simply treat trust as a contributing variable to the concept of psychological safety.

Notwithstanding these differences, most scholars regard Edmondson's (1999) construct of team psychological safety as the default measure for psychological safety (Hoenderdos, 2013; O'Donovan, Van Dun & McAuliffe, 2020); although it is not universally accepted as such. In fact, authors like Newman et al. (2017, p. 4) specifically recommend its use stating that, Edmondson's scale:

“was developed based on rigorous scale construction protocols and has been subjected to extensive validation tests, which have invariably shown that the measure has strong content, criterion, and construct validity it has proven to be isomorphic [similar in meaning] at the different levels of analyses..... its use has reported very good internal consistency reliability estimates”.

For these reasons, Edmondson's scale has been extensively adopted or adapted in diverse cultural and professional settings to examine psychological safety, irrespective of its level of analyses (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Madjar & Ortiz-Walters, 2009; Newman et al., 2017).

Table 5: Psychological Safety Constructs

Author (year)	Level of Analysis	Psychological Safety Constructs
Brown & Leigh (1996)	Organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • offering support • providing clear instructions on how to participate in activities • facilitating the freedom of self-expression
Yang, as cited in Chen et al. (2015)	Organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ facilitating a common belief that it is psychological safe ○ allowing members to freely speak their mind ○ encouraging/allowing them to partake in behaviour deemed to be risky ○ nurturing mutual respect and trust
Edmondson (1999)	Work teams	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cultivating the freedom to admit mistakes • cultivating the ability to voice fears/mistakes • fostering individualism (that is, the freedom to be uniquely one's self) • offering support to undertake activities deemed risky • facilitating the behaviour of asking for help • prohibiting the undermining of co-participants' effort • engendering the feeling of being valued and utilized

Table 5 cont.: Psychological Safety Constructs

Author (year)	Level of Analysis	Psychological Safety Constructs
Hoenderdos (2013)	Work team	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ presence of good environment ○ absence of defensive or evasive behaviour ○ willingness to accept responsibility ○ willingness to seek feedback ○ knowledge sharing and favourable work procedures ○ constructive behaviours
Hetzner, Gartmeier, Heid & Gruber (2011)	Individual Employee & Supervisor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● offering the opportunity to address problems and critical issues at anytime ● encouraging members freely and openly admit mistakes made to supervisors
Liang, Farh & Farh (2012)	Individual Employee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ cultivate the ability to freely express true feelings regarding job ○ cultivate the freedom to express thoughts ○ nurture the sense that expression of true feelings is welcome ○ discourage the behaviour of bullying members for having a different opinion ○ accentuating that expressing true thoughts would not result in personal harm
Turner & Harder (2018)	Individual	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● equipping employees with knowledge, skills and other capabilities to perform their job ● ensuring that employees are not afraid of the consequence of their actions, even mistakes

Source: Moore (2022)

For instance, on the individual level of analysis, Tynan (2005) in a study on the effect of threat sensitivity and face giving on dyadic psychological safety adopted this scale to measure the extent to which business students felt psychologically safe with their last boss. The Cronbach alpha (α) for the seven-item scale was measured at 0.93. In a similar vein, Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) adopted all seven-items ($\alpha = .86$) to measure work group psychological safety in a study on leader personality traits and employee voice behavior. Then again, Detert and Burris (2007) adapted three items from the scale ($\alpha = 0.88$) to measure how psychologically safe employees' feel to speak up in relation to types of change-oriented leadership behaviour. Additionally, Bienefeld and Grote (2014) found this scale reliable at $\alpha = 0.78$ in a study on speaking up in ad hoc multiteam systems among aircrews.

On the organizational level, Baer and Frese (2003) adapted all seven items in a study on process innovation in 47 mid-sized German companies and found Edmondson's scale reliable at $\alpha = 0.81$. Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon and Ziv in 2010 also adopted five items in the scale, at $\alpha = 0.74$, to measure the mediating role of employees' psychological safety in inclusive leadership and employee involvement in creative tasks. Likewise, in a study on how psychological safety mediates the relationship between formal mentorship and employees' affective commitment to work, Chen, Liao and Wen (2014) found four items from this scale reliable at $\alpha = 0.90$.

All these notwithstanding, Edmondson's scale is not the only available scale for measuring psychological safety (as evident from Table 5). In a qualitative study on the psychological conditions related to personal

engagement and disengagement at work, Kahn (1990, p. 703) proposed a twenty-two-items-scale for psychological climate, three (3) of which were indicated as constructs for psychological safety, namely; supportive management, clarity and self-expression. Later on, Brown and Leigh (1996) in a study on how employees perceive aspects of the organizational environment and interpret them in relation to their wellbeing tested this scale and deemed supportive management, role clarity and self-expression, reliable at $\alpha = 0.83$, 0.78 and 0.83 respectively. In 2004, May, Gilson and Harter, again, tested this scale and deemed it reliable in measuring psychological safety ($\alpha = 0.71$).

One of the latest constructs for measuring psychological safety was proposed by Hoenderdos (2013). Citing temporal changes as a limitation to the continuous use of Edmondson quantitative scale of measurement, Hoenderdos employed a Delphi study to identify experts' opinion on what constitutes psychological safety among employees and teams. The study identified sixteen (16) observable behaviours that describe a psychologically safe entity. They were centred around six (6) major themes, namely: presence of good environment; absence of defensive or evasive behaviour; willingness to accept responsibility; feedback; knowledge sharing and favourable work procedures; and other constructive behaviours (elaborated in Table 5). Although this conceptualization of psychological safety has thus far only been tested by Hoenderdos, careful scrutiny detects similarities between Hoenderdos' suggested element for psychological safety and those presented by other authors including Edmondson (1999).

Even so, Newman et al. (2017) in a systematic review of psychological safety literature, raised concerns that ‘proxy’ scales are problematic, owing to the fact that they tend to deviate from Edmondson’s precise constitutive definition of psychological safety which successively defeats the purpose of arriving at a consensus understanding of the concept. What these scholars, however, failed to consider was that Edmondson’s ‘constitutive definition’ is neither the first, nor the only proposed definition or empirically tested construction of psychological safety. Simply indicating that adopting Edmondson’s 7-construct scale will lead to a consensual understanding is neglecting to take into consideration the issues that brought forth each proposed construct for psychological safety. Additionally, besides refusing to give room for those who find its use restrictive to manoeuvre, Newman et al. also fail to consider the fact that depending on a researcher’s chosen field of study, there might be the need to depart from Edmondson’s definition in favour of another which better portrays psychological safety as it manifests in that context; just as it pertains in this study.

All the same, despite the presence of intermittent constructions of psychological safety in the literature, none so far has been conceived specifically targeting the tourism sector. Indeed, Kuppleweiser and Finsterwalder’s (2011) attempt at exploring psychological safety from a tourism perspective simply employed the use of Edmondson’s scale, which this study argues was not appropriate, given that Edmondson’s scale does not account for the unique complexities, interdependencies and dynamics that are pertinent to catering for service consumers of discretionary purchases like tourism. Thus,

the need for further investigation into exactly who a psychologically safe visitor is and what a psychologically safe attraction site presents.

Antecedents to Psychological Safety

Although theoretical and anecdotal evidence support the assertion that institutional arrangements and personal norms combine to influence performance of behaviour, there is little empirical literature to this regard; especially within the context of psychological safety. Nonetheless, evidence from prior behaviour change studies (including Kahn, 1990; May, Gilson & Harter, 2004; Newman, Donahue & Eva, 2017) suggest that employee behaviour within organizational settings is generally influenced by organizational norms or institutions like leadership and management styles and personal norms like employee values, attitudes and beliefs.

Institutional Arrangements

Several scholars (including Brown & Leigh, 1996; Kuppelwieser & Finsterwalder, 2011) have proposed that institutional arrangements are key to influencing employee behaviour. Yet, with the exception of Frazier et al. (2017) and Newman, Donohue and Eva (2017) who stated in passing that supportive institutional arrangements positively influence psychological safety which subsequently heightens employees' sense of safety as well as increases their commitment to and performance of tasks, there has been no detailed study indicating how institutions influence psychological safety.

In comparison, the general area of organizational norms is better explored compared to institutions. Chief among explored organizational norms

is the effect of leadership on psychological safety. In the literature, the type/form of leadership behaviour modelled in an organization has extensively been proven to strongly influence psychological safety outcomes. For instance, Edmondson (1996) in a study titled *Learning from mistakes is easier said than done: Group and organizational influences on the detection and correction of human error* found out that nurses who work with authoritarian managers express deep fear about admitting mistakes. Nembhard and Edmondson (2006) later affirmed this finding, indicating that indeed, leaders who are authoritarian, unsupportive and defensive make their team members feel unsafe to speak up within the team. In contrast, those that are democratic, supportive and welcoming create a psychologically safe team.

Then again, Rao-Nicholson, Khan, Akhtar and Merchant (2016) in a study examining the impact of charismatic, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles on organizational ambidexterity and employee psychological safety found both charismatic and transactional leadership styles as having a positive impact on employees' psychological safety, although the former was comparatively more significantly related. However, laissez-faire leadership did not show a significant relationship with psychological safety.

Additionally, Nemanich and Vera (2009) in a quantitative study of employees in seventy-one (71) work teams involved in acquisition integrations found transformational leadership to have bearing on the learning culture (which was characterized as psychological safety, openness to diverse opinions, and participation in decision making) of employees who had been engaged through acquisitions.

Furthermore, Ortega, van den Bossche, Sanchez-Manzanares, Rico and Gil (2014) in a quantitative study of 107 hospitality work teams also concluded that teams with more change-oriented leadership reported a higher degree of psychological safety among team members. The study indeed supported the assertion that team leaders who favour innovative behaviour and adapt to external changes, nurture trusting teams who feel comfortable taking interpersonal risks, knowing that their leader would not treat them unfavourable when there is a mistake.

Ethical leadership (that is, leaders who are agreeable and conscientious rather than neurotic) was also found to positively influence psychological safety. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009, p. 1283) explain that ethical leadership thrives on continuous “solicitation of employees’ observations of wrongdoing and conditions that may facilitate unethical behaviour”. As such, ethical leaders by their behaviour create an environment which reinforces the need to speak up freely, which nurtures psychological safety among their employees or subordinates.

Last but not least, empirical evidence from Liu, Hu, Li, Wang and Lin’s (2014) study found that shared leadership is positively associated with team psychological safety. Put differently, leaders who distribute or share roles, responsibilities, or functions among team members rather than centralizing their authority were found to foster a shared learning pattern among team members, which promotes frequent interactions, and information and knowledge exchange leading to a higher degree of psychological safety within their teams.

There is also a reliable evidence supporting the idea that management styles influence psychological safety. In Roussin (2008, p. 225) and Wong, Tjosvold, and Lu (2010), it was empirically proven that through what Roussin calls the ‘dyadic discovery methods’, management can facilitate and promote high levels of psychological safety. Dyadic discovery method, according to Roussin, is essentially about valuing employees’ participation in management and team exploratory discussion sessions.

Halbesleben and Rathert (2008, p. 136) also provide empirical support that ‘improvement orientation’ (that is, management empowering employees to vigilantly observe the work process in order to spot weaknesses and discrepancies that can be improved) management style also positively influences psychological safety.

Tolerance of diversity is another organizational practice that has been empirically demonstrated to influence psychological safety. In Singh, Winkel and Selvarajah’s (2013) study on psychological safety and racial differences, workplace diversity practices (diversity climate) were confirmed to foster psychological safety among employees. Singh et al. indicate that with supportive diversity climate policies, employees within workplace minority groups developed an identity within the organization which promotes their feeling of psychological safety. Subsequently, it reduced the general insecurity that characterize these groups within the work environment.

Adjei (2020) and Chrobot-Mason and Aramovich (2013) came to similar conclusions when exploring the relationship between employees’ perception of workplace diversity (described as perceived access to equal

opportunities and fair treatment) and its influence on psychological safety. These scholars explain that organizations or groups with positive attitude towards diversity have heightened perceptions of psychological safety among their employees/members. Apparently, diversity practices make those in the minority groups feel empowered to share their unique perspectives and take interpersonal risks at work. On the other hand, organizations with less tolerance for diversity cause minority groups/members to feel psychologically unsafe, resulting in them always feeling threatened/fearful, marginalized, withdrawn, and disengaged from their work.

With the exception of these aforementioned studies, literature on organizational norms that influence psychological safety remain elusive; demonstrating another gap in psychological safety literature that needs exploring. Notwithstanding, the influence of social norms on organizations provide pointers on the assumed role of institutions in providing psychological safety. For instance, Frazier et al. (2017, p. 140) in a meta-analytical review of psychological safety literature concluded that ‘within the supportive work context, peer support demonstrates a significant and strong effect on psychological safety’. To elaborate, May, Gilson and Harter (2004) in a study on psychological conditions and engagement of human spirit at work established that the normative rules of individual team members tend to converge into shared normative values which influence the collective decision to engage or not engage in a particular behaviour due to assumed risks attached to that behaviour. As follows, should the majority of the attraction employees determine that the provision of psychological safety is ineffective as a means of

safeguarding visitors from their perceived risks/fears, overtime, this opinion would solidify and become the norm of the group. As such, attraction employees would not ascribe much responsibility to providing psychological safety for visitors.

However, Soares and Lopes (2014) in an attempt to explain team member interactions and its influence on psychological safety came up with a contrary view. According to these scholars, it is not so much a collective decision of majority of the team members, but rather the decisions of individuals central to the group/team. Put differently, it is the normative values of key members within the work group that would consolidate to form the social norm which determines the level of psychological safety felt within the said group. That is to say, when prominent members of a group feel psychologically unsafe, their feelings act as a contagion and establish the psychological safety norm of the entire team and vice versa. This consequently determines if a particular behaviour would be deemed too risky or not to be engaged in.

In a nutshell, studies on the influence of social norms go to buttress Frazier et al. (2017) and Newman, Donohue and Eva's (2017) assertion that supportive environments play a significant role in positively influencing employees' behaviour of providing psychological safety to visitor. However, empirical evidence is insufficient to draw further conclusions on the nature of its influence.

Personal Norms

Kahn (1990), in a qualitative study on the psychological conditions related to personal engagement and disengagement at work, was among the first to suggest the influence of dispositional (internal) factors on psychological safety. Since then, various scholars have attempted to provide empirical evidence to prove this assertion true. Conclusions thus far point to learning orientations and personality traits as the two (2) main empirically proven factors that greatly impact upon psychological safety on the cognitive level (Kuo, Ye, Chen & Chen, 2019; Xu, Qin, Dust & DiRenzo, 2019).

Learning orientation, which was defined as the desire to gain new skills, improve overall competencies and master new situations, was found to have a positive influence of the psychological safety of university hospital teams (Wilkins & London, 2006). Chiu, Leung, Kong and Lee's (2011) study on 'learning goal orientation and its influence on psychological safety' supports this finding, indicating that employees who hold the view that making mistakes is a prerequisite to their self-development have increased tendency to engage in novel behaviour, thus, depicting high psychological safety.

In relation to personality traits, Wong, Tjosvold and Lu (2010) in their study on leadership values and learning found that leaders' self-reported commitment to values like participation, productivity and people-orientation related positively to team members' psychological safety. Similarly, Gong, Cheung, Wang and Huang (2012), in an attempt to integrate information exchange and psychological safety perspectives into a study on individual creativity, concluded that employees with proactive personalities (that is, those

with natural inclination to promote constructive change) tend to promote psychological safety in teams, compared to those who do not have proactive personalities. They do so via information exchanges with group members, which subsequently builds their trust for interpersonal risk taking.

Kuo, Ye, Chen and Chen (2019) also confirmed Gong et al.'s findings in a study on proactive personality and employee's job satisfaction. The results of their two-wave panel survey showed that when job satisfaction was controlled at Time 1, employees' proactive personality was positively associated with changes in job satisfaction over time. However, at Time 2, findings indicate that proactive personality was less related to changes in job satisfaction when psychological safety was high. This proves that psychological safety positively shaped the relationship between proactive personality and job satisfaction at twelve (12) fitness centres in Taiwan. However, in their conclusion, Kuo et al. indicate that the effect of personality trait may be less powerful on account of contextual cues.

Then again, in examining the joint effect (congruence) of subordinate-supervisor proactive personality on psychological safety, Xu, Qin, Dust and DiRenzo (2019) qualify that, even if subordinates have their own personality-driven tendencies toward active-oriented behaviours such as voice, they would only feel psychologically safe to speak up when the leader or team's behaviour aligns with their own personal proactiveness.

With the exception of these aforementioned studies, there is a dearth in knowledge on the influence of personal norm construct like values and beliefs on the behaviour of providing psychological safety. However, the influence of

personal norms (values and beliefs) on adherence to pro-social behaviour has been extensively explored in general literature. For instance, empirical analyses have led to scholars like Brown, Ham and Hughes (2010), Dolnicar (2010) and Mehmetoglu (2010) asserting that personal norms are among the salient and crucial factors that determine a person's willingness to engage in a socially responsible behaviour. In fact, in a study on the relative importance of social and personal norms in explaining intentions to choose eco-friendly travel options, Doran and Larsen (2016, p. 160) argued that "personal norm is a stronger predictor compared to other psychological variables (like personal values, environmental concern) or sociodemographic characteristics (such as age, education level, political orientation)".

Correspondingly, Ajuhari (2016) on picking up litter behaviour among visitors at Penang National Park; Choi, Jang, and Kandampully (2015) on visitors' intent to stay in green hotels; Huber, Viscus and Bell (2017) on household recycling; Hwang, Kim and Kim (2020) on environmentally friendly drone food delivery services; Lopez-Mosquera and Sánchez (2012) on willingness to pay for park activities; Janmaimool (2017) on solid waste management behaviour in workplaces; and Thøgersen and Ölander (2006) on intentions to purchase organic food have all echoed similar sentiments.

Given the aforementioned, this study finds it safe to conclude that personal norms (founded on self-interest, moral obligations and general safety consciousness, and tempered by awareness of consequences and ascribed responsibility) is a vital element in determining attraction employees' behaviour of providing psychological safety to visitors.

Providing Psychological Safety at Attractions Sites

The practices employed to provide psychological safety is one of the relatively more explored themes in psychological safety scholarship. Even so, the literature tends to be permeated with more professional advice and theoretical suggestions than empirical evidence on practices that have worked in ensuring psychological safety in organizations, teams and among individuals. As regards anecdotal evidence, Brock and Reeves (2014) suggest that psychological safety is built on connectedness, positive behaviour support systems, social emotional learning (which provides instructions on how to manage emotions, resolve conflicts and solve emergent problems) and training in handling emotional health crisis. Samra (2019) additionally contributes that the state of psychological safety can be achieved by valuing clients, fostering positive relationships which would engender trust (thus averting perception of threat), providing emotional support in times of insecurity and encouraging clients to put forward any perceived or actual threat/risk they witness.

Even with the empirical evidence, the literature is rarely specific about how these practices should be implemented. For example, Gressley et al. (2010) assert that providing psychological safety entails: establishing positive social interactions to help overcome emotional distress; preventing detrimental behaviour; and stimulating camaraderie to help solve differences amicably, without specifying how these can be accomplished. Despite these shortfalls on how to provide psychological safety, Newman, Donahue and Eva (2017) in a systematic review of psychological safety literature from 1990 to 2015 suggested that these practices can be summarized into providing supportive

leadership, fostering bonds between stakeholders (visitors) and leveraging supportive organizational practices.

With regards to supportive leadership, May, Gilson and Harter (2004, p.33) in a study on psychological safety within the manager-employee (or superior-subordinate) context indicated that when supervisors promote open communication, treat employees fairly, demonstrate integrity through words and actions, and show genuine concern for their subordinates' needs, it engenders psychological safety.

Leaders' openness was corroborated as consistently related to psychological safety in Detert and Burris' (2007) study on leadership behaviour and voice among managers and employees in a restaurant chain. Then again, Leroy et al. (2012) and Palanski and Vogelgesang (2011) further confirmed that leaders' behavioural integrity positively predicts their followers' sense or feeling of psychological safety.

Madjar and Ortiz-Walters (2009), in a study on hairstylists trust in supervisors and customers and its effect on their creative performance, found out that trust in supervisors increased hairstylists perception of psychological safety. From the study, it was also concluded that psychological safety is impacted more by internal social dynamics of organizations rather than external factors, given that trust in customers had no effect whatsoever on hairstylists' perception of psychological safety.

Table 6: Psychological Safety Practices

Author (Year)	Proposed Practices
Bienefeld & Grote (2014); Hirak et al. (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • encouraging inclusiveness
Carmeli & Zisu (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ generating trust ○ perceived support
Chen, Liao & Wen (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mentoring - vocational support psychosocial support role modelling
Detert & Burris (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ being open
Edmondson (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • coaching
Kuppelwieser & Finsterwalder (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ attentiveness to interaction within customer groups ○ facilitating members' contribution in experience ○ encouraging participating ○ encouraging voicing of positive responses ○ fostering connection between group members ○ promoting an open atmosphere ○ being sensitive to psychological needs
Leroy et al. (2012); Palanski & Vogelgesang, (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • projecting behavioural integrity
Li & Tan (2012); Madjar & Ortiz-Walters (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ projecting trustworthiness
May, Gilson & Harter (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fair treatment • promoting open communication • demonstrating integrity through words and actions • showing genuine concern for subordinates' needs

Source: Moore (2022)

In a longitudinal study conducted at a large Chinese bank, Li and Tan (2012) employed the use of multiple waves of surveys and different data sets to confirm Madjar and Ortiz-Walters' findings that trust in supervisor does indeed facilitate psychological safety among subordinates.

Prior to Li and Tan's confirmation, Carmeli and Zisu (2009) in a study on the relational underpinnings of quality internal auditing indicated that organizational trust as well as perceived support are key facilitators of psychological safety within auditing processes. They affirmed that trusting employees heighten their confidence and encourage them in what they are doing. Also, providing support gives them the sense that their contributions are valued and appreciated. Carmeli and Zisu conclude that, together, organizational trust and perceived support make employees feel more assured that they would be treated fairly in any unfortunate event, which subsequently boosts their psychological safety.

Support is another category of practices suggested to foster psychological safety among employees (Newman et al., 2017). Specifically, in a multimethod field study on psychological safety and learning behaviour in fifty-one (51) work teams in a manufacturing company, Edmondson (1999) found the practice of coaching to have a positive effect on psychological safety.

Also, in Chen, Liao and Wen's (2014) study on psychological safety in mentor-protégé dyads, the practice of mentorship (that is, the offer to engage and train with senior colleagues) was found to increase psychological safety among employees and decrease turnover rates. Mentorship was described as constituting the offer of vocational support (that is, providing guidelines for the

successful implementation, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection and help in completing challenging assignments), psychosocial support (boosting sense of competence, identity and work-role effectiveness through acceptance, affirmation, counselling and friendship) and role modelling (serving as a role model for appropriate attitudes, values and behaviour) to employees. Chen et al. further indicate that psychological safety becomes even stronger when the power distance between the mentor and protégé is reduced. In other words, the closer employees feel to their superiors, the more psychologically safe they become.

With regards to the practice of fostering stakeholder bonds to generate psychological safety, Kuppelwieser and Finsterwalder (2011), from a provider perspective, recommended that psychological safety can be provided by charging employees to: be more attentive to the interaction within customer groups; facilitate members to generally contribute in the experience; encourage participating members in their endeavour and non-participating members to give positive response; foster connection between group members; and promote an open atmosphere.

On the part of management, Kuppelwieser and Finsterwalder indicate that they should pay particular attention in their recruitment of employees, especially those who come into direct contact with clients. Specifically, managements should lean towards recruiting employees who possess sensitivity to group psychological safety needs. Apart from this, management should also regularly train their staffs on how to support an open atmosphere in the group.

From the reviewed empirical evidences, this study concludes that the practice of providing psychological safety to visitors can be summarized from three (3) general standpoints, namely; the position of the service providers (attraction site), client (visitors) and management. From the attraction employee's position, psychological safety can be provided for visitors by engaging in practices such as: (1) providing clear instructions on recreational endeavour before the commencement of any activity; (2) being attentive to the visitors and empathetic to their needs; (3) building a supportive trustworthy relationship with visitors by treating them fairly, establishing integrity through words and actions and showing genuine concern; (4) involving all visitors in the tourism experience by encouraging those actively participating in the activity and giving positive response to non-participating members; (5) building visitors' confidence through their participation in decision-making and problem solving; (6) fostering open communication in order for visitors to voice their fears, opinions and mistakes and also feel free to speak up or ask questions and seek assistance; (7) facilitating an open atmosphere which encourages individualism; and last but not least (8) regardless of whatever fear they might exhibit, service providers must make visitor feel valued and important.

With regards to visitors, attraction employees must compel them to show mutual respect towards each other, especially on the subject of their individual ability and competence. Also, the behaviour of criticizing and undermining co-participants effort must be prohibited. As Newman and Donohue (2017) expressed, even in competitive activities, visitor must be inspired to engage in positive constructive conflicts and confrontations rather than demoralizing

actions. Then again, attraction employees need to incite communication between members to ensure familiarity. O'Donovan (2020), in a study on psychological safety and healthcare teams, found that familiarity between team members does indeed facilitate psychological safety. They find it easier to speak to each other and work together better and longer with limited skirmishes.

On the part of management, Brown and Leigh (1996) and Kuppelwieser and Finsterwalder (2011) suggested that management could contribute to providing psychological safety to visitors by influencing the behaviour of attraction employees, specifically through training, recruitment and facilitating their belief in the need for psychological safety. In other words, their role is to offer appropriate institutional support systems that prioritize the psychological safety needs of their visitors.

In conclusion, the successful implementation of these practices would temporarily undo what Urry and Larsen (2011, p. 202) succinctly refer to as 'the disciplinary gaze of co-participants'. By breaking this awareness of public judgement, the energy that visitors spend in protecting their image, maintaining their consciousness of fear/risks or shielding themselves against the opinion of others (concerning the display of fear) is redirected to other activities (Edmondson, 2018; Edmondson & Nickisch, 2019).

Visitors' Perspective of Safety

According to Tarlow (2014), the issue of tourism safety first began taking root in the psyche of visitors in the 1990s. Prior to this period, safety was more or less a passive consideration for visitors (Beirman, 2018; Kovari &

Zimanyi, 2011; Mawby, 2001). That is to say, visitors often took a lackadaisical attitude towards their safety, fully leaving it in the hands of service providers.

The Luxor massacre in Egypt, however, began changing the situation. In 1997, sixty-two (62) people, mostly consisting of visitors, were killed during their visit to the Hatshepsut temple in Luxor, Egypt. Although this incident globally placed safety and security on the radar of visitors, Egypt's perennial issues with terrorism and unrest however did not make the impact of this incident that far-fetched (Azim, 2009).

As Kakihara (2003, p.1) describes it, "a paradigm shift" occurred in global safety and security following the events of September 11, 2001 (popularly referred to as 9/11). Quoting Ashton B. Carter (cited in Cox 2002, p.1), "on 11th September 2001, the post-Cold War security bubble finally burst". Essentially, this series of terrorist attacks aimed at the United States of America – a country perceived as one of the world's safest destinations (Ricks, Ricks & Dingle, 2015) fundamentally triggered a drastic change in visitors' prioritization of safety during vacations (Asongu, Uduji & Okolo-Obasi, 2019).

Essentially, 9/11 essentially shook visitors' confidence in the safety of travel, and subsequently unleashed a persistent feeling of fear among travellers that has thus far been difficult to restrain (Floyd et al., 2004; Yozcu & Cetin, 2019). It brought to fore the risks inherent in tourism as well as the general psychological distress that visitors face during unfortunate incidents (Amir, Ismail & See, 2015; Boustras, 2020). In the words of Beirman (2018), safety emerged from being a marginal issue in discussions to a core field of research for tourism academics and a vital concern for industry practitioners in the

aftermath of this event. Indeed, “9/11 changed everything” (Tarlow, 2014, p. 17).

However, even though 9/11 was the turning point, it is not the only factor responsible for the current level of visitors’ sensitivity to risks. According to Ermann (2020), the traumatic experiences and persistent threats witnessed over the last two decades (especially those directed at the tourism industry) have contributed substantially to amplifying the fear that was initially triggered by the events of 9/11. Examples of major exogenous incidents within this period include: the 2002 Bali Bombings (Henderson, 2003); the attacks on attractions like Taj Mahal in 2008 (Gunasekar, Patri & Narayanan, 2018) and the Nairobi Mall in 2013 (Amankona, 2016); the Arab Spring uprising of 2011 in Egypt and Tunisia (Avraham, 2015; Wendt, 2019); Gambia and Sierra Leone’s Ebola epidemic of 2013–14 (Kongoley-Mih, 2015); the White Island volcano eruption (Travel Weekly, 2020) and the yet to abate 2020 COVID-19 pandemic.

Additionally, news reports and social media are continuously coloured with accounts of endogenous mishap and misadventures in tourism, especially those resulting from service failure. Examples of such incidents include: the sinking of a Vietnamese boat in the Halong Bay killing eleven (11) visitors and their guide (BBC, 2011), the Askari Park ride incident where the collapse of an amusement park ride killed a minor and injured twenty-five others in Karachi, India (Azam, 2018), the Tham Luang incident where a soccer team was trapped in a Thai cave for seventeen days (Ono, 2018), the Lake Wakatipu skydiving accident where equipment failure led to the death of a visitor (Jamieson, 2019), the Yulong Shuiyn water park pool malfunction which injured 44 visitors in

China (Wray, 2019), the Nha Trang Town food poisoning incident where thirty-seven visitors became extremely ill in Vietnam (Ngoc, 2020), among others.

Collectively, these tragedies have ushered in a new reality with regards to tourism safety. Contemporary visitors have now acquired an altered perception of tourism-related risk and threats. They now comprehend that risks abound in travel and that the probability of falling victim to mishaps such as health hazards, natural disaster, crime, terrorism and international conflicts whilst on vacation is quite considerable (Pennington- Gray & Schroeder, 2018). As such, visitors now raise extensive concerns, fears and worries with regards to their safety at destinations and the likely mishaps they might face while partaking in tourism (Amir, Ismail & See, 2015). According to Mekinc and Cvikl (2013), visitors no longer focus on the question of 'if risk would manifest', but rather 'when', 'what type' and 'how prepared' their service providers are for it.

Consequently, contemporary visitors view safety as an uncompromising element in their demand (Vanneste, Tudorache, Teodoroiu & Steenberghen, 2017) and react even faster to risks than before. They now prefer to be safe rather than sorry. Hence, in their decision-making on where to travel, they carefully weigh the perceived riskiness of destinations against the pleasures they would gain by engaging in tourism (Asongu, Uduji & Okolo-Obasi, 2019; Cater, 2006). Following their contemplation, they would easily forego longstanding vacation plans irrespective of low pricing, interesting attractions and quality service delivery (Obieluem, Anozie & Nwankwo, 2016) based on

whispered rumours of risk rather than take the chance of said rumours being true.

Additionally, just as they are willing to pay premium for destinations that show signs of increased safety (Feickert, Verma & Plaschka, 2006), modern visitors have equally become less forgiving about safety misadventures (Peter, 2017) often resorting to suing service providers over negligence leading to mishaps (Altindig, 2014; Hillard & Baloglu, 2008). In fact, considering the importance that visitors attach to safety nowadays, Lusensky (2006) suggests that safety should be the necessary fifth 'S' in Richter's Sea, Sand, Sun, Sex traditional tenets to tourism marketing.

In a nutshell, the issue of safety among visitors has never been as popular as within the last two decades (Ayob & Masron, 2014; Poku & Boakye, 2019). Today, visitors' views on safety have a swifter, more direct and acute impact on the success or competitiveness of destination and individual tourism businesses (Minar, 2019; Tarlow, 2006). As such, service providers have become increasingly more cautious in their provision of safety for clients. Indeed, safety has not only become a crucial matter of concern for them but as Hall, Timothy and Duval (2004) indicate, providing safety in this global climate of fear has become a fundamental condition for hosting visitors as well as a matter of urgency to service providers.

Experiencing Psychological Safety

The question of who a psychologically safe visitor is can best be explained by pinpointing the attributes of a psychologically safe person.

Literature generally suggests that psychological safety engenders the freedom to openly voice thoughts and mistakes; the feeling of being valued and welcomed; as well as the feeling of being supported. Grant (2021) succinctly summarises them into the 3S of psychological safety, that is, feeling safe, supported and seen.

Feeling Safe

With regards to the feeling of safety, Edmondson (2004) identifies four main interpersonal risks that people generally face in interactions. To name them: the risk of seeming ignorant by seeking help or making a suggestion that goes against the existing status quo or infringes on someone's vested interests; the risk of seeming incompetent for making and admitting a mistake; the risk of being portrayed in a negative light when a suggested idea is unsuccessful or fails; and finally, the risk of giving honest feedback which may result in blame, rejection or it being held against you.

Generally, studies at the team (Edmondson, 1999; Hoenderdos, 2013), individual employee (Hetzner, Gartmeier, Heid & Gruber, 2011; Liang, Farh & Farh, 2012; Turner & Harder, 2018) and organizational (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Yang, 2002) levels of analysis mutually concur with the view that psychological safety basically affords individuals the opportunity to freely express or voice ideas, concerns, and mistakes without facing any of these interpersonal risks. Clark (2020), however, clarifies that the freedom of self-expression in psychological safe does not grant individuals the permission to simply voicing all and every thought, but rather entails speaking up with constructive opinion

which would not result in the negative criticism or belittling of others, their thoughts or efforts.

Hoenderdos (2013) and Edmondson (2004) also add that psychological safety goes beyond self-expression to include the willingness to seek and give honest feedback. Thus, psychologically safe individuals are not defensive or do not resort to evasive behaviour (Hoenderdos, 2013). On the contrary, they feel confident and comfortable being themselves, speaking their thoughts or admitting mistakes (Turner & Harder, 2018). Accordingly, they are willing to engage in constructive confrontations (Newman et al., 2017) and accept responsibility knowing that no matter what, they would be treated fairly (Hoenderdos, 2013).

Feeling Seen

Feeling seen is basically about holding the impression that one's expressed thoughts, feelings and opinions are welcomed (Liang et al., 2012). Thus, psychological safety is not only about having the opportunity to express one's self but also feeling that what is spoken is heard, appreciated and carries impact during decision making (Grant, 2021). Edmondson (1999) simply characterizes this as feeling respected, valued and of use.

Grant (2021) further states that for a person to be seen, he or she must first be heard. Edmondson (1999) denoted this as psychological safety fostering individualism. That is to say, a psychologically safe team encourages its members to be their unique self without undermining their confident or bullying them for not conforming to the status quo (Liang et al., 2012).

Feeling Supported

As a construct of psychological safety, Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon and Ziv (2010) categorized support in three (3) ways, namely; support for individuals' ideas, coaching them to take interpersonal risks and creating a supportive environment. To achieve this, Brown and Leigh (1996) justify that psychological safety requires a flexible, supportive and motivating management/leadership.

In terms of ideas, Yang (2002) indicates that psychologically safe environments generally nurture its members to hold a shared belief in psychological safety and foster mutual respect. As such, members are not simply allowed to speak up but actually facilitated to freely express constructive thoughts (Brown & Leigh, 1996). Hence, the behaviour of undermining co-participants efforts is prohibited (Edmondson, 1999).

In relation to this, an individual supported to feel psychologically safe is one that is: permitted and encouraged to undertake risky activities in a responsible way (Edmondson, 1999; Yang, 2002); offered the opportunity to address problems and critical issues at time (Hetzner et al., 2011); encouraged to engage in decision making (May et al., 2004); encouraged to share knowledge and favourable procedures (Hoenderdos, 2013); provided with clear instructions on how to participate in activities (Brown & Leigh, 1996); and equipped with knowledge, skills and other capabilities to enhance their competency in performing an activity (Turner & Harder, 2018; May et al., 2004).

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed empirical evidence on the construct of psychological safety as well as its antecedents and practices involved in providing psychological safety. A general overlook suggests that psychological safety is still an emergent area of study; hence, there is limited empirical works on its construction, practices and factors that shape it. Most especially, attempts at approaching psychological safety three-dimensionally (that is, client-employee-employer) remain elusive.

Empirical evidence thus far suggests that psychological safety is externally influenced by organizational factors like leadership behaviour, management styles and diversity climates but the influence of institutional arrangements is yet to be explored. Internally, psychological safety is indicated to be influenced by dispositional factors (personal norms) like learning orientation, personal values and proactiveness as well as group dynamics like normative social rules have influences psychological safety.

In terms of psychological safety practices, studies generally point to actions aimed at fair treatment, open communication, fostering connections, engendering trust and showing genuine concern for psychological needs. Specifically, practices such as mentoring, coaching, forging friendships and reducing the power distance between stakeholders have been suggested. Furthermore, available studies suggest that the experience of psychological safety is centred around three basic features, namely; feeling safe, heard and supported.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methods used in carrying out the study. It begins with a general description of the study area, then continues with an explanation of the research philosophy and research design. It further delves into the sources of data, target population, sampling procedures, research instruments, pre-test criteria, methods for data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes with a summary of challenges encountered during the fieldwork and ethical considerations for the study.

Study Area

The chosen site for the study is Kakum National Park (KNP) in the Central Region of Ghana. According to Adu-Ampong (2017), Central Region is the tourism hub of Ghana, and Kakum National Park is one of its flagship attractions (Poku, 2017). The Kakum National Park (KNP) is a 375 square kilometers tropical rainforest reserve that can be found at latitude 5.3501° N and longitude 1.3819° W. It is 15km from Cape Coast (capital of the Central Region of Ghana) near a small village called Abrafo Odumasi (UNESCO, 2013).

According to Amuquandoh (2017), the park was established in 1932 as a state-owned forest reserve and gazetted as a national park in 1992 under the Wildlife Reserves Regulation (LI 1525). It was officially opened as a visitor centre on Earth Day in 1997 and received the Global Tourism for Tomorrow

Award in the year 1998. Currently, the facility is run by the Wildlife Division of the Forestry Commission in conjunction with the Ghana Heritage Conservation Trust - GHCT (an NGO). It has become one of the most-visited attraction sites in Ghana and ‘attracts the chunk of visitors who enter the Central Region for the first time’ (Poku, 2017, p. 51).

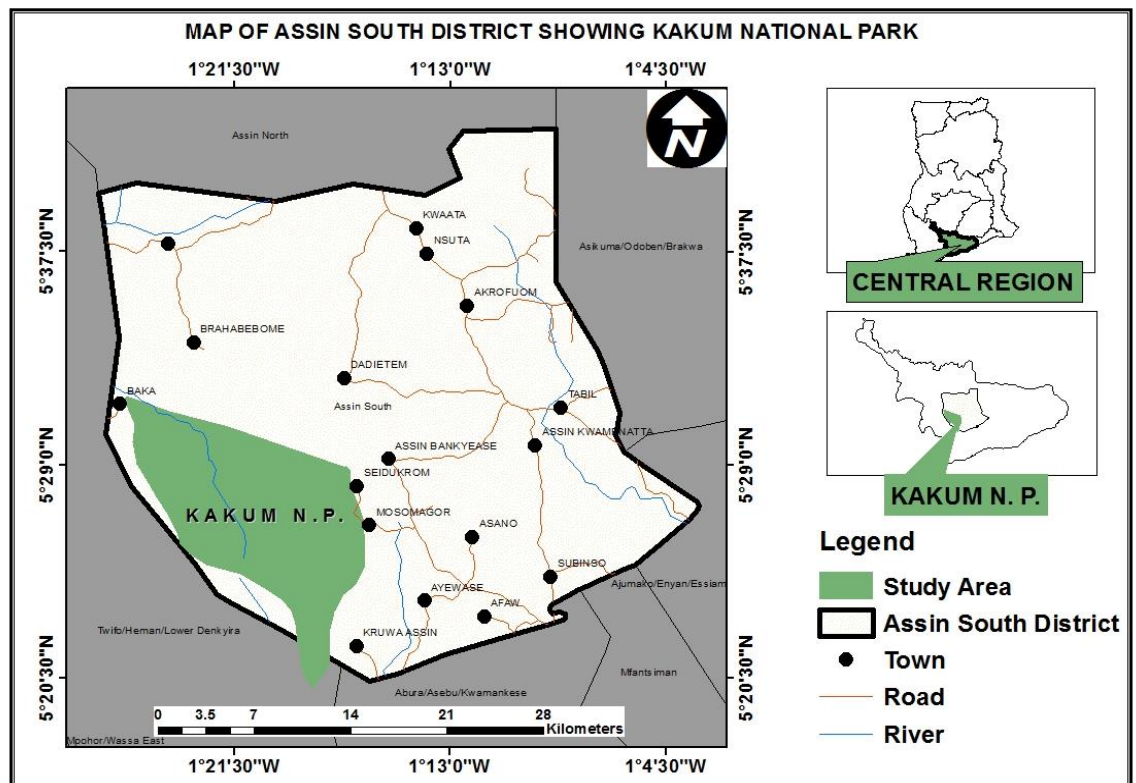


Figure 5: Map of Study Area

Source: Poku (2017)

KNP's attractiveness as a tourism site stems primarily from its famed canopy walkway. This attraction comprises a series of seven bridges (totalling an estimated 350 meters) hanging over a valley of an approximate height of 40 meters above ground level which provides a panoramic view of the tropical rainforest and its diverse flora and fauna. This activity alone generates about 70

percent of the park's total revenue (Poku, 2017). Additionally, KNP has a remarkable rainforest and rich biodiversity which provides opportunities for bird watching, treehouse night camping, and nature walks (GHCT, 2015).

Kakum National Park was specifically selected as the study area for two (2) reasons. First, authors like Milligan and Bingley (2007), Poku (2017) and Van den Berg and Ter Heijne (2005) point out that forested national parks with their dense and ominous nature often reinforces visitors' perceptions of danger and risks. Additionally, the fact that the Bunso canopy walkway collapsed in 2015 further lends support to the idea that the walkway might not be safe. The aforementioned suggests that the park's forested setting and the activities it offers may present a number of risk factors, raising questions about visitors' safety. Secondly, KNP is under institutionalized management and has adequate visitor arrivals to support this study.

Research Philosophy

This study adopts interpretivism as its philosophical underpinning. The central tenet of interpretivism rests on the assumption that the 'world' can only be fully understood through subjective interpretation of and intervention in reality. To this end, it aims at exploring the meaning, explanation and understanding that people ascribe to social issues or problems, arguing that truth and knowledge is socially constructed based on how individuals perceive and experience the world (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Ontologically, interpretivism rests on the assertion that people's perception of reality is shaped by their belief, values, reasons, understanding

and experience of the world. Thus, reality to interpretivists is relative (Alharahseh & Pius, 2020). Epistemologically, interpretivism deems knowledge to be subjective in nature, stating that there is no single version of reality/truth but rather multiple and varied perspectives of what is considered real (Ryan, 2018). As such, the interpretivist methodology relies heavily on inductive logic.

Interpretivism further argues against the objective stance that research can be value-free (Flick, 2014), maintaining that researchers cannot be unbiased or independent from their research subjects because people cannot be separated from their knowledge. In other words, research is axiologically value bound (Sunders, Lewis, Thornhill & Bristow, 2015). In a nutshell, this philosophy holds that the world, truth and knowledge as relative, subjective and value-bound (Howell, 2013; Ryan, 2018).

This study particularly employs the interpretivist philosophy for three (3) reasons. First and foremost, relatively little research has been conducted on the provision of psychological safety in the context of tourism. As a result, this study aims at collecting rich and in-depth data on the subjective meanings, perceptions and experiences that attraction employees and visitors have of the concept in general.

Secondly, the study acknowledges that risk perceptions, fear and/or psychological safety are generally subjective and relative to individuals, and as such, it is inappropriate to generalize findings on these concepts especially in contexts where research is at its infancy. Consequently, this study employs an interpretivist lens to capture the diverse meanings and understandings that

participants associate with these concepts in relation to their lived experiences at Kakum National Park.

Finally, while the use of interpretivism in the study of psychological safety is not as prevalent as other paradigms, Ilinitich, Schwartz, and Sabey (2020), Naveh and Katz-Navon (2020) and Pellegrini, Kudlak, and Bednall (2021) have nonetheless found it appropriate for studying the subjective experiences of individuals in organizations as well as the social and cultural factors that influence their perceptions of psychological safety. Additionally, studies such as Lashley and Lynch (2020), Styliadis and Biran (2020) and Wang, Huang, and Li (2021) have found interpretivism to be well-suited for tourism-related research on lived experiences.

Research Design

The case study research design is utilized in this study. A case study, according to Yin (2003, p.2), is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context." Its application entails a detailed, in-depth, and intensive investigation of a phenomenon within a bounded context (Schoch, 2020).

This study specifically employs the embedded single-case study approach which entails studying multiple parts of a single case using only one case (DePoy & Gitlin, 2016). In this context, the study regards Kakum National Park as the case, which is embedded with different parts/units of analysis (that is, management, employees and visitors).

The case study research design was chosen for this study because, while psychological safety has been studied to some extent within the organizational context, research into the phenomenon in the field of tourism is not as distinct. According to Yin (2018), case studies are best suited in such situations, where the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are unclear. Schoch (2020) proposes using evidence from multiple data sources to mitigate this challenge.

Furthermore, psychological safety manifests differently in the consumer context than it does in organizations. Unlike organizational psychological safety, which is built on relatively stable actors and relationships, psychological safety between tour guides and visitors is highly subjective. This is because their relationship is transient, with visitors constantly changing. As such, broad generalizations are best avoided in this context. The use of the case study research design helps in focusing the study and its findings to a specific time and space, allowing for greater control over the phenomenon and making the results far more useful. The study's confinement to Kakum National Park also allows for a more in-depth investigation into the inner-workings of psychological safety as a phenomenon within the consumer context of tourism, which is novel.

Source of Data

The study relied on primary data sources. Specifically, data was solicited on the provision of psychological safety from attraction employees (comprising

management and tour guides) and visitors at Kakum National Park using In-depth Interviews (IDIs).

Target Population

The study covered three (3) target populations, namely; the management, tour guides (more accurately site guides) and visitors of KNP. From the management category, the park manager, facility manager and visitor relations officer were specifically targeted to provide input on the institutional arrangement available onsite to support or hinder the provision of psychological safety to visitors. These participants were chosen because their position within top management makes them more conversant with KNP's overall safety measures.

Tour guides were targeted to provide data on psychological safety practices and the factors that influence its provision. Specially, the study targeted tour guides due to their role as policy implementers and providers of psychological safety at KNP. Moreover, they are the frontline employees who frequently come into direct contact with visitors as they patronize the site and its activities.

Visitors, for the purpose of this study, refer to all patrons of Kakum National Park (be it, foreigners or Ghanaians, tourists or excursionists) in so far as they visited KNP within the period of November-December, 2021, stayed onsite for at least three (3) hours, and are aged eighteen (18) and above. On one hand, patrons below the age of 18 are excluded from the study because they often confuse their general fears and nervousness with perceived safety, which

undermines the study's aim of exploring visitors' experiences of psychological safety as it pertains specifically to Kakum National Park (Yang, Sharif & Khoo-Lattimore, 2015). On the other hand, excursionists (people on same day return trips) are included in this study because they form a larger proportion of Ghana's domestic tourism market. Also, according to Boakye (2012) and Yang, Sharif and Khoo-Lattimore (2015), domestic patrons of attractions usually provide unique perspectives on the issue of safety and security that often enrich studies.

Sample Size

No sample size was assigned a priori for any of the units of analysis. The study was rather aimed at saturation. Data saturation in research methodology refers to the point at which no new information or theme is observed in the data (Saunders et al., 2018). Based on this, a total of fifty-six (56) participants were selected to participate in this study; comprising three (3) managers, ten (10) employees and forty-three (43) visitors.

Sampling Techniques

On the part of management, the managers were purposively sampled. Specifically, the park manager was selected because the position grants access to all information regarding KNP and its operation. The job of the facility manager is to ensure the safety and security of the park and its attractions, thus, the reason for selecting this manager. The visitor relations officer was particularly selected because this individual was identified as the head of the tour guides division, and the person responsible for resolving issues that arise out of the visitor-employee relationship.

Table 7: Sampling Procedure for the Study

Unit of Analysis	Participant No.	Survey Method
Managers	3	Purposive Sampling
Tour guides	10	Census
Visitors	43	Convenience Sampling

Source: Fieldwork (2021)

With regards to employees, tour guides who resumed work after the COVID-19 shutdown were selected for the study. This implies that a census was conducted.

Convenience sampling technique was employed to select visitors for this study. The researcher acknowledged the bias inherent in this technique and made a conscious effort not to select more than three (3) visitors from any tour group. Data saturation for visitors was attained at forty-three (43) participants.

Research Instruments

The instrument of choice for this study was the semi-structured In-Depth Interview (IDI) guide. Semi-structured IDIs were specifically chosen for this study because it is best suited for finding previously unknown qualitative trends and issues (Rahman, 2019) in already existing fields of study.

This study utilized three (3) semi-structured IDI guides to collect qualitative data from the managers, employees and visitors of KNP. With the aim of exploring visitors' experiences of psychological safety, Guide I was divided into five sections, namely: expectation of psychological safety (section A); experiencing psychological safety (section B) which was characterized as feeling safe, feeling seen and feeling supported; perceived efficacy of

psychological safety practices provided by employees (section C), factors that shape the effectiveness of psychological safety practices (section D) and socio-demographic characteristics (section E).

Guide II aimed at exploring employees' provision of psychological safety and factors that influence their behaviour. The instrument was divided into four sections, namely: employees' understanding of psychological safety (section A); psychological safety practices (section B); factors influencing employees' provision of psychological safety (section C); and socio-demographic characteristics (section D).

Guide III was specifically designed for managers of Kakum National Park. It sought to explore the formal and informal institutional arrangements put in place to influence employees' provision of psychological safety. The instrument is divided into four sections; namely; strategic vision of providing psychological safety (Section A), principles guiding the provision of psychological safety (Section B), structure and operational strategy for providing psychological safety (Section C) and the socio-demographic characteristics of managers (Section D).

Training of Field Assistants

Four (4) field assistants, selected from the first year Masters of Philosophy (MPhil) in Tourism Management class of the University of Cape Coast, were recruited for data collection. In a two-day training session, the field assistants were trained on the specifics of the instruments and methods of data collection. Apart from this, the training also tackled interviewing skills, research

ethics and translating the content of the interview guide into Fante and Twi. Together with the principal researcher, the field assistants paired up and conducted mock interviews, followed by discussions on the likely challenges that might arise during to the main fieldwork.

Pre-Testing and Fieldwork

According to Ghana Statistical Service (2014), pre-testing of research instruments and accompanying instructions is a crucial component to every interview. This is because pre-testing ensures the reliability and validity of instruments prior to the actual field work.

Pre-testing was particularly important in this study because psychological safety was being investigated within a consumer context which is novel. As such, the researcher was unsure whether existing constructs of psychological safety would suffice. Therefore, using Grant's (2021) 3S model of psychological safety as an overarching framework, existing measures for psychology safety (Table 5) were compiled into questions for the pre-testing. The pretesting of instruments took place at the Cape Coast Castle from 23rd – 28th of July, 2021. Participants for the exercise comprised one (1) manager, two (2) tour guides and three (3) visitors.

The pre-test exercise was beneficial in a number of ways. First, it assisted in narrowing down the list of questions in the instrument to those that were pertinent to the study. Second, it was useful in determining how long participants were willing to participate in an interview. This prompted additional fine-tuning of the instrument in order to reduce participant fatigue.

Third, through pre-testing, the researcher was able to gauge participants' responses and reactions to specific questions. This aided in the development of more appropriate ways of posing complex and/or technical questions to participants. Additionally, it allowed the research team to become more acquainted with the instruments and the challenges they would face on the field. As a result, the research team was able to improve upon its interview techniques and become better prepared for the fieldwork.

In a nutshell, pre-testing helped in identifying and subsequently amending ambiguous and complex questions and instructions. The instruments were reworked in response to feedback from the pretesting. The actual fieldwork commenced from 10th November to 18th December, 2021.

Entry Protocol

Prior to the actual fieldwork, a reconnaissance survey was conducted in August, 2021 to observe the general operation of Kakum National Park. With an introductory letter issued by the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management (UCC), the researcher approached the Park Manager of Kakum National Park. Management was briefed on the rationale and likely questions to be posed for the study. On 31st August 2021, the management of KNP formally granted permission to the researcher and trained field assistants to collect data onsite.

Data Collection Procedure

In carrying out the data collection, only participants who met the inclusion criteria, were willing and formally gave their consent were included

in the in-depth interviews. Although the park manager requested personnel to participate in the study, upon meeting each management member (manager) or employee (tour guide), the researcher once again explained the purpose of the study and made participants aware of the ethical issues governing the interview with particular emphasis on voluntary participation. Hence, interviews only commenced after participants verbally indicated that they understood their rights and gave consent to partake in the study.

To be specific, management interviews took place on three separate days. Before each interview, an appointment was made for a convenient time when the manager in question was available. The interviews, which lasted between one and one-half hours, took place at the restaurant (located close to the Abrafo entrance gate). The interviews began only after it was confirmed that each manager understood the ethical implications of the study and was willing to participate.

Tour guides were approached at the visitor information/reception centre when they were resting in-between tours. Upon gaining their consent to partake in the study, they were interviewed at the restaurant area. Each interview lasted between thirty-five (35) to sixty (60) minutes.

Data collection for visitors occurred only after their tour. Visitors who appeared over the age of 18 were approached at either the coconut shed (located halfway to the canopy walkway) or at the restaurant area. Interviews only commenced after confirming their age and obtaining their consent to participate in the study. Each interview lasted approximately twenty (20) minutes.

The data collection team was positioned at the restaurant area and coconut shed because visitors were found to congregate at these locations after patronizing the park's various activities or right before they decided to leave the park. Visitors were also approached after they had completed their tour so that they could provide detailed feedback on the extent of psychological safety provided onsite.

A voice recorder (when permitted) was used to record the interviews. When participant objected to being recorded, the researcher transcribed the interview. A recorder was deemed best because it captured detailed information without error, unlike hand-written notes. To achieve an even representation of all participants and control for multiple response, data was collected everyday (weekdays and weekends) over the fieldwork period.

Reliability and Validity Considerations

Six (6) methods were used to ensure the study's reliability and validity. First, the study employed triangulation of data sources to confirm and corroborate findings. In detail, the study relied on data from three units of analysis, namely; management, employees and visitors to investigate the provision of psychological safety at KNP. This aided in the cross-verification of findings as well as the identification of areas of inconsistencies that prompted further inquiries for clarification.

Also, member and credibility checking were used to verify the data provided. Specifically, data from KNP management and employees were subjected to member checking. That is to say, data collected from participants

were presented to them in a brief summary, allowing them to confirm if the researcher's interpretation accurately reflected their intended meaning. There also was credibility checking on the part of visitors. At the conclusion of each interview, data gathered was summarized and presented back to the participants so that they could confirm if it corresponded with their intended meaning. The use of member and credibility checking helped in confirming that the interpretations were consistent with participants' perspectives and experiences of psychological safety at KNP.

Third, expert/peer review was employed. In this case, the research methodology, findings, and interpretations were shared with supervisors and peers. This served at two (2) purposes. First, it helped in identifying potential biases and inconsistencies in the research. Second, it was to seek feedback on the entire research process.

Furthermore, the data collection was conducted with the aim of attaining data saturation. To ensure that the provision of psychological safety at KNP was thoroughly investigated, data collection was aimed at saturation. This increased the robustness of the findings. Also, the researcher employed comprehensive methodological reporting. The entire methodological process was detailed in order to allow for peer evaluation and subsequently enhance credibility.

Finally, pattern matching was employed during the data analysis stage. Themes within the data set were continuously compared, and when necessary redefined, to ensure the trustworthiness and dependability of interpretations given for each.

Table 8: Validity and Reliability Strategies for the Study

Issue	Qualitative Alternative	Strategy	Phase of Research
Validity	Credibility	Triangulation of data sources	Data collection
		Member checking & Credibility checking	
		Data Saturation	
	Confirmability	Expert/ Peer review	Research instrument design
			Data analysis
			Draft case study report
Reliability	Trustworthiness	Pattern matching	Entire research process
		Replicability	Data analysis
		Transferability	Data analysis, Entire research process

Source: Moore (2022)

Field Challenges

In the course of the data collection, the researcher encountered several challenges. To begin with, because participants were unfamiliar with the term ‘psychological safety’, the terms had to be described to them, which introduced the issue of demand characteristics. That is to say, the participants were given subtle cues as to what the researcher desired in response to questions, this consequently increased the level of bias inherent in the study. Recognizing this

challenge, the researcher attempted to mitigate it by first asking participants their opinion of the term before providing a vague non-directional description of psychological safety 'as all the intangible things that employees did for or provided visitors with which made them feel safe onsite'.

Explaining psychological safety to the participant(s) further introduced the issue of social desirability, in which participants (particularly tour guides) tried to conceal their true views in favour of the tailored responses they believed were generally desired. To reduce this bias, the researcher tried as best as possible to read participants' non-verbal cues on the issues. To be specific, the researcher interpreted sporadic frowns, raised eyebrows, crossed arms/legs, leaning forward/backwards, shaking of legs, lack of eye contact and raised voice as avoidance and subsequently made effort to follow-up questions with prompts for clarification.

Despite being informed that whatever was being said would be treated with the utmost confidentiality and that the researcher had the support of management to collect the data, some participants (particularly tour guides) felt uncomfortable providing specific details on safety issues or complaints. This generally resulted in the loss of some pertinent details. To mitigate this challenge, participants were asked to provide an overview of the issue without providing specifics.

Furthermore, some participants refused to be recorded, which forced the researcher to resort to note taking. Such interviews were frequently overly long, which resulted in some complaint from the participants. In such cases, the

researcher apologized for the extra time, explaining that it was required to capture all salient points on the issue.

Also, some external tour guides were unwilling to grant access to members of their tour group despite clear evidence that the data collection team consisted of university students collecting data for academic purposes. This issue, combined with the strict itinerary of institutional tourists, made collecting data from the few international visitors who were available following the COVID-19 border closure difficult.

Given the evidence pointing to forest guards as minor implementors of psychological safety at KNP, it could be argued that the study should have included them as participants. However, meeting KNP employees proved a bit challenging, due to the fact that they were resuming work in stages following the park's closure due to COVID-19. Even after their re-opening, employees were working on a weekly and in some cases daily shift systems. This, in addition to time constraint, precluded the inclusion of forest guards in the study.

Finally, given the interpretative nature of this study, the researchers' personal views and bias may unconsciously affect the interpretation of the findings. Awareness of this in itself has helped the researcher in analyzing the meanings ascribed to the results. Also, having other academics look at the data and codes have proved helpful in addressing this challenge.

Data Analysis

In analysing the qualitative data, Clarke and Braun's (2018) reflexive thematic analysis technique was used. In a cyclical six-phase process, this technique helped to make sense of the data and tell a rich and compelling story of what the data means (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Specifically, the researcher began the analysis by manually transcribing the in-depth interviews verbatim, then reading and re-reading to become familiarised with the data. Following this, the data was cleaned and reduced to broad codes that provided answers to the initial research questions. The coding was done both deductively (based on underlying themes in the theoretical and conceptual frameworks) and inductively (based on newly emerging themes from the transcript). In phase three, codes were combined to generate initial themes. These overarching themes were then reviewed and refined to ensure they were patterned well to tell an accurate story about how psychological safety was being provided at KNP. Following this, the themes were defined and named. Lastly, findings were presented and discussed using a narrative approach. In other words, the study drew from both participants' direct quotations and narrative reports.

According to Whittemore, Chase and Mandle (2001), the use of computer software (data analysis tools) in qualitative data analysis helps to ensure validity. In view of this, the study employed the use of MAXQDA (2020) in undertaking the analysis. Specifically, MAXQDA (2020) was used to confirm the judgements drawn by the researcher during the manual transcription stage. By so doing, the researcher was able to limit personal bias and

correspondingly ensure that the study's findings and interpretations represented the actual experiences of participants.

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Participants

On the part of management, participants within this category were all males, aged between thirty-five (35) and forty-eight (48) years. As regards education, all had received tertiary schooling and possessed at least an undergraduate degree. Participants had worked at KNP for between four (4) to ten (10) years; however, in their current capacity as park manager, facility manager and visitor relations officer all had been at post for less than four (4) years. All participants declared that they guided visitors on KNP tours at least twice every month, either in the capacity of tour guide or tour supervisor (that is, as a supervising member of a tour group).

The ten (10) tour guides selected for the study comprised an equal number of males and females. The participants were between the ages of twenty-three (23) to sixty-one (61) years. Majority of them, specifically five (5), held A' level certificates; one (1) held an O' Level certificate, and the remaining four (4) had attained senior high school education. In terms of employment, participants had worked as KNP tour guides for between three (3) to twenty-seven (27) years. All admitted to working five times a week and leading between 1-3 tours constituting a total of one to two hundred (1-200) visitors a day.

Of the forty-three (43) visitors interviewed for the study, twenty-eight (28) of them were males. The participants were generally aged between eighteen

(18) to fifty-seven (57), although a larger portion of them (28) fell within the twenty (20) to twenty-nine (29) age range. Also, thirty (30) of the participants had attained tertiary education. More of the participants were first-timers (28), visiting in groups (38) constituted of family, friends, work colleagues, church members and fellow students, all with the primary purpose of patronizing the canopy walkway for recreational purposes. Although most (39) of the visitors were Ghanaian, a few were natives of the United States of America (USA), Holland, Switzerland and Nigeria.

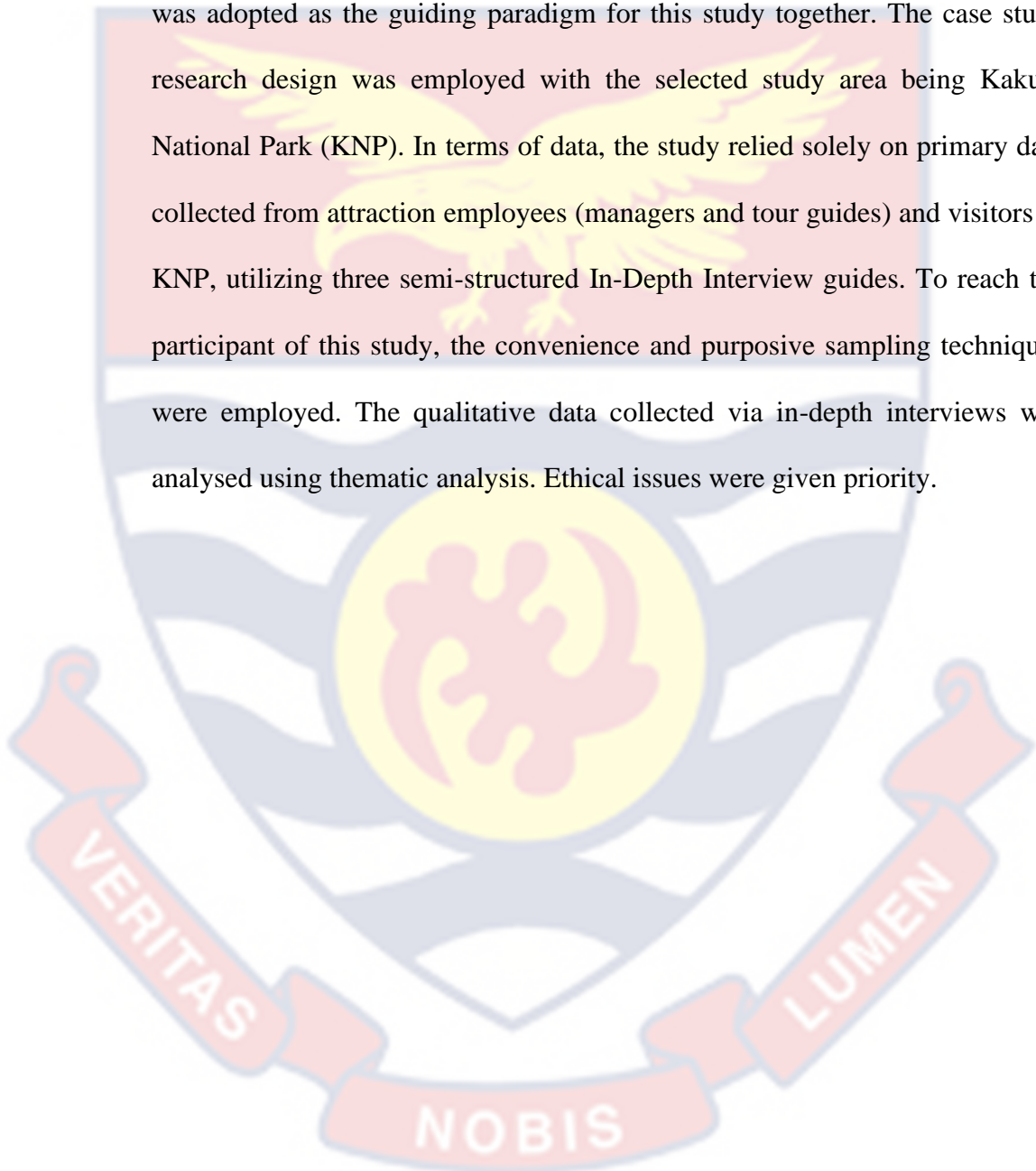
Ethical Issues

To maintain the integrity of the study, ethical issues were given considerable attention, especially, during the data collection. First and foremost, informed consents were sought from all participants of the study. The first page of all instruments had a section seeking permission from the study's subject before proceeding with the survey. Also, it was made clear to all concerned parties that partaking in data collection is voluntary rather than compulsory.

Furthermore, participants were given the freedom to withdraw from the interview any time they deemed it necessary. Moreover, all collected data was secured and not made available to the public, thus, guarantying confidentiality. Lastly, the privacy and anonymity of all participants was respected and assured.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provides a general outline of the methods and procedures involved in conducting this study. The social constructivism approach to interpretivism was adopted as the guiding paradigm for this study together. The case study research design was employed with the selected study area being Kakum National Park (KNP). In terms of data, the study relied solely on primary data collected from attraction employees (managers and tour guides) and visitors of KNP, utilizing three semi-structured In-Depth Interview guides. To reach the participant of this study, the convenience and purposive sampling techniques were employed. The qualitative data collected via in-depth interviews was analysed using thematic analysis. Ethical issues were given priority.



CHAPTER FIVE

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY AT KAKUM NATIONAL PARK

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussion on institutional arrangements for psychological safety at the Kakum National Park. Institutional Arrangements (IAs) play a critical role in determining behaviour. It is the ultimate factor that transforms the latent intentions of employees into actual behaviour, consequently determining if a particular behaviour would thrive or not within an organization. Thus, IAs create the environment in which behaviour occurs.

Generally, institutional arrangements cover details such as desired outcomes/policy, coordinating mechanism, working rules and permissible actions, hierarchy of actors, and roles and responsibilities (Ayana, Vandabeele & Arts, 2017; Hassenforder & Barone, 2018; Synder, 2017; United Nations, 2013). Consistent with the literature, this the study found four (4) broad categories of IAs at Kakum National Park. These include management's strategy vision, principles, organizational structure, and operational strategy for providing psychological safety.

Management's Strategic Vision for Providing Psychological Safety at KNP

Under this theme, three (3) issues emerged, namely; state of KNP's policy for providing psychological safety, management's description of safety, and the reasons behind KNP's consideration of the psychological dimension of safety. To begin with, the study found that KNP has no specific policy for providing psychological safety. As narrated by one participant:

"We have nothing specific on psychological safety.... [but] it is one of the things we consider as part of safety [in general]. These things happen together.... It is one of our key issues of concern when we talk about the safety of this place and our visitors."

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

The above narrative suggests psychological safety as part of KNP's general provision of safety; thus, management were asked to describe what constituted providing safety at KNP. Generally, safety from management's perspective was portrayed as ensuring people's well-being or welfare via preventive actions. To be specific, management indicated that providing safety at KNP entailed two (2) things. First, making sure that people (visitors and employees) onsite do not get hurt or put themselves in danger; a view that corresponds with Love (2017) and Lukas' (2016) description of safety from the physical dimension. Below is a quote to buttress this claim:

"Safety has to do with avoiding putting yourself in danger. Making sure that in whatever you do, your health or wellbeing

isn't compromised [be it] in terms of injury, or death ..., it has to do with measures that we [management] put in place so that people [visitors and employees] don't put themselves in compromising situations ... which would affect what they are doing or came here for" [KPM2, Manager, 1-year experience]

Secondly, management claims that providing safety entails making sure that visitors do not become so afraid that they are unable to participate in offered activities; a view that is consistent with Turner and Harder's (2018) description of safety from the psychological dimension. In the words of one participant:

"It is about ensuring the wellbeing of our people, I mean, our visitors and employees. Making sure that the things and activities in the park do not cause harm or fear; ... that our visitors don't become afraid, so much that, they become unable to get the fun they travelled all the way to achieve"

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

Management's stance that safety at KNP is seen from both the physical and psychological dimensions supports earlier assertions by scholars like Beirman (2018), Cooper, Volo, Gartner and Scott (2018), Korstanje (2019) and Pizam and Mansfeld (2006) that safety in tourism transcends the physical. Indeed, participants' views imply that safety at KNP is about ensuring that the 'tour experience' is not compromised in anyway as evident by how management safeguards not only its clients (visitors) but also its employees.

Particularly, management's attention to the psychological dimension may account for the inconsistencies found in previous studies (including Poku & Boakye, 2019, 2020) where KNP visitors largely felt safe onsite despite evidence of inadequate safety provisions. Furthermore, this finding calls into question earlier conceptualizations of attraction site safety and security proposed by authors like Imbeah and Bujdoso (2018) and Poku and Boakye (2020) which suggest attraction site safety and security as purely centred on physical safety features.

To probe further, participants were queried on the reasons behind KNP consideration of the psychological dimension into their general strategic vision for safety. In this regard, three (3) reasons emerged. First, as shown in the ensuing quote, management seems to recognize that visitors patronize KNP expecting a certain level of thrill:

“People come here [to KNP] because they want to relax and have fun. It is because they want excitement.... being terrified doesn't give them excitement so we have to help them manage it”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

Secondly, despite their expectations, most visitors supposedly also perceive KNP and its activities to be risky. As one participant explained:

“Because of what they have heard or seen; people already have heightened fears before they get here. Due to social media, it is even worse than before” [KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

Thirdly, participants maintain that due to this illusive dichotomy between visitors' expectation and perception of KNP, management recognizes the need to maintain a careful balance between providing an acceptable level of thrill (that is, enough fear to make activities interesting) and triggering extreme fear within visitors (that is, fear that would make visitors too terrified to try). In the words of participants:

"... because visitors expect fun but are afraid, we have to make more conscious effort into taking away this stigma [that KNP is risky and its activities scary] before the whole tour process begins" [KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

"... fear has to do with the psyche, so if visitors are terrified how can they participate.[so] we step in and try to conscientize people that – hey its safe we do these things to let people feel good, knowing that they would be ok in whatever they are going to do, even though: they have seen videos and pictures, people have told them that Kakum is scary ... It is our job to manage these things so that visitors can enjoy."

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

The above-mentioned reasons tie in with Cater (2004) and Mura's (2010) assertion that the main role of adventure site operators is to maximize thrill whilst finding ways to minimize the risk (actual and/perceived) and fears attached to offered activities. Specifically, findings here give the impression that

KNP's attention to psychological safety stems from the adventurous and risky nature of its activities.

Principles for Psychological Safety

On this theme, the study sought to identify the rules and regulations governing employees' provision of psychological safety to visitors at KNP, how these rules are made known to employees and the ways through which management monitors for adherence. The study found out that there are no formalized rules for providing psychological safety at KNP. In the words of KPM3 (Manager, 2 years experience), "*we don't have a strict written down policy*". Nonetheless, institutional rules governing permissible actions do not only manifest as formal written down rules but can also exist as informal norms or unwritten codes of conduct (United Nations Development Programme, 2009). Evidently, KNP's principles for psychological safety fall firmly in the latter category.

In fact, KNP's principles for psychological safety were indicated to be sourced from what Eaton, Meijerink and Bijman (2008) refer to as 'historical happenings or actual experiences overtime' as discerned from the quote by KPM3 (Manager, 2 years experience) which states: "*most of the things we call policies are based on our experiences and feedback from visitors*".

Despite the lack of strict or formal rules governing the provision of psychological safety, participants indicated that they are still guided on how to do so by informal and unwritten principles. In fact, management's views proffered eight (8) principles that govern how psychological safety is provided

at KNP. They comprise guidance, orientation, volunteering, awareness, reassurance, exemplification, monitoring and support.

Guidance (Assignment of guides)

To begin with, management indicated that all KNP tours must be conducted by a park assigned tour guide (site guide), irrespective of visitors' preference or even if the tour group came with its own experienced tour guide. On this, participants stated:

“Every tour even if it is one person is always guided... no visitor is allowed to go anywhere in the forest on his or her own”.

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

“There is always a guide with a group. Also, depending on the type of activity a visitor engages in, we might also assign a guard.”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

This principle is consistent with findings in literature, which has shown that guidance – whether provided through leadership (Newman, Donahue & Eva, 2017), supervision (Wen & Chen, 2011), mentorship (Chen, Liao & Wen, 2014) or coaching (Edmondson, 1999) – promotes psychological safety. The emphasis, however, is not so much on the presence of a person to guide as it is on the trait possessed or style employed by that person to provide guidance. Thus, assigning a guide to each tour groups does not necessarily guarantee the group's psychological safety.

Orientation (Orientation prior to participation)

Orientation, particularly prior to participation, was also deemed a compulsory practice for all tours. Management indicated that upon being handed a tour group, KNP tour guides are required to welcome the visitors and provide a brief introduction to the park, its dos and don'ts, and a brief description about the activity visitors have decided to engage in. Sentiments to this effect are as follows:

“When visitors are handed over to tour guides, they [tour guides] are expected to tell them [visitors] something about: themselves, what they are going to do [activity to be engaged in], the nature of the environment, and what they [visitors] can do or not do here [at KNP] When you do all of these things it psyches the visitors, letting them know that it is safe”

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

“One of the things tour guides are to tell visitors, before they get on the canopy walkway is ‘make sure that you don’t scare your friends’, tour guides are also to let them [visitors] know that the more they jump and swing on the walkway, the more they are putting themselves and other people in danger”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

The literature seems silent on the role of orientation or induction in promoting psychological safety. Brown and Leigh (1996) and Volevakha et al. (2021), however, claim that knowing what to do in relation to a task can help a person

feel psychologically safe. Additionally, studies like Edmondson and Lei (2014), Frazier et al. (2017), Jiang, Hu, Wang and Jiang (2019), and Newman et al. (2017) have acknowledged the importance of information or knowledge sharing in promoting psychological safety. Based on this, it can be assumed that KNP's principle of providing orientation prior to participation may prove beneficial in fostering psychological safety.

Volunteering (Voluntary participation)

Management stressed that under no circumstance should visitors be forced to participate in any activity onsite. To be exact, tour guides are not to personally coerce or allow others to coerce visitors into participation, regardless of the fact that the visitor(s) in question might have already paid for the activity.

As explained some participants:

“Here, we don't force visitors to participate if they don't want to. Sometimes we [management members] tell them [visitors] to go and try, then, if they are able to partake in the activity they can come and pay after. There is no pressure on them at all. In doing this, most of the time we get them to participate more”

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

“... [on the forest hike] tour guides are not to force visitors. They [tour guides] just have to talk to the person [visitor]; convincing them to try. If the person is still adamant then the guide just has to bring the person back. This is because safety is key”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

Literature makes no mention of voluntary participation promoting psychological safety. However, psychological safety rests on the fundamental notion of feeling 'free enough to be oneself' (Kahn, 1999; Clarke, 2020) or 'unpressured to pursue activities' (Turner & Harder, 2018). Thus, the very idea of coerced participation seems to defeat the purpose of psychological safety. Yet, to describe volunteering as a promoter of psychological safety also seems inaccurate. Rather, it somewhat resembles what Herzberg (1959) refers to as a hygiene factor. That is to say, while its absence may be detrimental to psychological safety, its presence may not necessarily be beneficial in promoting psychological safety.

Awareness (Group awareness)

Management asserted that on tours, guides are expected to observe their tour group members in order to know what they require so that it can be provided accordingly. The observations of tour guides are expected to cover three main things: the level of fear exhibited, the visitors' appearance (in order to ensure they are adequately prepared) and the type and level of service required. As narrated:

"We [management] keep telling our tour guides that they own the group they are going with ... it falls on them to know what would make their particular group of visitors safe and happy"

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

"... between the 20-50 visitors given to a tour guide, they need to know their group and the individuals within the group. Tour

guides need to know who is in the group, what they are in, and as much as possible the level of fear of each individual... tour guides don't have to assume anything about any visitor they have to observe to know" [KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

The claim made by KNP's management that group awareness can promote psychological safety is novel because it is not mentioned in the literature. Nonetheless, KNP seems to have made awareness a principle in order to tailor psychological safety provision to visitors' fears and risk perceptions, both of which are inherently subjective. Although this principle is a step in the right direction, as it currently stands, it seems to be more of a basic requirement than a principle for promoting psychological safety.

Reassurance (Safety reassurance)

Additionally, employees are expected to continuously reassure visitors that the site is indeed safe. This principle suggests that provision of information transcend the orientation process, it is something that is expected to continue through the tour to its very end. Sentiments reflecting this opinion are captured in the quotes:

"Anytime they [tour guides] see a visitor afraid of something, they have to take time to explain why they [visitors] shouldn't be afraid... in the forest, visitors are usually afraid of wild animals such as snakes and ants ... [to address this concern] tour guides are expected to tell them [visitors] that, the probability that they

[the tour group] would encounter them [such animals] is low, so there is nothing to fear” [KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

“On the walkway, tour guides must talk to visitors or brief them about the experience. For instance, when they [visitors] step on the walkway bridge and hear a metal noise, most visitors panic. A very good and experienced tour guide will explain that, the noise is actually good or positive because there needs to be space between the boards and the ladder.... If there is no space, it means the wood is taut and likely to break.”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

The above narratives suggest that KNP's management places particular emphasis on providing reassurance due to the progressive nature of its activities. Unlike in literature where the perceived risks and fears of study subjects are constant and well-known, the tours offered at KNP tend to be fluid. In the sense that as the tour progresses, visitors are likely to encounter new things which may cause them to perceive more or fewer risks and increase or decrease their fears. This fluidity to tour compels managements to emphasize continuous reassurance. Regardless, Edmondson (1999), Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012) and Yang (2002) all concur that reassurance fosters psychological safety.

Exemplification (Leading by example)

Management also indicated that tour guides are expected to lead the tour by walking in front of their assigned group and participating first in all activities. They are also expected to do this in a confident and professional manner. The

purpose of this being that it helps assure visitors that the site and its activities are as safe as advertised. As recounted:

“If tour guides exhibit fear during the tour, visitors pick up on it and also become afraid. So, tour guides are expected to project a sense of confidence and professionalism ...before visitors step on the very first bridge, their assigned tour guide must get onto it the first. The tour guide should always be leading – leadership by example; it’s a policy and it’s done”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

“ ... [for instance, when I guide a tour to the canopy walkway], I start by walking on it first, I leaned on the nets for them [visitors] to feel that it is safe enough. I also move slowly at a very good pace, stand in the middle of it [the first bridge] then brief them. [It is] after this that I started calling them to try. Every tour guide is expected to do something similar.

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

Although the literature does not explicitly state that exemplification is predictive of psychological safety, Cater (2004) reports that it is a practice that most adventure tourism operators use to demonstrate a lack of risk. Furthermore, literature on leadership styles that characterize the trait of leading by example (such as servant and transformational) has been found to increase psychological safety (McKinney, 2020; Shih & Koch, 2020). On this basis, this study postulates that the principle of exemplification may prove useful in

enhancing psychological safety, particularly in situations and activities fraught with perceived risk and fear.

Monitoring (Monitoring safety rules)

Management expects every staff of KNP to exert their influence and authority to ensure that all visitors adhere to instituted principles, especially those regarding safety at the park. As narrated by participants:

“...on public holidays we get high visitation so there are always young people who want to misbehave especially on the last bridge. Knowing that they have almost completed the entire walkway and are about to exit, some visitors try to scare others. Our people [that is, tour guides or any of the support staff] are there to tell them to stop. They are expected to use words like: please come off; get off; don't scare others; and they have to show that they mean it ... it calms those who are scared”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

“During our peak days, everyone wants to get on the canopy. Sometimes some people-especially the young guys-think they can bulldoze their way through and in the process other visitors might become afraid but we expect our staff to use their authority to control them. It makes the visitors feel that the place is safe”.

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

The claim that monitoring promotes psychological safety contradicts the extant literature (Budianto et al., 2020; Lei, 2021). According to Edmondson (1999;

2004) and Carmeli et al. (2010), trust, rather than monitoring, promotes psychological safety. This contradictory finding may be explained by contextual differences between prior studies in literature and KNP. For starters, trust and monitoring have thus far been observed solely from a supervisor-subordinate perspective, which is not the case at KNP (employee-consumer perspective). Furthermore, unlike KNP where tour groups are transient in nature, observed groups in literature have typically been in place for a long time allowing for the gradual growth of trust over time. In other words, the finding merits further investigation.

Support

Last but not least, management expects its employees to help and support visitors when they are in need. On this, participants stated that:

“...we tell them to provide all necessary assistance to the visitors if it has to do with safety”

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

“... that is why they are here; tour guides are here to provide assistance when the need arises. Some visitors are unable to complete the canopy walkway alone, so tour guides have to help them... in whatever way they [employees] think would help, they must do everything to help visitors allay their fears”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

The fact that support enhances psychological safety is a well-documented finding in the literature. In fact, according to scholars, including Brown and

Leigh (1996), Edmondson (1999), Hoenderdos (2013) and Zaman and Abbasi (2020), providing support is one of the pillars of psychological safety.

The generalized nature of the aforementioned rules governing the provision of psychological safety at KNP makes them seem abstract. Hence, they appear more like principles rather than guidelines. Nonetheless, its presence buttresses the point that KNP's institutional culture supports the provision of psychological safety. Particularly, it demonstrates that employees have working rules and procedures on which they can draw on to convert each tour group into Rudolph, Raemer and Simon's (2014) proposed 'safe container' for visitor participation.

Means of Communicating Psychological Safety Principles

The study identified three (3) means through which psychological safety principles are communicated to employees at KNP. These are training seminar and workshops, monthly meetings and one-on-one interactions between management and staff; each of them is discussed in turn.

First, participants identified training seminars and workshops as avenues for communicating psychological safety principles. As narrated:

“These are things that come up during competency-based training programs.... for example, we just came out of a training seminar last week and health and safety was part of it; it was more like a refresher thing for them... apart from the ones we do in-house, we also bring in experts like Ghana Health Service,

*Red Cross, Ghana Police and Ghana Heritage Conservation
Trust personnel to do others”*

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

The second means of communication identified was through monthly meetings.

As stated:

*“We communicate them [principles] regularly through
meetings.”* [KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

*“We talk about these things through our monthly meetings with
tour guides.”* [KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

Participants also stated that the principles of psychological safety are communicated via one-on-one interactions between management and staff.

*“It also comes up in our personal engagements with tour
guides... if the situation is critical we don’t wait for the monthly
meeting, we address it immediately with the concerned staff”*

[KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

In relation to the above findings, the use of words like ‘regularly’ and ‘monthly’ in the preceding narratives give the impression that although communication of these principles might not be scheduled, at least they tend to be frequent. Juxtaposing this against Poku and Boakye’s (2019) earlier findings where physical safety and security training were found to be carried out ‘once in a while’ (p. 25), one of two suppositions emerge: first, either KNP has increased employee training on safety and security issues; or secondly, training

on psychological safety issues tend to be comparatively more regular compared to that of physical safety and security.

Furthermore, the existence of channels for communicating psychological safety indicates that to some extent, management sensitize employees on providing psychological safety onsite. However, prior claims by employees that it is outside their job description seem to suggest that sensitization measures have been ineffective.

Monitoring the Implementation of Psychological Principles

On the question of how management monitors for adherence to these psychological safety principles, three ways of monitoring emerged. They are through observation, third-party evaluation and taking feedback from visitors.

To begin with, participants indicated that management members personally observe employees to determine if they are adhering or neglecting psychological safety principles. In the words of one participant:

“Mostly, we [management] monitor by following tours to observe what employees are doing... sometimes I go on tours and observe for myself... just this morning I was on a tour, not as a tour guide but to assess the quality of the services that tour guides were offering at the canopy walkway.... The VROs [visitor relations officers] also do a similar thing... we do these things once in a while” [KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

The second identified way through which management monitors for employee's adherence to psychological safety principles was through the feedback of visitors, as recounted:

“We also rely on feedback from visitors.... some visitors come with their video cameras and gather evidence in the form of voice recordings and pictures of tour guides who are not doing the right things” [KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

Thirdly, management monitors for adherence through third-party evaluations. To be exact, participants indicated that management relies on reports made by regulatory bodies as well as mystery shoppers, as evident from the quote:

“We also have institutions that evaluates things within the industry example Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA), insurance companies and fire service. They come in on their own or sometimes we ask them to come and evaluate our performance like mystery shoppers. They dress like regular visitors and come around to observe and give us feedback not only on our tour guides and visitors but also on our facility – how safe it is... we have them often but not too often”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

Based on the use of words like ‘once in a while’ and ‘often but not too often’, it can be opined that monitoring for adherence to psychological safety principles is irregular and sporadic at best. From this, it appears that management relies on employees’ normative inclinations to influence their adherence to psychological safety principles (Scott, 2010).

Organizational Structure for Providing Psychological Safety

This theme presents findings on the hierarchy of actors and their accompanying roles and responsibility in the provision of psychological safety.

The study found four (4) categories of actors involved in ensuring that visitors feel psychologically safe at KNP, namely; the facilitating, implementing, internal support and external support teams.

Facilitating Team

According to management, the facilitating team comprises KNP managers, with support from a few mid-level supervisors. In relation to their role in the provision of psychological safety, participants stated that:

“When tour guides encounter problems with visitors that they can’t solve, management steps in to mitigate or resolve such issues.... the use of our management authority in such situations help allay the fears of the visitors and make them feel that the place is safe.” [KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

“A tour guide’s main weapon is communication, so, [when faced with a problem] that is the only thing the guide can do – communicate. Once communication fails, the guide has to call for reinforcement from management. When management assesses the situation and there is need to call in reinforcement, we do that quickly” [KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

It can be deduced from the aforesaid that the role of the facilitating team in the provision of psychological safety revolves around coordination and

control. Succinctly put, they are there to ensure that those directly involved in providing psychological safety are able to complete their role smoothly.

Implementation Team

This team is made up of frontline staff such as tour guides and forest guards (otherwise referred to as field staff). In describing the role of tour guides in the provision of psychological safety, participants recounted that:

“[we keep telling them], tour guides have to own the group they are going with. They are expected to be responsible for visitors’ safety, education and any entertainment they [visitors] would have all through the tour. Tour guides are emotionally, psychologically, and physically responsible for visitors throughout the tour. So, it is on you [the tour guide] to make sure that everyone goes in happy and comes out happy.”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

The narrative gives the impression that the onus of ensuring that visitors feel psychologically safe onsite falls on tour guides. Put differently, tour guides are the main implementers of psychological safety. Their job, as indicated, primarily entails making sure that visitors feel safe whilst engaged in any activity onsite. Thus, as suggested by Gressley et al. (2010), Lazarus (1991), and Rogers (1983), they are directly in charge of shaping the cognitive appraisal process of visitors, such that their subjective experience turns out positive or otherwise.

Pertaining to the role of forest guides in the implementation of psychological safety, participants indicated that with the exception of canopy-walkway-related-activities, forest guards are a mandatory inclusion in all other activities on offer at KNP, namely; treehouse activities, forest hike/nature walk, and camping. Thus, their role as outlined are as follows:

“... depending on the type of activity a visitor might want to engage in, a forest guard might be provided as well... We get visitors who want to participate in survival activities such as go into the forest to camp for a week, with such activities, they require guards who are experienced and well-armed to provide help... usually, two or three guards may go with them to the camp site... if nothing else, their presence alone would make visitors feel safe in the forest”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

“...we [management] resource our forest guards well, so that they protect our guides, guards? and visitor(s) from dangerous wild animals and even from hunters... we try as much as possible to prevent hunters from coming close to the visitor use zone; so that visitors would feel safe and secure”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

In this light, the role of forest guards in the provision of safety is to ensure that the risks presented by the forest do not actually manifest to pose a threat to the visitor experience. In the provision of psychological safety,

participants allege that their presence assure visitors that there is a barrier between the stimuli that present risks and fear to them. To some extent, the role of forest guards is as direct as tour guides in the provision of psychological safety. However, given that the canopy walkway is KNP's main attraction, tour guides therefore take precedence over forest guides in the provision of psychological safety.

Internal Support Team

As discussed in turn, the park security team and maintenance team constitute KNP's internal support team for providing psychological safety. To begin with, the team of security guards at KNP are internally referred to as the law enforcement team. However, for the purpose of this study, they are being called the Park Security team. Their job in the provision of psychological safety is as recounted:

“The law enforcement team patrols within this area [the visitor reception centre] to make sure that the fear from criminals are also allayed... even when you are entering the park, they are there at the security post at the gate ...when visitors see them in their uniform, acting in their military way, they feel that this place [KNP] is safe” [KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

The opinion above seems to suggest that the presence of the security team at KNP gives an assurance of protection which contributes to visitors' psychological safety. Put differently, their apparent existence gives visitors the impression that KNP management takes security seriously, leading to the

conclusion that the site is safe; although that might not be the case in reality (Beriman, 2018; Poku, 2017).

In parallel, the main job of KNP's maintenance team appears to entail ensuring that the canopy walkway is always physically safe for use. In addition to this, participants imply that their presence provides visual evidence assuring visitors that the maintenance of the canopy walkway is taken seriously and is as regular as advertised. As expressed:

“If you go to the canopy walkway right now, you would see the maintenance team there. Early in the morning, you would see them busily putting together a few things up there... they are also meant to be there to provide assistance on the canopy walkway”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

The preceding comment suggests that the role of the maintenance team in the provision of psychological safety is at best marginal in nature. Simply put, the other actors (with the exception of the external support team) simply draw on their presence to highlight the safety of the canopy walkway.

External Support Team

In addition to the park security team, participants also indicated that during peak periods, assistance is usually sought from the Ghana Police Service (GPS) to promote the feeling of safety among visitors. In this vein, one participant stated that:

“... on such days [during peak periods], we sometimes invite the police on the premise for visibility issues, at least, to allay the fears of the visitors; show them that the place is safe”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 year experience]

Apart from this, participants mentioned that personnel from GPS were also called in to handle situations of extreme rowdiness or misbehaviour among visitors. Participants imply that their presence and actions in such a situation tends to boost visitors' psychological safety. This sentiment was captured in the example that ensues:

“We once had two international visitors who camped at the treehouse, stayed overnight, and in the morning, enjoyed breakfast and patronized the walkway. When it came time to pay, they refused to make payment on the grounds that they did not enjoy the service... after confirming from other attraction sites that it was a scam they had pulled several times, we insisted they pay for at least half of everything consumed. However, they refused and even started a scuffle with a security guard ...this frightened the visitors who were around ... so, we called in the Police at Jukwa to arrest the misbehaving visitors. Following this, the visitors expressed that they were relieved that they did not have to join that troublesome visitor on a tour”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

In light on the above findings, two (2) impressions about KNP's organizational structure for providing psychological safety emerged. First, although participants pinpointed six (6) individual actors as being involved in the provision of psychological safety at KNP, based on identified similarities in roles and responsibilities, these actors can be categorized into four basic groups, namely; facilitators, implementers, internal support and external support.

In detail, management act as facilitators. That is to say, their involvement is to ensure that the implementers find it easier to provide psychological safety to visitors. Therefore, their main job is to streamline the psychological safety process by removing as much obstacles as possible.

Tour guides and forest guards are the identified implementers of psychological safety because they are the ones directly involved in ensuring visitors psychological safety at KNP. Their roles are, however, not evenly split. Tour guides bear comparatively more responsibilities in the provision of psychological safety since they come into more direct contact with visitors compared to forest guides. It is for this reason that tour guides are the acknowledged frontliners in visitor-related issues at KNP.

The role of the KNP's security team and maintenance team in the provision of psychological safety boiled down to internal support. In the sense that they do not directly provide psychological safety; rather, their presence gives a sense of protection to visitors, which boosts psychological safety. The Ghana Police Service plays a similar role; however, since they are not directly employed by KNP, they can be regarded as an external support team. A

graphical representation of the relationship between these aforementioned actors is presented below (see Figure 6).

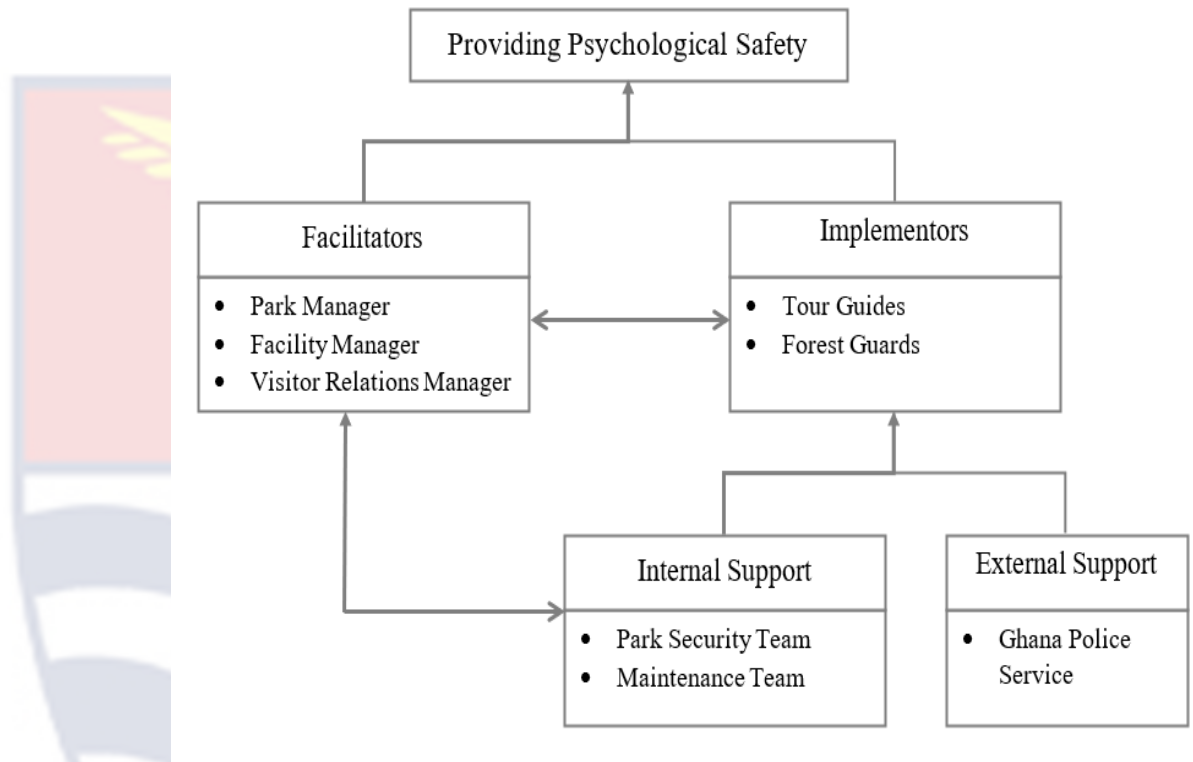


Figure 6: Organizational Structure for Psychological Safety

Source: Moore (2022)

Again, the study identified that KNP adopts a flat organizational structure for providing psychological safety. As evident from Figure 6, although there are clear lines of communication among actors, the gap (levels of middle management) between managers and low-level employees (like tour guides or security team) is short. Furthermore, in line with Rishipal's (2014) description of a flat organization, roles and responsibilities of actors as regard the provision of psychological safety are generalized and often overlapping unlike in a hierarchical organization where roles and responsibilities are specific.

Operational Strategy for Providing Psychological Safety

This theme addresses KNP's operational approach for integrating the actors involved in providing visitors' psychological safety. Specifically, it seeks to answer three questions: first, to what extent are actors involved in the decision-making process regarding the provision of psychological safety? secondly, what degree of autonomy do employees enjoy in the execution of psychological safety? and thirdly, to what extent are actors integrated in the provision of psychological safety?

In relation to the first question, feedback from participants suggest that actors play an active role in decision-making regarding how psychological safety is provided to tourists at KNP. To be specific, participants imply that employees join management in coming up with best ways to solve challenges via exploratory discussion sessions, a method which mimics what Roussin (2008) calls the 'dyadic discovery method' to management. This presumption is made evident by the ensuing quote:

"During our monthly meetings, we [management and employees] sit together to share our experiences and come up with best ways to proceed when we encounter similar challenges or situations in future" [KPM1, Manager, 4 years experience]

With regards to the degree of autonomy that management allows employees in the execution of psychological safety, participants were of the view that:

“Our tour guides have the power to decide how to implement these things [psychological safety principles] and also on how to deal with troublesome visitors. It is only when they need help that they call for reinforcement from us [management]”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

“.... when visitors come in a group, usually we get some of them trying to scare those who are afraid, tour guides have the power to step in and even tell someone to get off the walkway if the bullying is going too far or even when the visitor is too afraid but still wants to try”

[KPM2, Manager, 1 years experience]

The use of words like ‘power to decide’ and ‘power to step in’ give the impression that management grants employees considerable autonomy over the provision of psychological safety. Such a situation would presumably give employees the leeway to use their own means to interpret and implement the instituted principles for psychological safety.

On the question of how integrated the aforementioned actors are in the provision of psychological safety, participants sentiments reveal that the roles and responsibilities of the aforementioned actors are not as mutually exclusive as indicated in Figure 6. Rather, early in the morning or during peak periods, management, forest guards, park security team, and the maintenance team become more directly involved in the provision of psychological safety. In relation to this, participants stated that:

“Sometimes, we [managers] become more hands-on in providing psychological safety.... for instance, just last Sunday, I was here early and some visitors also came in early but the tour guides were not yet available so I had to take them on a tour myself... yes, I assumed the full role of a tour guide”

[KPM3, Manager, 2 years experience]

“During peak periods-like the 1st of July/Republic Day holiday, before it was cancelled-we could easily record over 5,000 people a day. In such situations, we bring in the security team for crowd control duties.... together with the forest guards and maintenance team, they join tour guides on the canopy walkway’s platform to help visitors on and off the various bridges whilst they stop unruly people [visitors] from misbehaving”

[KPM2, Manager, 2 years experience]

Based on assertions that the security team, forest guards, maintenance team join tour guides to directly provide psychological safety to visitors during peak periods, and also, the claim that management members fill in when tour guides are not available, the study infers that the provision of psychological safety at KNP takes on an ‘all-hands-on-deck’ approach which is indicative of a collaborative effort. In a nutshell, evidence of employee participation in decision-making, high degree of autonomy grant employees and collaborative implementation, points to the fact that KNP uses the participatory operational strategy in its provision of psychological safety.

The new institutional theory played a useful role in describing the nature of KNP's institutional arrangement for psychological safety. Through this lens, KNP's institutional arrangement (IAs) for providing psychological safety can be said to be at its formative stage. That is to say, they presently exist as rationalized myth that are yet to be codified into formal guidelines. However, the presence of principles, monitoring measures and means of communication governing psychological safety is indicative of the fact that institutionalism might be at its onset in KNP.

The absence of rationalization agents (such as national regulations or expert opinions) touting the importance of psychological safety as a dimension of safety indicates that whatever institutionalism is currently taking place at KNP is not as a result of regulatory pressure. Also, management did not specify that their idea to incorporate psychological safety into their safety provisions was as a result of what other attraction sites were doing; thus, they are not being influenced by mimetic pressures.

However, management's reasons for providing psychological safety (particularly, acknowledgment that it is their role to balance thrill and perceived risks/fears) seems to adhere to a logical construct of appropriateness which suggests the influence of normative pressures. This implies that whatever institutionalism is taking place is as a result of normative pressures to do what is right for their visitor. Thus, at a latter date, if KNP is to codify these principles into formal rules, it would be presumably as a result of normative pressure rather than existing regulatory or mimetic pressures.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the institutional arrangements for psychological safety at KNP. Ensuing findings were reported under four (4) broad themes: management's strategy vision; principles; organizational structure; and operational strategy for providing psychological safety. First, the study found that KNP incorporates both the physical and psychological dimensions in the general provision of safety.

Secondly, eight (8) principles for psychological safety were discovered. However, they manifested as unwritten codes of conduct, sourced from historical happenings or actual experiences of KNP employees and visitors. Allegedly, psychological safety principles were communicated via training seminars and workshops, monthly meetings and one-on-one interaction with management. Monitoring for compliance was done intermittently through observation, third-party evaluations and taking feedback from visitors.

The organizational structure for providing psychological safety was found to be flat, consisting of four (4) categories of actors, namely; facilitators (management), implementors (tour guides and forest guards), internal (park security team and maintenance team) and external (Ghana Police Service) support teams.

Lastly, the study discovered that KNP adopts a participatory operational strategy characterized by employee participation in decision-making, high degree of autonomy granted employees and collaboration between actors. The institutional theory played a useful role in arriving at the conclusion that KNPs

institutional arrangements are at its formative stage and largely as a result of normative pressure to do what is right for KNP visitors.



CHAPTER SIX

EMPLOYEES PERSPECTIVES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

Introduction

The preceding chapter presented findings on institutional arrangements (IA) related to the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park (KNP), due to its established role in determining behaviour. However, according to Giddens' (1984) structuration theory, structures (or IAs) are not the sole determinant of behaviour performance, because its actors also play an equal role.

This chapter, thus, seeks to ascertain employees' perspectives on the provision of psychological safety at KNP. Using the Value-Belief-Norm (VBN) theory as a lens, this chapter is organized under three broad themes, which are presented in turn as: employees' understanding of psychological safety, their beliefs about psychological safety and motivation to provide psychological safety to KNP visitors. Responses to these questions are then discussed in light of the literature and conceptual framework.

Employees' Beliefs about Psychological Safety

According to Stern et al. (1999), peoples' belief towards a behaviour is formed in a linear process where their worldviews transform to determine their awareness of consequences, which subsequently results in a certain level of responsibility ascribed towards the said behaviour. Against this background, this theme presents findings on employees' belief about psychological safety

under three (3) sub-themes, which are discussed in turn as follows: employees' worldviews, awareness of consequences and ascribed responsibilities.

Employees' Worldviews on Psychological Safety

Under this sub-theme, the study sought to ascertain employees' understanding of psychological safety. In this regard, three questions were raised on: participants' familiarity with psychological safety, their description of safety, and whether they consider managing visitors' fears to be part of providing safety. To begin, participants were asked if they had heard of the term 'psychological safety'. All responses to this question were negative, with popular sentiments being:

"I have not heard about it [psychological safety] before"

[TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

"I haven't heard about the specific term ... [but] I think it has to do with what visitors are thinking and feeling, right?"

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

The above findings that KNP employees are unfamiliar with the term 'psychological safety' is not surprising. After all, literature on the subject is widely regarded as emerging, contextual, and highly contentious (Edmondson, 2019; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017).

This notwithstanding, earlier views from management suggest that the provision of psychological safety and physical safety are intertwined at KNP. Thus, participants were asked to share their views on what it means to provide safety at KNP. In this regard, participants stated that:

“Safety is about making sure that there will be no casualties or injuries; that visitors don't come into any danger.”

[TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

“Safety is about protecting yourself or visitors from accidents which can cause injury.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

“Safety looks at visitors' welfare. It is how safe you can make visitors so that nobody sneaks in to attacked or rob them for their money and things.”

[TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

The aforementioned narratives demonstrate that KNP employees are unaware of the psychological dimension in their general provision of safety. This finding supports Beirman's (2018) and Schneier's (2008) claims that psychological safety is a neglected dimension of safety in both scholarship and practice.

Furthermore, participants were asked if they consider managing visitors' fears and perceived risks as part of ensuring visitors' well-being. According to the findings, KNP employees identify psychological safety as part of their everyday interactions with visitors, even though they are unaware that what they are doing is considered psychological safety. Findings to this effect are made evident in the ensuing quotes:

“Yes, as a tour guide, it is part of my job to convince visitors that contrary to what they have heard, the site is not that scary; that what they have heard is not the reality... we make sure that in their [visitors] coming and going they feel safe and comfortable.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

“For me, how to encourage visitors to feel that they are safe, that they won’t fall when they climb the walkway is a really important part of safety. As a tour guide, if you can’t ease visitors’ fears then you are incompetent; you are here because of them, so, you have to make them feel safe.”

[TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

Two conclusions can be drawn from findings on KNP employee’s understanding of psychological safety: first, employees lack an abstract conceptualization of the term ‘psychological safety’. Secondly, although KNP employees do not have a conceptual or theoretical understanding of what psychological safety is, they still provide psychological safety unconsciously. Simply put, KNP employees are acting without conscious knowledge. If left unchecked, this could have implications on how employees adhere to and/or implement psychological safety principles.

Values Shaping Employees’ Worldview on Psychological Safety

Under this theme, participants were asked about what motivates KNP employees to willingly provide psychological safety to visitors. According to the VBN theory, conviction to perform a behaviour is typically motivated by three (3) inherent values, namely; ego, altruism and biospheric needs. As a result, the study discusses participants’ responses to the abovementioned question through the lens of these three sub-themes.

Ego as motivator

In relation to this, three (3) reasons emerged as to why KNP employees provide psychological safety to visitors, namely; job security, self-accomplishment and rewards. In relation to job security, participants indicated that providing psychological safety is a means of securing their jobs. As recounted:

“I do it to protect myself and my job.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

“I am securing my job ... I am selling my company [that is KNP], and the best way to do this is to get visitors to participate so that upon returning to wherever they came from, they would have good things to say [positive reviews] to friends about KNP... visitors who are afraid usually decide not to participate in activities.”

[TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

Second, participants reported feeling a sense of accomplishment or gratification from providing psychological safety. That is to say, providing psychological safety to visitors makes some KNP employees feel happy knowing that they have positively impacted the tourist experience in their own small way. As recounted:

I do it [provide psychological safety] to make the tour more enjoyable for visitors and to brings out the jovial side of things.

When visitors laugh it makes me happy, and I enjoy the tour better.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

“.... doing it makes me feel that I are capable of doing something; that at least I can make someone feel happy.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

The third identified motivation for providing psychological safety at KNP under this sub-theme is rewards (tips, commendations and recommendations) gained. In relation to this, participants stated that:

“I do it because of the commendations I get from visitors. They commend me to management and also refer me to other [potential] visitors ...in the past I even gained an award for best KNP tour guide based on the commendation given by a female visitor. She stated in the comment book that, she has been here ten times and my tour was the first time she got her best guide service.”

[TG6, Male, 22 years experience]

“ I do it because whenever such [psychologically safe] visitors come back, no matter where I am, they look for me... they also tell their friends about me [recommend me to others], then I get more tips.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

Some participants argued that reward (specifically, tips and compliments) is not a motivator for providing psychological safety. In explanation, they stated that:

“We don't necessarily get anything from it, not all visitors know how to give tips. So, tips are not regular or even based on what you do. Some people naturally know how to give tips, others

don't, so it depends on your luck... So here [at KNP], tip or no tip, we are okay because we are paid."

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

"All these things [commendations], they [management] don't use it for anything; no punishments, nothing [or rewards]. They don't even factor it into promotions."

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

The contradictory views on rewards (specifically tips and commendations) indicate that it is a weak motivator for providing psychological safety among KNP employees. This is not surprising given that tipping is not generally practiced in Ghana and psychological safety is insufficiently institutionalized for commendations to have a significant impact on performance evaluations.

This notwithstanding, egoistic values emerged as the strongest motivator for KNP employees to provide psychological safety to visitors. This finding contradicts previous studies such as Dursun, Kabadayi and Tuger (2017), Hiratsuka, Perlaviciute and Steg (2017) and Steg et al. (2005) which found ego to be the least related value to behaviour performance.

Altruism as motivator

Altruism emerged as another motivator for KNP employees to provide psychological safety. Specifically, good conscience and sympathetic concern were mentioned. First, participants stated that their conscience influenced their decision to provide psychological safety to visitors. In relation to this, they stated that:

“The institution hasn’t told us to carry any person [that is, provide physical support] but I do it just to help visitors in need: it is the godlike [sic right] thing to do. It is out of the goodness of my heart.” [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

“I volunteer to do it just to help; I feel it is the right thing to do... If I don’t help, I feel like the person [visitor] has wasted money because I didn’t help provide value for the money they spend.” [TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

Sympathetic concern was pinpointed as another altruistic motivator for providing psychological safety to KNP visitors. In other words, participants indicated that seeing visitors who were hurt, anxious, or distressed made them feel compelled to provide psychological safety in order to ease the discomfort of the visitors. As narrated:

“A lot of them [visitors] hurt themselves, especially the children. At times they get deep cuts from running when descending [the hill], which end up at the hospital. It worries me... it makes me feel uncomfortable.” [TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

The preceding narratives highlight general concern for visitor well-being, also known as altruism (Kiatkawsin, 2017), as a motivator for KNP employees to provide psychological safety to visitors. The findings also demonstrate that KNP employees exhibit both dimensions of altruism. Indeed, claims that psychological safety is motivated by ‘worry’, feelings of discomfort or concern for safety (sympathetic concern) point to benevolent altruism

(Hammer, Cartwright-Alcares & Budin, 2019). Alternatively, claims that their behaviour is motivated by the belief that it is the ‘*godlike thing to do*’ or ‘*the right thing to do*’ points to the universalism dimensions of altruism (Schwartz, 2012). However, contrary to studies such as Dursun et al. (2017), the findings show that benevolent concerns for visitors takes precedence over universalism as a motivator for providing psychological safety among KNP employees.

Biospeheric values as motivator

Participants identified three (3) biospheric motivations for providing psychological safety, namely; the need to preserve KNP's good reputation, means of maintaining normal business operations, and adherence to cultural norms.

First, participants indicated that psychological safety is provided to visitors in order to maintain KNP's reputation as a safe attraction site. Participants explained that KNP relies heavily on positive word-of-mouth to remain operational, so providing psychological safety is a good way to promote the site's good reputation. As recounted:

“... when you help a terrified visitor to participate in an activity, when they leave and later meet another person who is afraid of the site, they spread the news that KNP is not as scary as most assume and that the guides here are good and would help you through it.” [TG6, Male, 22 years experience]

Second, participants claimed that they provided psychological safety to ensure business continuity. As evidenced by the COVID-19 pandemic,

participants suggested that visitor arrivals have an impact on business operations. As a result, they provide psychological safety to ensure that KNP maintains its visitor numbers and, by extension, its operational processes.

According to one of the participants:

“Although I am not given anything for my effort, I know this place is a visitor’s center and they [visitors] are our customers, so I have to treat them well we are selling the site, and due to COVID we know that we won’t get anything if KNP does not operate, so I do it to make sure that the business progresses.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

This finding supports the claims of Frazier et al. (2017) and Kuppelwieser and Finsterwalder (2011) that the feeling of insecurity, anxiety, and defensiveness which results from people feeling psychologically unsafe can have a negative impact on business operations. Alternatively, it supports claims made in the literature that providing psychological safety promotes group member engagement, which in turn increases productivity and, by extension, business operations (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017)

Lastly, participants indicated that they are motivated to provide psychological safety because it is the Ghanaian thing to do. Put differently, they are simply furthering the Ghanaian hospitality culture. This is highlighted in the ensuing quote:

“Looking out for the welfare of others is very common in Ghana.

For example, when you see an accident, you go there to help. It

is a Ghanaian culture – we have sympathy for such things and it is also working here.” [TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

In general, literature suggest a strong link between biospheric values and behaviour performance (Hiratsuka et al., 2017; Steg et al., 2005). The findings, however, contradict literature. That is to say, biospheric values were found to be the least effective motivator among KNP employees for ensuring the psychological safety of visitors.

It is worth noting that these values did not present as mutually exclusive as the narratives above suggest. Rather most tour guides were motivated by a combination of values, confirming Ajuhari, Aziz and Hasan (2015) and Steg et al.'s (2005) assertion that value orientations are generally subjective in nature.

Employees' Awareness of the Consequences of Psychologically Unsafe Visitors

Due to employees' lack of understanding of psychological safety, the term was explained to them as ‘all the intangible things they did for or provided visitors with that made them feel safe onsite’. Following that, participants were asked if there are consequences to the absence of psychological safety among visitors. Participants generally agreed on this. As emphasized by one participant:

“there are, how can there not be”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

Specifically, three (3) consequences were identified to result from visitors feeling psychologically unsafe onsite, namely; threat to employees' source of

income, threat to KNP's revenue stream and negatively impacts KNP's reputation.

First, participants stated that psychologically unsafe visitors threaten their source of income. As explained:

"It [the absence of psychological safety among visitors] has a negative effect on us... if visitors are too afraid they won't come, even if they come, they won't participate, then we won't get money; after all it is because of them that we get up and come here in the morning." [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

Second, using statements such as *"it doesn't just affect me; it affects all of us [the entire KNP]"* (TG2, Male, 3 years experience), participants acknowledged that the consequences of psychologically unsafe visitors extend beyond employees and into the business (KNP). Participants stated that when visitors feel psychologically unsafe, they refuse to participate in activities and even request refunds for activities that they have already paid for. In other words, the threat to KNP's revenue stream is the second identified consequence of psychologically unsafe visitors. This viewpoint is expressed in the quote:

"When visitors are afraid they don't want to do anything, they don't even want to try not doing anything when visitors are afraid is like encouraging them to go for their money."

[TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

Thirdly, participants implied that the absence of psychological safety onsite would negatively impact the reputation of KNP. As narrated:

“If visitors don’t feel safe when they are here, when they leave, what they say and how they say it would discourage others from coming here” [TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

"If visitors are afraid, when they return home they won't tell good stories about this place. We have a popular assertion that 'Kakum has marketed itself already', so we don't market the place. We rely on the feedback of visitors who come here to market this place..." [TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

Employees' awareness of the negative consequences of failing to make visitors feel psychologically safe on-site reinforces their strong efficacy beliefs in providing psychological safety. It supports the earlier assumption that KNP employees put in more effort to implement what they know about psychological safety (Lv, Liu & Lay, 2021). Despite this, their awareness of the consequences seems to be limited to the negative impact that a psychologically unsafe environment would have on employees and KNP, while ignoring the impact on visitors.

Level of Responsibility Employees Ascribe to the Provision of Psychological Safety

This sub-theme sought to ascertain the extent to which employees accept responsibility for visitors' psychological safety. As a result, participants were asked if they thought it was their job to provide psychological safety to visitors. Participants responded with two claims: psychological safety was not part of their job description, and they willingly provide psychological safety to visitors.

First, participants indicated that providing psychological safety is not detailed in any KNP employee's job description. As one participant put it succinctly:

“The institution hasn’t indicated that it is part of the job of any employee (tour guide).” [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

This finding is not surprising, given the uncodified nature of KNP’s institutional arrangements (see Chapter 5). Nonetheless, it implies that any responsibility ascribed by employees towards providing psychological safety to visitors is deemed voluntary on their part with little influence from institutional arrangements. According to Tian and Robertson (2017), and Ren, Tang, and Zhang (2022), such employees (those who voluntarily assume responsibility for a practice) are generally more committed to its performance.

Secondly, despite the fact that it not part of their job description, participants stated all KNP tour guides willingly provide psychological safety to visitors. This point is demonstrated in the following quotes:

“It is something that I personally consider part of my job.”
[TG6, Male, 22 years experience]

“These are things we just do; we willingly volunteer to do it. It is not part of our job but we still do it anyway... it is something that every competent tour guide does.”

[TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

The willingness of KNP employees to provide psychological safety despite believing that it is outside their scope of work suggests three (3) things.

First, there is a culture of proactiveness among KNP employees which compels them to provide psychological safety to visitors (Crant, 2000; Seibert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999). Second, the use of words like ‘*personally*’ and ‘*willingly volunteer*’ imply that KNP employees take pride in providing psychological safety to visitors (Onwezen, Antonides & Bartels, 2013).

Third, based on the assertion “*every competent tour guide*”, it can be assumed that there is some social pressure exerted among employees to ensure that psychological safety is generally provided. This is consistent with findings from studies such as Brennan, Eriksson, Goodin, and Southwood (2013) and Fang, Ng, Wang, and Hsu (2017) which shows that there is always some level of social pressure (subtle or otherwise) influencing individuals' personal norms. All of these claims, in accordance with theory, demonstrate that KNP employees ascribe a high level of responsibility towards ensuring the psychological safety of visitors (Stern et al.,1999).

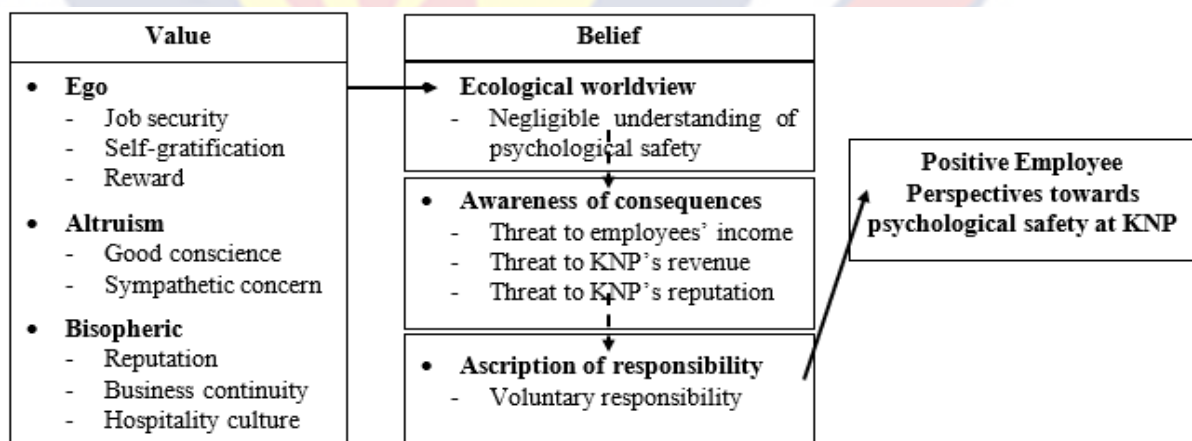


Figure 7: KNP Employees' Perspective on Psychological Safety

Source: Moore (2022)

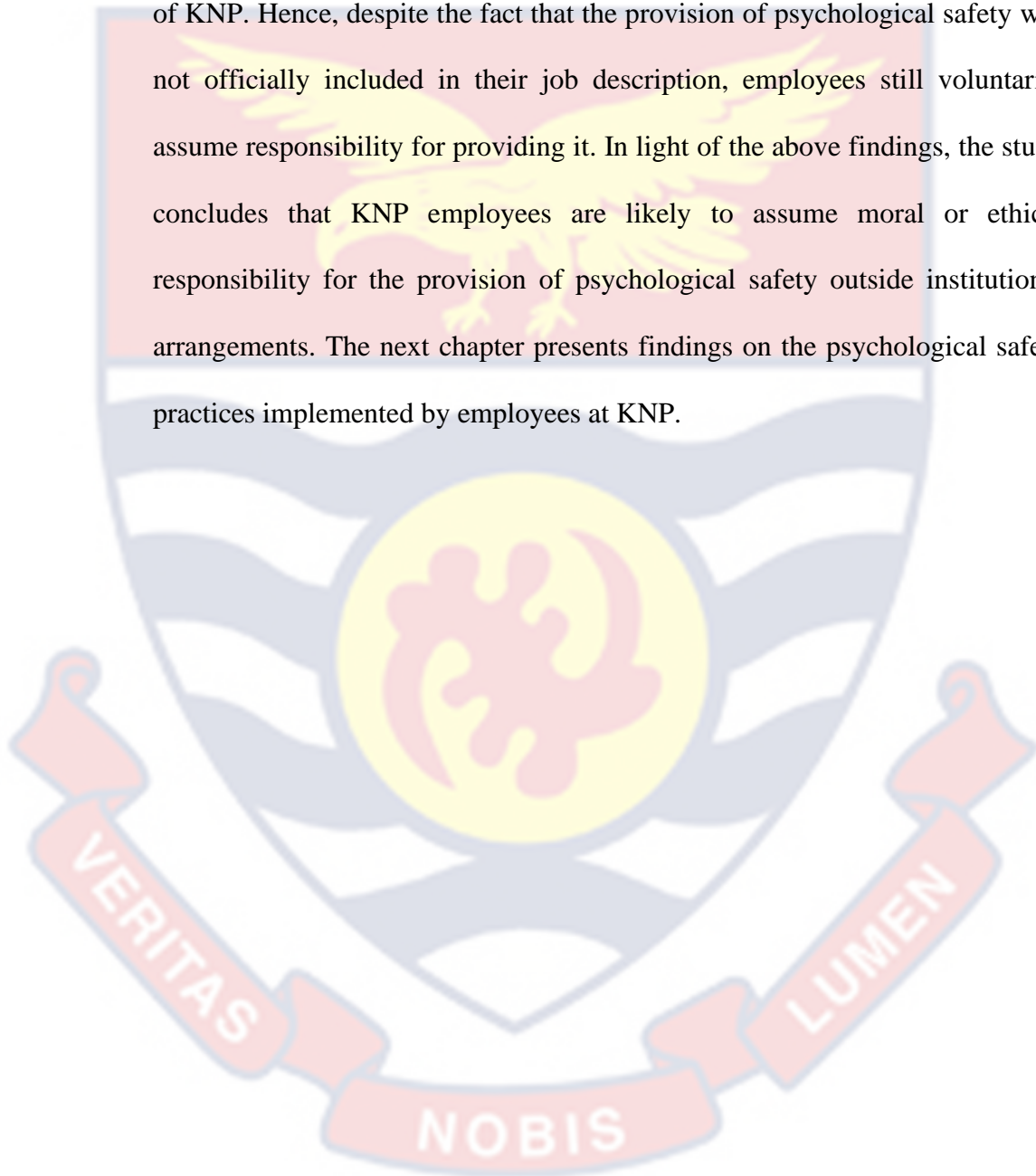
The findings, as presented in Figure 7, indicate that employees' egoistic, altruistic and biospheric values have combined and transformed into a strong efficacy belief that by their actions, they can influence visitors' fears or negative perceptions of KNP's safety. Subsequently, they have gained awareness that any failure on their part to provide visitors with psychological safety risks jeopardizing their source of incomes as well as the revenue and reputation of KNP.

As a result, even though it is voluntary and independent of KNP's institutional arrangement, employees still place a high responsibility on psychological safety. According to the Value-Belief-Norm theory, the foregoing indicates that KNP employees have positive perspectives (personal norms) towards providing psychological safety. This implies that KNP employees of their own will are likely to assume moral or ethical responsibility for the provision of psychological safety, outside institutional arrangements (Ghazali, Nguyen, Mutum & Yap, 2019).

Chapter Summary

This chapter established employees' perspective on psychological safety at Kakum National Park. Findings from the study indicate that KNP employees provide psychological safety to visitors although they do not label it as such. They are generally motivated by egoistic (job security, self-gratification, reward), altruistic (good conscience, sympathetic concern) and biospheric (reputation, business operations, hospitality culture) values to provide psychological safety. Thus, KNP employees generally possess a strong

conviction that providing psychological safety helps in alleviating visitors' fears and perceived risks. Consequently, they recognized that a psychologically unsafe visitor poses a threat to their source of revenue as well as the reputation of KNP. Hence, despite the fact that the provision of psychological safety was not officially included in their job description, employees still voluntarily assume responsibility for providing it. In light of the above findings, the study concludes that KNP employees are likely to assume moral or ethical responsibility for the provision of psychological safety outside institutional arrangements. The next chapter presents findings on the psychological safety practices implemented by employees at KNP.



CHAPTER SEVEN

PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY PRACTICES AT KAKUM NATIONAL PARK

Introduction

In the last two chapters, the study established that KNP has institutional arrangements for providing psychological safety. In addition to this, employees' perspectives (personal norms) on psychological safety were found to be favourable. With the presence of both structures (institutional arrangements) and agency (employees' personal norms), Giddens' (1984) structuration theory suggests that behaviour towards the provision of psychological safety at KNP is likely to be positive.

This chapter, thus, presents the findings and discussions on psychological safety practices at the Kakum National Park (KNP). It specifically addresses the question of how KNP employees provide psychological safety to visitors.

Psychological Safety Practices at KNP

The data revealed eight (8) psychological safety practices. They are discussed as follows: providing information, preparing visitors with participation tools, encouraging participation, reproaching discouraging behaviours, providing support, listening and giving feedback, introducing visitors to confidence boosters and demonstrating activity safety.

Providing Information

Under this theme, KNP employees indicated that four (4) types of information are provided to visitors in order to make them feel psychologically safe. They are: information about the terrain; information about activities; safety information; and information about perceived and actual risks.

In terms of information about the terrain, participants were of the view that visitors need to be familiar with the nature of KNP's environment in order to feel psychologically safe about KNP and its activities. According to KNP employees, providing information to visitors reassures them that they will be able to make informed decisions that will not jeopardize their safety. This perception that they have control over the outcome of their safety is what, according to participants, fosters their psychological safety. Some key information about the terrain offered to visitors are: the highest climbing peak, the rocky and undulating nature of the terrain, wetness of the forest floor, and estimated hiking time for activities. This finding is made evident in ensuing quotes like:

“Before we move I tell them the geography of the area... I explain the undulating nature of the path we are going to take. [I tell them] it is not smooth or flat, rather it is hilly and that we are going to climb a hill of about 250 feet above sea level... also they have to be extra careful because the place is extra rocky”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

“I tell them the time we would spend getting there [engaging in the activity] [and that] we are going into a rainforest and it is very slippery, so they have to be careful.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

The second type of information provided by KNP employees to visitors pertains to the activities on offer. According to participants, in order to ensure that visitors are psychologically prepared for each activity, they are given information pertinent to their chosen activity prior to its commencement. The information visitors receive focuses on three key areas: getting to the activity, the nature of the activity and getting back from the activity. Participants made the following statements to substantiate this claim:

“I tell visitors before they begin that, the canopy walkway is a hanging bridge which is 11- 14 metres in height from the forest floor, and the bridges are 250 metres long. ... it comprises 7 bridges and 6 platforms with the 1st platform connected to the 6th bridge, so if any visitor is afraid, or thinks he/she can't complete all 7 bridges, when they get to the first platform they can make the decision to take the by-pass bridge.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

“I tell visitors that the walkway is a suspended bridge, so even a bird landing on it would cause it to shake [sic swing] ... also the creaking sound they would hear when they step on the bridge is just the ladder and plywood of the bridge hitting the platform...”

So, if they hear that sound or feel the bridge swinging they shouldn't think that it is about to collapse... these things are just to make the tour more interesting and enjoyable."

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

"[before we begin the tour] I explain to visitors that we are going to exercise a bit.... we are going into a primary forest [and that] we are going to climb a hill to get to the canopy walkway... [upon completion of the walkway] I caution visitors that this time we are not climbing but descending the hill. Descending is more difficult and dangerous than climbing, some [visitors] might not understand because they think they are descending with speed but it is riskier because they can fall. When climbing, it is hard to fall then descending." [TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

Safety information is the third type of information provided to visitors. This information was said to cover safety statistics, personal safety measures and institutional safety provisions. Participants specified that they inform visitors that no one has ever died as a result of participating in a KNP-offered activity; advise them on how to ensure their own safety while participating in activities; and notify them of the institutional dos and don'ts as well as the park's general maintenance schedule. The purpose behind offering safety information, according to participants, is to convince visitors that the park and its activities are safe enough for participation without risk of injury or dying. Some participants had these to say to buttress this claim:

“[when visitors indicate that they are afraid that the canopy will fall like what happened at Bunso] I tell them that, KNP is different from Bunso... Kakum was constructed long before Bunso but, till date, we have not experienced an incident of that nature here... So, believe that today is not going to be the first time it happens.” [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

“I tell them the things they shouldn't do, like ... when they are on the bridge, they shouldn't jump on it... I also tell them to be extra careful, not to run, especially the school children ... I tell them that they shouldn't be scared and that we do regular maintenance. Every morning we check before we start tours for the day and general maintenance is done every six months.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

“I tell visitors, especially the kids, not to touch trees because there might be a snake on them ... or even touch leaves because they might be poisonous ... the forest is slippery so I tell them not to step on the roots but rather step on the floor ... When it is drizzling, some visitors shake trees so that the collected raindrops would sprinkle on the group; we tell them not to do that too... in this COVID era, we also tell them [visitors] to put on their nose masks, since they are not alone on the tour.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

The final type of information provided to promote psychological safety among KNP visitors is information on park-related risks. In relation to this, participants indicated that visitors are educated on both actual and commonly held misconceptions regarding risks onsite. Succinctly put, the actual and perceived risks associated with KNP. Information provided on actual risks at the park covers animals such as ants, scorpions, snakes and bees as well as plants such as poison ivy. In addition to this, participants also indicated that they provide information debunking popularly perceived risks assumed to be present at KNP such as those related to sounds they may hear and the presence of animals such as lions that are not found at the park. Findings in relation to this claim are made evident in the following quotes:

“I tell visitors everything we have and don’t have here [at KNP]... Some are so afraid that they don’t even want to hear that we have snakes in the park. So, I begin by explaining that, snakes only bite in retaliation when they are being stepped on, so, as we are going, don’t shake trees, and walk on the exact path I am taking... I also tell them what we don’t have here because we don’t want them assuming things that aren’t there... some even ask if there are lions here.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

“.... around this time [the rainy season] we have a lot of soldier ants ... Caucasians especially are terrified of animals like ants and snakes... so I tell visitors to be careful so that they don’t

disturb their environment ... also, before we begin, I assure them that, ant bites are painful but not poisonous so they should be careful but not scared.... We also caution them on the presence of plants like poison ivy.” [TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

“... when visitors hear the scream of animals, even crickets, some assume the worse and think something bad is happening or going to happen ... as tour guides, we educate them, prepare their minds on it, tell them that it won't hurt them, so that when they encounter anything like that, they know nothing is going to happen to them.” [TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

The finding that KNP employees provide park-related information to promote the psychological safety of visitors is consistent with KNP's principle of providing an orientation prior to participation. The fact that information is provided throughout the tour lends credence to management's earlier claims that KNP's principles for providing psychological safety safeguards visitors' psychological safety throughout the tour. Moreover, Edmondson and Lei (2014), Frazier et al. (2017), Jiang, Hu, Wang and Jiang (2019) and Newman et al. (2017) all corroborate participants' claim that information is key to providing psychological safety. Additionally, employees' practices of providing visitors with information seems to be geared towards preparing them for participation by equipping them with requisite knowledge about the park. This corresponds to DEFRA's (2008) definition of enabling practices.

Preparing Visitors with Participation Tools

The second theme that emerged from the data regarding psychological safety practices at the Kakum National Park was preparing visitors with tools for participation in activities. In this regard, tools are being used to broadly describe all the things visitors need to feel safe and comfortable during their activities. It is worth noting that visitors to KNP are not provided with tools for participation, but rather are informed of what is required and advised to procure them to ensure their comfort. Participants identified four (4) tools for bolstering visitors' psychological safety while participating. This study divides these tools into two categories: essential (dressing, water and urinal facilities) and non-essential (scents/perfume).

In relation to essential tools, participants mentioned that visitors are required to be appropriately dressed (that is, wear protective clothing that camouflages the forest and comfortable footwear like safety boots, flat shoes, or sneakers), carry along water and use the urinal facilities prior to participation. According to participants, making ensure visitors do these things makes them feel comfortable, which promotes their psychological safety. The following quotes provide evidence to support these claims:

“When visitors call to make reservations... we tell them what is appropriate to wear for the activity they chose to partake in... they are told not to bring shoes with slippery soles but rather those with traction, like safety boots, sneakers or canvas-like shoes... those who come in shorts, knickers or maxi-skirts and want to hike are also advised to change... I always advise them

to carry along water in case of emergency because we are going to hike for at least 45 minutes.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

“Normally, I tell visitors that they don’t need to wear high heels or church shoes because where we are going is very rocky, rather it is best to wear flats to make them more comfortable for visitors interested in the [forest] hiking, I inform them to wear something green or brown to camouflage the forest... I explain to them that because of tracking, bright colours like red are not ideal for going deeper into the forests.”

[TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

“Our urinal facility is near the reception area ... we don’t allow visitors to urinate in the forest because they can be bitten by an animal if they via off-path... [because of this] I inform them that we don’t have a urinal within the forest, and show them where the washroom is, it tell them that if they feel that they would need to urinate during the tour, they should do so before we set off.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

In addition to what is required for participation (essential tools), participants stated that visitors are also briefed on what they should not bring along (non-essential tools). Chief among such tools were perfumes or scented sprays. Participants indicated that they discourage the use of scented perfumes

because they may attract insects such as bees and also, they might trigger respiratory diseases among the tour group. As narrated by some participants:

“When they [visitors] call to make reservations or get here, we tell them they can bring along insect repellent but not very pungent spray because we are going into the forest and it would attract insects like bees.” [TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

“.... some visitors come wearing perfume already and others spray themselves right before they enter the forest. For those in the latter category, we try to stop them before it happens. We inform them it not necessary because we don't have mosquitos in the forest and even the animals, we have here would not cause any dire sickness. However, there are bees in the forest that are attracted to scents or their spray can trigger the asthma attack of other guests.” [TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

The practice of preparing visitors with participation tools seems to mimic an enabling practice, which according to DEFRA (2008) includes equipping visitors with requisite resource and skills to enhance their competence. Participants' sentiments on this practice generally seems to be hinged on the notion that making visitors feel at ease will reduce their fears and risk perception, thereby boosting their psychological safety. This finding is consistent with the views of Bosak et al. (2013), Edmondson (1999), Samra (2019) and Turner and Harder (2018) who all argue that feeling comfortable allows people to be themselves, freely express their opinions, and take

interpersonal risks. Furthermore, this finding conveys two impressions about KNP's orientation principle: first, it extends beyond simply providing information to ensuring that participants have the necessities to participate comfortably; and second, the principle appears to serve more as a function for preparing visitors to participate in KNP activities than to foster their psychological safety onsite.

Encouraging Participation

The third psychological safety practice identified at Kakum National Park was encouraging participation. Participants agreed that it is only right for visitors to partake in activities given that they pay for the experience. Thus, when confronted with scared or frightened visitors, employees do their best to encourage them to at least try to participate before giving up completely. Despite this effort to encourage terrified visitors to participate, participants clarified that employees never force visitor to participant if they do not want to and that the final decision to participate or not is entirely up to the visitors. The following are some classic examples of how visitors are encouraged to participate:

“[For instance] in the group I sent to the canopy walkway this morning, there was a young guy who indicated that he didn't want to go at all, not even attempt. But I convinced him that it wasn't scary, and that he should try to just step on the first bridge, if he is still scared, he doesn't have to go. And that, at

least he would have gained value for his money if he tried and couldn't do it, instead of not even attempting."

[TG6, Male, 22 years experience]

"For school children, when it looks like they are stuck on the walkway and their teachers are rushing them to move forward. I usually tell them [the scared visitor], my friend, take your time, don't rush.... when their friends are laughing at them, I tell them it's normal, they shouldn't mind them... they should take one step at a time and before they know it, they would be done."

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

"When they [visitors] state that they don't want to go, you don't have to accept it immediately. You first have to try to convince them and offer your help... if they decide that they don't want to try, we just leave them alone."

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

In general, DEFRA's (2008) model proposes that encouraging practices are key to promoting behavioural performance. Similarly, psychological safety literature has consistently stated that encouraging participations is one of the few practices identified to foster psychological safety (Chen et al., 2015; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Samra, 2019). Within the tourism space, Kuppelwieser and Finsterwalder (2011) recognize it as a practice that promotes psychological safety in tour groups. Thus, it comes as no surprise that

KNP employees consider it as critical to providing psychological safety among visitors.

Reproaching Discouraging Behaviour

Participants commented that other visitors sometimes try to intentionally scare or incite fear among their co-participants. Thus, one aspect of ensuring that visitors maintain their psychological safety is to reproach visitors who frighten, malign or introduce elements of risks (perceived or actual) during activities. According to participants, reproaching discouraging behaviour can be achieved in three (3) ways. These are convincing/chastising them to stop their actions, imposing little punishments, and reporting them (perpetrators) to management. Below are some examples of how visitors are chastised:

“It is common for visitors to intentionally jump/bounce on the walkway to intentionally generate a [squeaking] noise or swing the bridge to scare friends within the tour group. In such situations, I usually tell such visitors that – please don't scare others, if you have almost completed, please finish and sit down at the exit to wait for the others to return. When you tell them they listen ... sometimes, I try to counselling misbehaving visitors to stop their actions, using Akan proverbs and bible quotations like love thy neighbour as thyself.”

[TG1, Male, 27 years experience]

“[Although rare] in extreme cases where a visitor continuously keeps scaring, bullying or harassing tour group member(s), once

I come across a returning group, I ask the visitor to return with them when hiking to the canopy walkway with school children, I usually introduce small punishments like making the misbehaving visitor move from the front to the back of the group or loudly reprimanding them to show that I am angry. When they see you are serious they stop.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

“In extreme situations, we get some visitors running on the walkway, trying to climb on top of the ropes or even jumping to hold the canopy ropes to take pictures. [In such cases,] I immediately stop them and tell them it is a canopy walkway, not a runway; so they can walk fast on it but they are not allowed to run.... if they don't listen I report it to the VRO who reports it to the site manager... it has been over ten years, but I heard one senior high school was banned from visiting the park because the students excessively misbehaving.”

[TG9, Male, 4 years experience]

The practice of reproaching behaviour that undermines group members' participation in activities in order to promote group psychological safety is consistent with findings from literature (Brock & Reeves, 2014; Hoenderdos, 2013; Liang et al., 2012). Indeed, DEFRA's (2008) model indicates that it is an aspect of encouraging practices. However, KNP's management did not include it as one of the site's principles for providing psychological safety. This

confirms management's earlier assertion that employees are given the autonomy to implement measures that work in fostering psychological safety. It is also consistent with KNP employees' claim that they voluntarily provide visitors with psychological safety.

Offering Support

Offering support in times of need is another practice used by KNP employees to provide psychological safety to visitors. Given the adventurous nature of KNP's activities (particularly the canopy walkway), participants reported that they regularly face incidents where visitors feel psychologically unsafe. Popular among these incidents are visitors being petrified with fear, crying, screaming for help and in rare cases easing on themselves or collapsing. When confronted with such situations, employees indicated that they offer visitors three (3) types of support, namely; emotional support, physical support, and affirmative support.

In terms of emotional support, participants indicated that they did things like converse or sing to divert visitors' attention away from the activity they were presently engaged in. Classic examples of visitors receiving emotional support include:

“There was this a lady I was once helping to complete the walkway. She became scared and got stuck after the first bridge, so she asked me to continue talking to her because it gave her ‘vim’[sic courage] to proceed. So I ended up walking

backwards, facing of her, and we conversed till she completed the by-pass bridge.” [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

“A child once got to the second bridge and became so terrified that he started screaming and crying. I had to start singing a popular song, for us to continue and we had to go all the way because he didn’t even take the shorter loop.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

Physical support is another type of support provided to KNP visitors in order to foster their psychological safety. Participants mentioned that there are instances where, in their capacity as tour guides, they have had to hold or carry visitors in order for them to complete an activity. This type of support was suggested to be popular among children and the elderly. Below are expressions of some participants:

“Once, a child got to the second bridge and became so terrified that he started screaming and crying. I had... to carry him at a point in time... there have been other times, When we have had to shoulder exhausted old people back to the reception centre because they became exhausted from hiking. In some cases, I have had to I cut fallen branches as walking sticks for them.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

“Once, an adult visitor got to the third bridge and started crying. He didn’t even want anybody to step on the bridge. When this happened, I had to look for a handkerchief/scarf to blindfolded

him, then I held his hand to complete the walkway. We had to complete the remaining four bridges like that.”

[TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

The third type of support offered to KNP visitors is affirmative support. During discussions with participants, they stated that there were some visitors who initially exhibit fear and indicate that they do not want to participate in an activity, but with encouraging words, they are able to complete on their own. In other words, although it is uncommon, affirmational support is thought to be effective in fostering visitors' psychological safety. In this vein participant stated that:

“[On forest hikes], I continuously tell visitors that nothing is going to happen to them, so they shouldn't be scared. They should put their hope in me and I would get them back safely.... [on the walkway], I tell them not to fear or be afraid. I use examples like: I've done it, people have done it; see, your friends are doing it; don't be afraid, it's not scary, we can do it; don't look down, just focus on where we're going ... I tell them so that they will become calmer and continue.”

[TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

“... when we get on the bridge, sometimes I tell them that: see, I can walk and run without holding anything, so how much more you. When I state the fact that way, most visitors gain confidence

because they look at my statue and start thinking that if this small girl can do it then I can also do it'. Then their fear decreases.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

Two (2) findings emerged from the narratives provided in relation to the practice of offering support: first, support offered by KNP employees can be reactive (in the sense that, visitors ask for support before employees provide it) or pre-emptive (employees observe that visitors need help and provide it without visitors asking). Second, although there are noted instances where only one type of support was offered, general employee sentiments suggest that more than one type of support is frequently used at the same time. This notwithstanding, literature affirms the finding that support promotes psychological safety (Frazier et al., 2017; Newman et al. 2017). This practice can be captured under DEFRA's (2008) encouraging practices, given that it entails offering assistance to persuade visitors that they would be able to complete an activity.

Listening and Giving Feedback

According to participants, most visitors do not voice their fears due to concerns that they would be looked down upon by their peers. However, visitors' fears can be detected and addressed without them having to admit or own up to it. Participants identified three (3) types of listening that KNP employees engage in to detect visitors fear, namely; active listening, proactive listening and inviting opinions.

In terms of active listening, participants indicated that employees remain attentive to visitors needs throughout the tour. Common signs of distress that

participants usually look out for during tours include: visitors who slow their pace, become quiet and solemn or try to hide or separate themselves from the group as they get closer to the canopy walkway; visitors who stay firmly at the centre of the group during the forest hike; excessive sweating; shiftiness; extreme attentiveness to environment; and visitors who ask questions incessantly. The following quotes are evidence of this:

“Most visitors don’t admit that they are afraid, so we have to be conscious minded ... we even look out for it [signs of visitors’ feeling psychologically unsafe]. You can usually tell from their [visitors’] appearance and how they behave... like based on how they talk and the questions they ask, you can separate those who are afraid from those who are not, then know how to help them.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

“For instance, the walking strides of visitors who are afraid tends to be different when you compare how they started the hike to when they are almost at the bridge. Their walking become slow and uncoordinated the closer they get to the bridge. Some also start out laughing and talking then become solemn and quiet... sometimes you can observe them trying to hide or separating themselves from the group... right before they begin the activity you would see them shaking and sweating.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

The second form of listening practiced by KNP employees is proactive listening. According to participants, proactive listening is done by tuning into the general conversations of the group to determine change in behaviour or detect hidden fears so that they can be addressed. As one participant explained:

“Even though we are leading the group, as tour guides, we still have to tune our ears to what members of the groups are saying, so that we can address any hidden problems or fears they have.”

[TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

With regards to the third aspect of listening, participants indicated that in addition to actively and proactively listening, visitors are also invited to voice their opinions and fears so that they can be addressed. Participants also emphasized the importance that KNP employees attach to providing timely feedback to visitors. On this issue, participants stated that:

“You have to tell them that they are free to ask as many questions as they like if they don’t know, are confused or afraid of anything. ... you also have to answer all their questions...”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

“[After the orientation] I ask if visitors have any questions at that point, if not, we begin. If there is any question, we address it.... on our way, most visitors don’t ask questions except when you get student groups... [but] I make time to address their concerns, answering their questions help them feel less afraid.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

The assertion that employees must be *conscious minded* throughout the tour is consistent with KNP's principle of group awareness. Furthermore, studies such as Edmondson (1999), Grant (2021), Hetzner et al. (2011) and Hoenderdos (2004) support employees' claim that listening and providing feedback promotes psychological safety. In addition to this, DEFRA (2008) indicates that engaging practices fosters bonds, which according to Newman et al. (2017) are an essential building block of providing psychological safety.

Introducing Visitors to Confidence Boosters

According to participants, another way of providing psychological safety at KNP is to introduce visitors to things and people that will bolster their confidence (otherwise referred to as confidence boosters). To be specific, visitors are introduced to two confidence boosters, namely; the maintenance crew of the canopy walkway and areas that have been recently renovated to improve visitor safety. As narrated by some participants:

“When visitors asked me if the canopy is safe, I tell them that we do regular maintenance ... and even show them parts of the platform that has been recently redesigned... I also showed them the new ropes and new wooden boards, it calms them down.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

“Most at times, before we climb the entrance platform to the canopy walkway, I introduce or point out the maintenance team. They are usually stationed there. I then tell visitor that, they have checked the walkway to make sure it is safe before we use it. At

times, I even tell visitors that they helped in the construction of the walkway. This adds to their confidence and calms down those who are questioning the maintenance of the walkway.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

Contrary to KNP employees' claim that boosting visitor confidence is a means of providing psychological safety, Siemsen, Roth, Balasubramanian and Anand's (2009) findings show that confidence rather shaped psychological safety negatively. That is to say, as visitors gain more confidence in their safety, they require less psychological safety. Nonetheless, introducing visitors to confidence boosters seems to be another way through which KNP employees persuade visitors that the site and its activities are safe; this makes it indicative of DEFRA's (2008) encouraging practices.

Demonstrating Activity Safety

Participants identified demonstrating activity safety as another way of providing safety at KNP. According to participants, most visitors (especially first-timers) want proof that the activities on offer at KNP are safe before they choose to partake. As such, demonstrating the safety of activities is an important way of providing psychological safety at KNP. Participants pinpointed two (2) ways through which this is achieved, namely; taking the lead and acting out perceived worst-case scenarios. As participants narrated:

“On tours I always lead. On the walkway, I always walk on the bridge first ... during forest hikes, I always walk in front of the group, this gives visitors the impression that if there are animals

in the forest they would come for me first. This assures them that what I'm doing is safe." [TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

"Before visitors come unto the walkway, I sometimes lean on the net to show them that it can take my weight and it is safe. I walk to the first platform without holding anything to show them that it is safe, before I tell them to try. If it is a smaller group I walk in front of them to complete the bridge."

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

The practice of demonstrating activity safety is consistent with KNP's principle of leading by example, although findings from employees suggest that the implementation of this principle goes beyond simply taking the lead in activities. Nonetheless, there is lack of empirical evidence to support employees' claim that illustrating that an activity is safe will make visitors feel psychologically safe. Cater (2004), however, indicates that it is a common practice used by adventure site operators to prove the lack of risk to visitors.

The institutionalization of this practice among adventure site operators suggests that it has been useful to some extent in reducing visitors perceived risks and fear; thus, it may work as a practice that fosters psychological safety.

Overall, the findings on KNP's psychological safety practises yielded five (5) conclusions. To begin with, the findings related to enabling psychological safety practices (i.e., providing information and the right tools for participation) corroborate Grants' (2021) and Payne's (2012) position that the two dimensions of safety are not as mutually exclusive as literature suggests.

Indeed, if these practices were to be corporealized (as in displayed sign boards and directional signs), they would have served a similar purpose. Secondly, listening and giving feedback (engaging practice) seems to lend support to Schneier's (2008) claim that psychological safety, if nothing else, would serve as a boost to physical safety measures.

Furthermore, the relationship built via engaging practices (i.e. listening and giving feedback) seems to provide the underlying foundation for the successful implementation of all other psychological safety practices. In other words, visitors' level of psychological safety seems to be determined to a larger extent by the established relationship between the KNP employees and visitor(s). Again, owing to the adventurous nature of offered activities, exemplifying seems to be one of the most regarded and frequently implemented practices for providing psychological safety at KNP.

Penultimately, the findings suggest that KNP employees take a heterogenous approach to mitigating visitors fears and perceived risks. In other words, they employ a combination of practices rather than any single technique to ensure that visitors feel psychologically safe while onsite. This is a step in the right direction, particularly because, as Cater (2004) noted, the perceived risks and fears associated with adventurous experiences are not homogeneous in nature, thus, warranting the need for diverse ways of promoting psychological safety.

Finally, this heterogenous approach introduces subjectivity into employees' provision of psychological safety. That is to say, the implementation of these practices was found to be highly dependent on the

subjective perceptions and willingness of employees. Simply put, for any of these practices to be implemented, employees must first identify and acknowledge that a visitor feels psychologically unsafe, then based on personal discretion decide which of the aforementioned practices is most appropriate to mitigate the situation. Thus, without this initial impetus, psychological safety would not be provided.

Chapter Summary

This chapter explored the practices implemented by KNP employees to provide psychological safety to visitors. From the findings, eight (8) psychological safety practices emerged, namely; providing information, preparing visitors with participation tools, encouraging participation, reproaching discouraging behaviours, providing support, listening and giving feedback, introducing visitors to confidence boosters and demonstrating activity safety. The findings were found to conform with DEFRA's (2008) 4E model of behaviour change, which categorizes practices for behaviour change into enabling, encouraging, engaging and exemplifying. The study's findings support the following conclusions: the physical and psychological dimensions of safety are not mutually exclusive; psychological safety can supplement physical safety; exemplifying is a common practice at adventurous tourist sites; employees use different approaches when providing psychological safety to visitors; and there is subjectivity in the implementation of psychological safety practices at KNP. The next chapter presents findings on KNP visitors' experience of psychological safety onsite.

CHAPTER EIGHT

VISITORS' EXPERIENCE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

Introduction

The previous chapters explored the service provider context of providing psychological safety, that is, the antecedents of psychological safety (institutional arrangements and employee perspectives) and psychological safety practices implemented at KNP. This chapter focuses on the visitor experience, which represents the other side of the exchange.

This visitor dimension of psychological safety addresses key issues such as visitor expectations, experience, and the efficacy of psychological safety practices. Expectations, according to the social exchange theory, influence experiences (Boley & Uysal, 2013). Particularly, Grant (2021) conceptualizes the psychological safety experience as "feeling safe, seen, and supported." Moreover, literature depicts a lack of practicable psychological safety practices, necessitating the need to assess the effectiveness of implemented psychological safety practices on visitors' subjective experiences at KNP.

In light of the foregoing, this chapter explores the issue at hand by first determining visitors' expectations of psychological safety, then their experiences of psychological safety, and finally their perspectives on the efficacy of implemented psychological safety practices, in relation to the practices already identified and discussed in chapter 7.

Visitors' Expectation of Psychological Safety

This theme addressed two questions: first, what visitors perceive safety at KNP to be and second, whether they expect KNP to provide for their psychological safety. To begin, visitors were asked to express their thoughts on what safety at KNP means to them. Participants' responses generally indicated that KNP visitors prioritize feeling safe over observing evidence of safety provisions (physical safety measures). According to some participants:

“It is about making us feel safe to an extent where we think we are okay or would be okay.”

[KNP6, Female, 25-year-old repeat tourist]

“It is making sure that I go back home the same way I came here, I expect not to fall into any trap or danger. Giving me that sense of security is what I expect from them [KNP].”

[KNP11, Male, 23-year-old first-timer]

“I expect them to create a situation where I believe no harm can be brought to me. It can be in a situation where I'm not comfortable but if I believe that no harm can really come to me then I feel safe.”

[KNP14, Male, 27-year-old first-timer]

The use of expressions like *making us feel* and *sense of security* in the foregoing narratives emphasizes that safety to visitors is more about what they feel or believe than what they see. This finding contradicts KNP employees' perspective of what it takes to keep visitors safe (see chapter 6). It also supports Schneier's (2008) and Beirman's (2018) claims that psychological safety is an

important dimension of safety. Furthermore, the finding implies that there is a mismatch between what visitors perceive as safety and what employees intend to provide.

When asked if they expected KNP employees to implement measures to help them manage their perceived risks or fears regarding activities on-site, participants expressed mixed feelings. To be specific, slightly more participants stated that they expect KNP to assist them in managing their fears and perceived risks, whereas others stated that fears and perceived risks are innate and subjective, and thus cannot be provided by KNP employees. Those who advocated the provision of psychological safety at KNP stated the following:

“I think reducing fear of the activities is included in KNP’s safety responsibility because they (visitors) ultimately benefit when they are in a better state of mind to participate.”

[KNP22, Male, 19-year-old first-timer]

“Ensuring psychological wellbeing is automatically part of providing safety because from my understanding of safety, it is something that starts from the mind or mental faculty... so reducing perceived risks or fear should be included.”

[KNP27, Female, 25-year-old first-timer]

“You cannot talk of safety without talking about the mental ability and emotions of a person. Safety first of all begins with the psychological aspect of man, what I mean is that, everything that is perceived by an individual begins from the psyche or mind

and it affects their thinking and perception of things. ... so, for me psychological safety is a must.”

[KNP28, Male, 55-year-old repeat visitor]

In contrast, participants with the views that visitors have to be responsible for their own psychological safety stated that:

“Individuals must take charge of their own psychological safety because no one knows what goes on in a person’s mind. And everyone is responsible for his/her own perceptions.”

[KNP24, Female, 23-year-old repeat visitor]

“I think the responsibility of ensuring psychological safety is personal. Each individual has to put him/herself into a good mental state before deciding to participate in any activity.”

[KNP23, Male, 45-year-old repeat visitor]

Findings on visitors’ expectation of psychological safety suggest that visitors generally expect to feel psychologically safe onsite. However, not all visitors believe that KNP and its employees are responsible for ensuring their psychological safety. According to Armitage, Norman, Alganem and Conner (2015) and Giorgetta et al. (2021), expectations are usually a reference point for behaviour, thus have a substantial effect on behaviour performance. This implies that KNP employees are constantly interpreting visitors’ expectations in order to determine whether and to what extent psychological safety should be provided. This further suggests that the inadequacies in KNP's provision of

psychological safety may be as a result of visitors' inconsistent expectations of psychological safety.

Experience of Psychological Safety

Using Grant's (2021) 3S of psychological safety as a framework, this study explores visitors' lived experiences of psychological safety at KNP through three sub-themes, which are discussed in turn as: feeling safe, feeling seen, and feeling supported.

Feeling safe to express fear/risk perceptions

In relation to this, participants were asked if they felt free to express or voice their concerns about perceived risks or feelings of fear in relation to activities on-site. Generally, participants recounted:

“I knew I could say what I wanted to say. Our guide even opened a forum for questions so we knew we could ask questions if we wanted to, we just chose not ask question.”

[KNP41, Female, 31-year-old first-timer]

“The tour guide did not specifically say we could ask questions but, we freely asked questions...Our tour guide answered everything nicely.”

[KNP33, Male, 29-year-old first-timer]

“Yes, I felt we could freely express ourselves. In fact, one of the people in my group reported that she was afraid because of the swinging of the bridge and the tour guide came to assist.”

[KNP8, Male, 25-year-old first timer]

Two findings emerged from the above narratives: first, visitors generally felt safe to express themselves within the tour group, even without the permission of their tour guide; and second, visitors' freedom to express themselves may not be solely dependent on the psychological safety provided by KNP, but also on their sense of entitlement as paying customers. Whatever the source of this freedom of expression, Edmondson and Lei (2014) and Frazier et al. (2017) indicate that being able to express oneself freely within a group is a fundamental tenet of feeling psychologically safe.

Feeling seen as a significant contributor

This theme sought to determine whether visitors believe their opinions and views are heard. To put it another way, do their opinions matter or have any impact on KNP? Two (2) questions were asked in relation to this: first, visitors were asked if they thought feedback from their experience was important to KNP management, and second, if they were aware of any formal means through which they could express their concerns or opinions.

To begin with, when participants were asked if KNP management valued their feedback, the general response was negative. Visitors cited that tour guides were mainly absent when they wanted to express their opinions or concerns. In the words of some participants:

“Due to excessive joy, some of my group members who had been here on several occasions were playing on the walkway. This made others a bit worried because it was their first experience...”

I wanted to complain but I couldn't because the tour guide was not there." [KNP9, Female, 31-years-old repeat visitor]

"I could not report the misbehaviour in my group members because the tour guide was not around, she was assisting the people behind... after completing the walkway, we did not even see the tour guide for me to even make a complaint."

[KNP3, Male, 23-year-old first-timer]

"... after the tour guide ushered us in from the entry point that was all, we did not see him again, he left us behind and it is actually not a good practice, I really wanted to tell him that."

[KNP5, Male, 31-year-old first-timer]

Probing further, visitors were asked if they were aware that the KNP has a comment book in which they can express their thoughts and concerns. According to the findings, while few visitors suspected there might be a comment book available, they all stated that they did not see and were not informed that the site had a comment book where they could leave feedback.

The following quotations provide evidence for these claims:

"They are supposed to have one but I haven't seen it yet."

[KNP42, Male, 46-year-old repeat visitor]

"Oh! really? there is a comment book? We were not told. Where is it?"

[KNP41, Female, 31-year-old first-timer]

The findings in this sub-theme indicate that visitors at KNP do not generally feel seen. To a large extent, they believe that KNP management does not value their opinions, owing to a lack of avenues for providing feedback on their experiences. According to Grant (2021), feeling seen leads to feeling welcomed. As a result of the findings, it can be concluded that KNP visitors do not fully feel welcome to express their opinions, even if they feel safe doing so.

Feeling supported through their fear/risk perceptions

In response to the question of whether KNP provides a supportive environment in which visitors are coached through their discomfort, two opposing viewpoints emerged. On the one hand, some visitors voiced their support whilst others disagreed. Participants who agreed that KNP provided a supportive environment mentioned that their tour guide was present and active in providing guidance and support to visitors in need. As narrated:

“Yes, I think they supported us. The tour guide ushered us through what we were going to do and gave us guidance on the way we should do things. Also, the guide encouraged us when we were scared.” [KNP43, Male, 32-year-old first timer]

“We had support. Our tour guide assisted us in everything we did. At various points on the walkway, he kept insisting that we should hold the rope tightly. He was also very helpful when the young ones among the group were screaming and crying. He went to them and encourage them to at least try to finish the by-

pass. He was always ahead of us and took first initiative before instructing us to follow.”

[KNP23, Male, 45-year-old repeat visitor]

On the other hand, visitors who disagreed that KNP provided a supportive environment stated that they felt abandoned by their tour guide when they needed assistance. In this regard, some participants stated:

“[On the walkway] some of my group members were afraid since this is their first time, but others were misbehaving and intentionally swinging the walkway, ... there was no one around even if you wanted to report misbehaviour ... the tour guide left us at the entrance of walkway.”

[KNP5, Male, 31-year-old first-timer]

“When we were hiking to the walkway, the path and stairs were very slippery as a result of the rain ... we were not told... [and] I was not okay with that ... due to the kind of the shoes the ladies were wearing, they were finding it difficult. Some thought they might fall... I wanted to ask for help but I couldn't find the guide.”

[KNP9, Female, 31-year-old repeat visitor]

The conflicting views of visitors regarding their feeling of support suggest that KNP's provision of support is inconsistent. This is in line with earlier findings from the study which found that KNP employees subjectively prioritize providing psychological safety to frightened visitors at the expense of those who did not display their fears and risk perceptions (see chapters 6 & 7).

In general, the findings on visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP are inconclusive. This is owing to the fact that although visitors' generally felt safe to express their views and concerns, they did not feel seen and opinions on feeling supported were mixed. As such, visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP warrants further investigation.

Efficacy of Implemented Psychological Safety Practices

This theme addressed two questions: first, whether KNP employees' actions made visitors feel psychologically safe, and second, what employees did to make visitors feel psychologically safe. In response to the question of whether KNP employees' implementation of psychological safety reduced (if not eliminated) visitors' fears and risk perception, the data was replete with instances positively affirming this stance. Classic examples include:

“I was emotionally anxious before our visit to the park. I had my own [negative] perception about the place especially the canopy walkway because friends and family who had previously visited said things that got me frightened. ... but, during the tour, the tour guide seemed well informed and knew much about her job, ... That gave me full assurance that there would be no threat or harm to us especially since she led by going first.”

[KNP21, Male, 29-year-old first-timer]

“[Before our arrival] the videos and pictures we watched showed people crying and screaming on the canopy walk, so, some of us were afraid ... [but] when we came, we were ...

offered support which encouraged us and made us feel safe that nothing would happen to us.”

[KNP7, Male, 30-year-old first-timer]

“When I got here I was scared... I was also afraid on the walkway but the tour guide was with me throughout the activity ... this made me feel safer, like if anything happens, he would be there [to help].” [KNP6, Female, 25-year-old repeat visitor]

When participants were asked to identify some of the things that employees did to decrease their fears or perception of risk, they pinpointed five (5) practices, namely; providing information, leading by example, assigning of guides, providing affirmational support and ensuring visitors had the appropriate tools to participate in activities.

As regards the provision of information, findings indicated that three types of information (namely, information provided prior to activities, information on the park's maintenance schedule and past safety statistics) proved effective in fostering psychological safety among participants. Evidence of this is highlighted in the ensuing quotes:

“[Our tour guide] warned us ahead of time, so at least I knew what to expect. ... The guide informed us that feeling at ease after the first bridge means you are 'good to go' for the remaining six bridges; if not, you are free to use the bypass and wait for the rest of the group. This made me realize I have a choice here; it's

not like I've gotten myself into something I can't get out of... This type of information was beneficial.”

[KNP33, Male, 29-year-old first-timer]

“We were informed that the walkway is serviced and the ropes are changed every six months... We were also told that no one had died over there since the park was established in 1995, which reassured and boosted my confidence that since no one had ever faced such a challenge, I would not be the first person to die here.”

[KNP31, Male, 29-year-old first-timer]

KNP employees leading by example was the second practice that participants found effective in reducing their fears and perceived risk. When participants saw their tour guide leading the way in activities, they said it made them feel safe and confident to try. In their own words:

“Our tour guide was the first to walk on the canopy walkway. When I saw the confidence she used to walk on it, I realize that, we can also walk on it without any fear; that we are safe.”

[KNP31, Male, 29-year-old first-timer]

Another practice found by participants to be effective in fostering psychological safety was the presence of tour guides. Participants stated that they felt especially safe when their tour guides accompanied them throughout the tour. According to one participant:

“There are many tour guides and personnel at the site who are willing to help out with anything... they even aided one of the people in my group when she reported that she was scared because of the swinging of the bridge. The tour guide told everyone to stop and assisted the lady to complete the by-pass.”

[KNP8, Male, 25-year-old first timer]

Participants found affirmative support to be another effective practice for reducing their fears and perceived risks of KNP and its activities. Participants said that when KNP employees offered encouraging words, it reassured them of their safety and gave them the confidence to try despite their fears and perceived risks. In this regard, one participant stated:

“When our tour guide told us to be bold and that we don’t have to look down but rather concentrate on the walking... it gave me the confidence to continue even when I was scared.”

[KNP43, Male, 32-year-old first timer]

Finally, participants stated that KNP employees increased their sense of psychological safety by ensuring that they had the necessary tools for participation. Particularly, it gave them the impression that KNP employees are knowledgeable about what they are doing and are concerned about their well-being. In the words of one participant:

“I felt particularly safe when the tour guide who took us on the hike told us to put on something that would cover our feet, get water and wear clothing that can make us comfortable for hike.

He did a superb job in making me feel that he knew what he was doing and that the park cared about our safety.”

[KNP28, Male, 55-year-old repeat visitor]

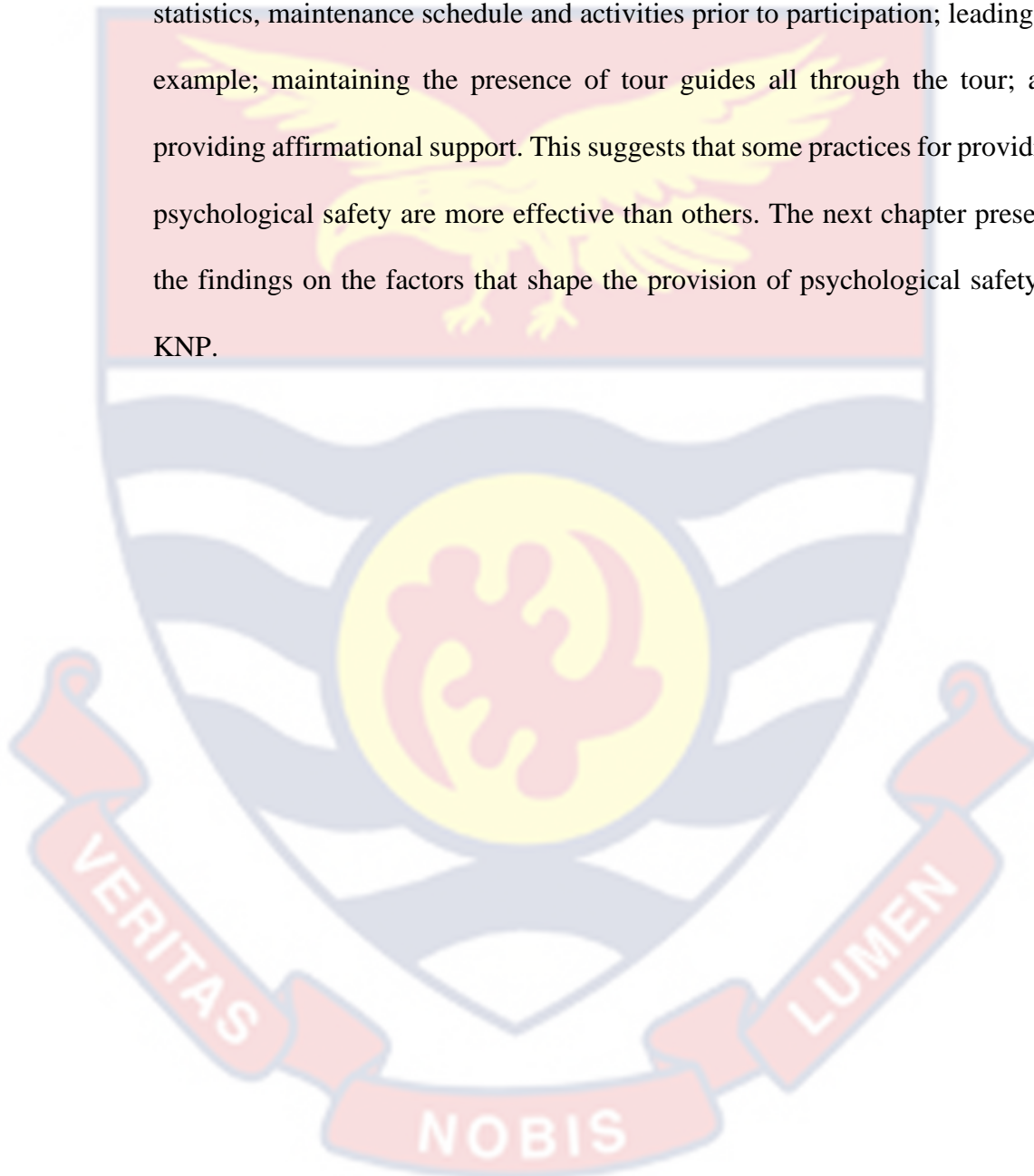
From the above narrative, two findings emerged with regards to the efficacy of psychological safety practices; first of which was that some practices are more effective than others. This finding is based on the fact that out of the eight psychological safety practices identified in the previous chapter (see chapter 7), only four were identified to be effective by visitors.

Secondly, visitors' account of their experiences suggest that tour guides do not implement all psychological safety practices on each tour, but rather decided on which ones to employ or ignore based on the situation at hand. This further suggests that the provision and experience of psychological safety is heterogenous and contingent to the implementer. This confirms earlier findings (see chapter 7) from the study that there is subjectivity in the provision of psychological safety at KNP.

Chapter Summary

This chapter explored visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP. According to the findings, visitors generally expect to feel psychologically safe onsite; yet, not all of them believe that KNP is responsible for ensuring their psychological safety. Also, findings on visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP were inconclusive because while all visitors felt safe, none reported feeling seen and conflicting views emerged on feeling supported. Regarding the efficacy of implemented practices, visitors established

that KNP's psychological safety practices were effective in reducing their fears and risk perceptions. They specifically pinpointed the following practices as effective in fostering psychological safety: providing information on safety statistics, maintenance schedule and activities prior to participation; leading by example; maintaining the presence of tour guides all through the tour; and providing affirmational support. This suggests that some practices for providing psychological safety are more effective than others. The next chapter presents the findings on the factors that shape the provision of psychological safety at KNP.



CHAPTER NINE

FACTORS SHAPING THE PROVISION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY AT KAKUM NATIONAL PARK

Introduction

This chapter presents findings on the factors that shape the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park (KNP), based on data collected from employees and visitors. It specifically addresses the question of what factors help or hinder the provision of psychological safety at KNP.

According to Jomah (2018), May, Gilson and Harter (2004) and Omarli (2017), the factors that influence behaviour performance can be categorized into personal/individual, interpersonal/team, organizational and environmental. This chapter, in accordance with the literature, presents the findings and discussions on this issue under the following themes: individual, team, organizational, and exogenous factors.

Individual Factors

Individual factors, as used in this context, refer to the factors that are uniquely personal to either employees or visitors. In this regard, the study identified three (3) factors which influence psychological safety. They are level of fear exhibited by visitors, psychological preparedness of visitors, and employees' prejudice against specific groups.

To begin, it was discovered that the level of fear displayed by visitors influenced the level of psychological safety provided by KNP employees. A careful scrutiny of identified practices revealed that the provision of

psychological safety at KNP is skewed more towards visitors who exhibit extreme levels of fear than those who exhibit no fear. In fact, the findings show that employees only implemented psychological safety practices when they noticed that visitors were scared, anxious, afraid, or perceive the activities/site to be risky. As narrated by some employees:

“Usually. I look at the visitors. If I see that they are afraid or asking a lot of question, then I do these things. Most times they don’t ask any questions unless they are scared or think the place is dangerous. If they seem ok, then we just go for the tour.... [because] such people are not afraid of the place. They are ok.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

“When I notice a visitor is afraid, I tell them to wait for all the others [who are not afraid] to go ahead, then I personally accompany them and offer assistance.”

[TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

Findings from visitors’ experience with psychological safety at KNP corroborated employees’ assertion that psychological safety practices are primarily targeted at visitors who exhibited heightened fear. According to visitors, those who expressed perceived risk or displayed fear prior to partaking in an activity were offered help by employees to overcome it. The following quote demonstrates this claim:

“I arrived scared... on the walkway, I was terrified so the tour guide was with me throughout the tour.”

[KNP6, Female, 25-year-old repeat visitor]

“The guide was behind me assisting a friend of mine who was scared she [the guide] walked in front of my friend whilst speaking to her ... When the canopy started swinging and my friend became more terrified, the guide reassured her that it was normal and that as long as anyone walked on it, it would swing. She was also advised by the guide to gather her courage and continue.”

[KNP31, Male, 33-year-old repeat visitor]

On the other hand, visitors who showed no fear or perceived no risk prior to an activity were noted to be frequently overlooked by employees. In fact, most unafraid visitors shared a common sentiment that:

“Our tour guide was not around, he left us in the middle of the tour to go and help those who were afraid at the back.”

[KNP26, Female, 20-year old first timer]

“I usually stay behind and complete the walkway with the last person or those who are scared.”

[TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

The claim that psychological safety influences fear and risk perceptions have been extensively discussed in literature (see Clark, 2020; Edmondson, 2019; Frazier, 2017; Sapra & Kumar, 2020). Hence, the foregoing narratives only serve to highlight how KNP employees recognize and use psychological safety

to allay visitors' fears. However, the manner in which they selectively provide psychological safety points to the need for more training on how to offer psychological safety to a group (collective) as opposed to concentrating only on individuals who exhibit fear. After all, as evidenced by visitors' experiences, not all terrified or anxious visitors would openly display their fears or perceptions of risk.

The second individual factor that was found to have an influence on the provision of psychological safety at KNP was the perceived psychological preparedness of visitors. According to findings, KNP employees believe that a psychologically prepared visitor shows little fear or perceives no risks towards KNP and its activities, hence requires no effort to be kept psychologically safe.

As narrated by some employees:

“... some visitors also come prepared even better than we the guides ... you would see it clearly from their footwear and clothing ... such people generally do not need as to help them ... [so] we just take them on the tour.”

[TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

“Those who are prepared come with full vim [confidence and preparedness], their shoes and everything else are on-point. But those who are unprepared usually wear unsuitable shoes, they act like they don't know they are going into a forest and are not sure of what they are here to do. Those people usually become scared along the way.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

Although studies (like Beaver et al., 2020; Lateef, 2020; Reeves, Kanan & Plog, 2009) have shown a connection between psychological safety and psychological preparedness, the focus has so far been on how psychologically safe environments promote activity readiness rather than the other way around (as alluded to by KNP employees). Despite this, the claim that perceived psychological preparedness influences psychological safety particularly raises doubt in light of KNP employees' assertion that visitors' appearance (more specifically, their footwear and clothing) can be used to gauge visitors' need for psychological safety.

Employee prejudice against specific groups was the third individual factor found to influence psychological safety at KNP. The findings suggest that KNP employees have entrenched biases against specific groups, which influence how they provide psychological safety on tours that include those groups. Employees, for example, noted that non-Caucasians, youths (particularly tertiary students), visitors visiting for recreational purposes and Chinese visitors exhibit less fear or sense of risk. To them, this implies that visitors in the aforementioned categories require little (if any) psychological safety in comparison to others, such as the elderly, children, and tourists visiting for educational purposes. In the words of some employees:

“Usually, Chinese visitors don't really care about the tour that you are taking them on, their concentration is only to get on the walkway. They often don't even bothered about your brief [psychological safety information] or what you are telling them,

but rather they just want you to take them straight to the place.”

[TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

“Some groups need more attention, whilst other groups ... like university students ... just come for fun. Those who came for fun are not ready to listen at all ... but if you see school children with their jotters ... [or] those who are asking a lot of [educational] questions ... you can tell that they are ready to listen so you give them the full orientation.” [TG2, Male, 3 years experience]

“Caucasian are afraid of everything, so we pay attention to them [apart from kids], adults come in two groups: young people [youth] who are always in a hurry and not afraid of anything. They just want to get to the walkway; some even try to bypass me. And old people [the elderly] who usually require support and assistance, so I pay particular attention to them.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

Findings on the effect of inclusiveness (Bienefeld & Grote, 2014) and tolerance of diversity (Adjei, 2020) on psychological safety suggest that KNP employees' prejudice against certain groups would have a negative impact on KNP's overall psychological safety. In detail, psychological safety aims to give all group members a sense of belonging, whereas prejudice or bias leads to the exclusion of specific groups members. In other words, prejudice undermines the goal of psychological safety. If left unchecked, this prejudice is likely to lead KNP employees to jump to conclusions about the actions of certain groups without

first verifying facts. Thus, the labels and assumptions that KNP employees have regarding certain visitor groups may have long term negative implications for KNP's psychological safety.

Team Factors

Team factors are operationalized as the elements that arise within a tour group to influence the level of psychological safety provided by employees or experienced by visitors. In relation to this, two (2) factors became apparent, namely; team leaders' support and language barrier.

As regards team leaders' support, KNP employees indicated that the support offered by the leaders of individual visitor groups is crucial in determining the level of psychological safety received by visitors within a tour group. Employees detailed that tour groups are frequently large and led by a single KNP-assigned tour guide, making it difficult for visitors to communicate their concerns to the tour guide. However, when tour groups are broken down into smaller segments led by team leaders, it becomes relatively easy for the tour guide to be informed of any and all concerns raised by each segment of the tour group. As a result, the overall psychological safety of the group improves.

As one employee reiterated:

“In large tour groups, we frequently enlist the help of the teachers or leaders who brought them. We divide the group based on the number of teachers available. For instance, in a group of thirty students with three teachers, each teacher is assigned to ten students within the group, with the tour guide

being the overall overseer. These teachers are there to help us [enforce guidelines and present concerns to be addressed] ... [on the walkway,] I make the assigned leader begin the walk across the bridge, followed by his/her assigned group members, then another leader, and so on. I handle the last group which is usually made up of visitors who are afraid. ... with these assigned teachers, we [tour guides] are able to better provide safety for the group.” [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

This finding is consistent with extant literature, which identifies peers (Frazier et al., 2017; May et al., 2014) and leader (Samra, 2019; Newman et al., 2017) support as key to psychological safety. KNP’s unique approach of incorporating tour leaders in the provision of psychological safety exemplifies what Kuppelweiser and Finsterwalder (2011) refers to as the co-production of psychological safety. Regardless, KNP must devise alternative methods to supplement how they provide psychological safety to large groups, in the absence of team leaders to offer support.

Language was another factor found to influence the provision and experience of psychological safety at KNP. To be more specific, the findings show that communication barriers between employees and visitors reduces group psychological safety. As recounted by one employee:

“If they understand what you are telling them, you can convince them that they shouldn’t worry and that the place is safe ...but if

they don't speak the language, there is nothing you can do for them." [TG8, Female, 27 years experience]

Visitors' experiences further supported findings that language acts as a barrier to psychological safety. In fact, some visitors complained that, while their tour guides provided detailed information to their tour group, it was communicated in a language they did not understand, leaving them unable to grasp what the tour guide was trying to convey. Without information, they had no idea of what to expect so their initial fears and/or risk perceptions persisted throughout the tour. As one visitor narrated:

"I think he told the group [communicated psychological safety information to] ... I am not sure about the exact details because he was speaking in Twi and I am an Ewe so I did not really understand what he was saying."

[KNP39, Male, 26-year-old first-timer]

The above finding is novel, given that language is an unexplored area in psychological safety literature. Language might have never been presented as a barrier to psychological safety because prior psychological safety research has focused on groups with members who speak the same language. Nevertheless, the very nature of tour groups (i.e. often consisting of members with different ethnicity or nationality) makes language an issue of paramount importance to psychological safety at attraction sites. Consequently, KNP employees' disregard for English as Ghana's official language of communication may not bode well for the psychological safety of tour groups. As highlighted in the

preceding narrative, visitors must understand what employees are communicating in order to feel psychologically safe.

Organizational Factors

These are factors that stem from KNP's operational processes, or how things are done institutionally on-site. According to findings, the two organizational factors that influence psychological safety at KNP are group size and tour group age composition.

First and foremost, findings show that tour group size influences psychological safety at KNP in two ways: first, it shapes employees' decision regarding which psychological safety practice to use and second, it influences the standard of psychological safety offered. With reference to employee choice of practice, employees revealed that since not all practices are adaptable to large groups, their choice of psychological safety practice usually varies depending on the number of people in a tour group. In a classic example, one employee illustrated that:

“Leading by example [exemplifying] is best implemented when we [tour guides] walk in front because visitors usually feel comforted when they see somebody in front of them... however, we can't do that with large groups, because we have to assist a lot of people we usually stay behind and coach them.”

[TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

In terms of group size's influence on the standard of psychological safety, employees explained that in tour groups with large numbers, it becomes

comparatively difficult to observe how each visitor behaves in order to identify and successfully implement the right psychological safety practice. In consequence, a fraction of psychologically unsafe visitors in large groups fall through the cracks. As narrated:

“... in a small group [of about eight people], visitors are easy to manage and talk to. But in large groups [of about hundred visitors], it becomes impossible to tell what each individual is doing. You could be talking and a visitor would be doing something different that could hurt others or themselves without your knowledge.” [TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

“We usually pay attention to what visitors are wearing and check if they have the necessary tools to participate in activities when they are in small groups but for large groups usually we can't.” [TG4, Female, 7 years experience]

Some visitors from large tour groups further corroborated the finding that the size of the tour group influences the psychological safety provided by employees. According to such visitors, the size of the tour group they joined prevented them from hearing or seeing the tour guide who was with them. As demonstrated by one visitor:

“Tour guide? I didn't see any tour guide! are you sure there are tour guides here? Where are they? Can you point one out to me? ... I didn't even realize someone was leading the group

... I just followed after the people ahead of me.”

[KNP40, Female, 21-year-old first-timer]

In general, there is no evidence—either empirical or anecdotal—to support the claim that group size influences psychological safety. The most likely explanation for group size's evident influence on the provision and experience of psychological safety at KNP might be the fact that tour groups at KNP frequently vary in size unlike most psychological safety studies which have been conducted on fixed-size groups (teams or organizations).

Age structure was identified as the second organizational factor influencing psychological safety at KNP. According to employees, based on age, KNP visitors can be divided into three groups: the elderly, youth (young adult), and children/kids. In light of this, employees explained that the methods/techniques used to provide psychological safety for each age structure differed. In other words, children receive different treatment than the elderly or youth, and vice versa. Thus, using any one specific technique in groups with different age structures would favour one age structure over the other(s). As a result, such multi-structured groups have less psychological safety on average than those with a single age structure. As narrated:

“Looking at the age structure of a tour group helps us determine how to treat the tour group. In mixed groups like families, where there are young adults [youth], children and very old people [elderly], the treatment is different for each age group.”

[TG3, Female, 5 years experience]

“I look at the age structure, you have to, the differences between them are obvious... children tours are different from adult tours. If they are put together, it becomes complex and a bit challenging for tour guides.”

[TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

Although literature has so far been silent on the influence of age on psychological safety, other individual differences including gender (Atwal & Caldwell, 2005; Martinez, Etchegaray & Thomas, 2015) and personality (Kuo, Ye, Chen & Chen, 2019; Xu, Qin, Dust & DiRenzo, 2019) have been found to influence psychological safety in diverse ways. Nonetheless, age seems to have a distinct influence on the provision of psychological safety at KNP due to the nature of activities (particularly, the hiking component) on offer. This claim further supports an earlier conclusion made by this study that the type and nature of activities offered at an attraction site might have bearing on the provision of psychological safety.

Exogenous Factors

Exogenous factors, in the context of this study, are factors that are beyond the direct control of Kakum National Park (management and employees) and visitors. Three (3) exogenous factors were found to influence the provision of psychological safety at KNP, namely; the time of day, the day of the week and the tourist season.

To begin, findings show that the effort that KNP employees expend towards providing psychological safety varies depending on the time of day.

Employees claim that because visitor arrivals are typically slow and sparse in the morning, they have more time to interact with visitors and ensure that each one is psychologically safe. Afternoons, on the other hand, are frequently very busy due to the high volume of visitor arrivals. As a result, there is often insufficient time to thoroughly ensure visitors' psychological safety. This claim is illustrated in the quotes below:

“... in the morning, this place is slow, so we have time for visitors just this morning, I went on a tour with a group of six visitors. One Caucasian adult in this group spent 5 minutes to complete each bridge. I realized that as more people joined him on the bridge, he grew increasingly terrified because it began to swing more. So, to assist him, I completed each bridge before him, then stood on the platform and talked to him while allowing him to complete each bridge on his own. It took him 35 minutes to complete all 7 bridges.” [TG6, Male, 22 years experience]

“Apart from mornings when the place is leisurely, the place is usually busy because during the day because visitors typically come in groups... it is when the place is not hectic that we get time to talk to visitors and do these things [provide psychological safety].” [TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

The second exogenous factor found to influence the provision of psychological safety at KNP was the day of the week. According to KNP

employees, weekends (Friday and Saturday) are typically busier than the other days of the week (from Sunday to Thursday). In the words of one employee:

"On weekends, this place gets so crowded that we don't always see the last person in our tour group." However, on weekdays, particularly Wednesdays, you will realize that there aren't many visitors around. This is when I get to concentrate better on tour groups." [TG5, Female, 10 years experience]

"[Typically] on weekdays, when we are informed that it is our turn to handle a tour group, we get time to observe the group before we depart." weekdays are when we get to see the tour group we are leading clearly". [TG9, Male, 4 years experience]

The final exogenous factor identified to influence psychological safety was the tourist season. Employees admitted that peak seasons are generally characterized by decreased psychological safety whereas lean seasons allow them enough time to slow down tours. Thus, during lean periods, even large tour groups experience a higher level of psychological safety than some small to medium-sized groups during peak periods (Fridays and Saturdays) when KNP is crowded and hectic. As one employee illustrated:

"It depends on the season. Ideally a tour group should be not more than 30 people, but on holidays like 1st July, we can easily record more than 5000. During one of such periods, I have taken as many as 100 visitors on a tour."

[TG7, Male, 21 years experience]

None of the three exogenous factors mentioned above have been noted to influence psychological safety in the literature, although Poku and Boakye's (2019) findings suggest that visitors generally feel less safe during peak periods. This suggests that rather than being common to all attraction sites, these exogenous factors may be unique to KNP. Furthermore, a closer look at findings pertaining to these factors reveals a recurring pattern, namely variations in visitor numbers. On this basis, the study theorizes that variations in visitor numbers may have an influence on the provision and experience of psychological safety at attraction sites.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presents findings and discussions on the factors that influence the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park, drawing on data from both employees and visitors of KNP. Findings from the study indicate that the provision of psychological safety at KNP is influenced by: individual (level of fear exhibited by visitors, psychological preparedness of visitors and tour guides' prejudice against specific groups), team (support of team leaders and language barrier), organizational (size and age composition of tour groups) and exogenous factors (time of day, day of week and tourist seasons). The next chapter, being the final one, presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations for this study.

CHAPTER TEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter concludes the study. It begins with a summary of the study and then moves on to the major findings of the research. It goes on to discuss the proposed conceptual framework in relation to the study's findings. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of the study's contribution to knowledge, along with recommendations for theory, practice and future research.

Summary

Although there are two dimensions to safety, literature on the psychological dimension of safety has not been forthcoming especially within the sphere of tourism. Thus, this study sought to evaluate the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park (KNP) from the perspectives of management, employees and visitors. Specifically, the study set out to:

1. Examine KNP's institutional arrangements for providing psychological safety;
2. Assess KNP employees' perspective on psychological safety;
3. Analyze the practices for providing psychological safety at KNP;
4. Assess visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP; and
5. Analyze the factors that shape the provision of psychological safety at KNP

The study reviewed six (6) theories, namely; the Social Exchange Theory, Structuration Theory, the New Institutional theory, Value-Belief-Norm Theory, 4Es of Behaviour Change Model and the Cognitive Appraisal Theory. Based on these theories, the conceptual framework underpinning this study was derived.

Situated within a social constructivist paradigm, this embedded single case study relied on three separate In-Depth Interview (IDI) guides to collect transcript data from three (3) managers, ten (10) tour guides, and forty-three (43) visitors from KNP. In selecting participants for this study, the managers were purposively sampled, a census was conducted of all tour guides working at KNP following the COVID-19 shutdown, while visitor participants were sampled using the convenience sampling method.

The initial research instruments for the study were pretested at the Cape Coast Castle from 23rd – 28th of July, 2021. Following this, actual data collection at KNP began on 10th November, 2021 and ended on 18th December, 2021. After manually transcribing and cleaning the data, MAXQDA (2020) was employed to code and analyze the data according to the Clarke and Braun's (2019) reflexive thematic analysis method's guidelines. Findings were presented using a narrative approach, which entails employing direct quotes from the transcribed data to support findings and discussions.

Major Findings

With regard to the first objective, the study found that institutional arrangements (IAs) for providing psychological safety exist at the Kakum National Park (KNP). However, they were at a formative stage and largely as a

result of normative pressure to do what is right for KNP visitors. Despite the absence of formalized IAs, management views proffered eight (8) existing principles for providing psychological safety. These principles were sourced from historical happenings or actual experiences of employees and visitors. Management claimed that employees were sensitized on these principles during training seminars and workshops, monthly meetings, and one-on-one interactions with management. Compliance was intermittently monitored through observation, third-party evaluations and visitor feedback. KNP's management adopted a flat organizational structure and participatory operational strategy for implementation.

The findings of the second objective revealed that KNP employees provided psychological safety to visitors despite having no conceptual or theoretical understanding of the term. Employees were found to be unfamiliar with the term 'psychological safety' although they were sensitized to provide it to visitors. When it came to providing psychological safety, they were found to be motivated by egoistic (job security, self-gratification, reward), altruistic (good conscience, sympathetic concern) and biospheric (reputation, business operations, hospitality culture) values.

Despite claims that it was outside of their official job description, employees still voluntarily assumed responsibility for visitors' psychological safety. They recognized that a psychologically unsafe visitor could jeopardize their source of revenue as well as the reputation of KNP. The study supposed that KNP employees assume moral or ethical responsibility for providing psychological safety outside institutional arrangements.

With respect to the third objective, the study found that KNP employees generally implemented eight (8) practices in the provision of psychological safety. The practices were as follows: providing information, preparing visitors with participation tools, encouraging participation, reproaching discouraging behaviours, providing support, introducing visitors to confidence boosters, listening and giving feedback, and demonstrating the safety of activities.

The findings relating to the fourth objective (that is, visitors' experience of psychological safety at KNP) were generally indistinct. To begin with, visitors expected to feel psychologically safe while onsite, yet not all of them believed that KNP was responsible for ensuring their psychological safety. In recounting their experience of psychological safety, all visitors felt safe because they could freely express their fears and risk perceptions. However, none of them felt seen as significant contributors to KNP since they believed management did not value their views and opinions due to their lack of knowledge about comment books. Furthermore, conflicting views emerged on feeling supported, with an equal number of visitors reporting both being offered support and not being offered support. As a result, the findings were inconclusive.

This notwithstanding, visitors established that KNP's psychological safety practices were effective in reducing their fears and risk perceptions. They identified the following practices as particularly effective in fostering psychological safety: providing information on safety statistics, the maintenance schedule and activities prior to participation; leading by example; maintaining the presence of tour guides throughout the tour; and providing

affirmational support. This suggests that some psychological safety practices are more effective than others.

With regard to the last objective, the study found ten (10) factors that shaped the provision of psychological safety at KNP. Stemming from both employees and visitors alike, they were as follows: level of fear exhibited by visitors, psychological preparedness of visitors, employees' prejudice against specific groups, support of team leaders, language barrier, group size, age composition of tour groups, time of day, day of the week and seasonal variation in visitor arrivals.

Discussion of Conceptual Framework

The study found the proposed conceptual framework useful in assessing the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park (KNP). This framework, which took a three-pronged approach to providing psychological safety, combined six (6) theories representing individual conceptual elements of the study.

To begin with, the framework confirmed Giddens' (1984) position that structure and agency interact to determine the performance or non-performance of behaviour. However, within the KNP context, it emerged that personal norm (which made employees assume voluntary responsibility) took precedence over institutional arrangement (which were generally weak, informal and arbitrarily monitored) in determining employees' behaviour towards providing psychological safety to visitors.

Moreover, practices for providing psychological safety were also found to fit into DEFRA's (2008) adapted model, although slight differences emerged

between the practices that employees prioritized and what visitors found to be effective in ensuring their psychological safety. Regardless, these practices were found to be adequate at various degrees in influencing visitors' cognitive appraisal towards the stimuli presented by KNP.

On the other hand, Lazarus' (1991) theory as adapted for this study did not play out as expected within the KNP context. In general, the cognitive appraisal theory as applied in this study suggested that stimuli (visitors' perceived risks and fears) manifest itself to visitors once they arrive onsite. However, it emerged that due to extensive warnings about the riskiness of KNP and the rumoured fear that its activities incite, visitors began assessing and forming an opinion about the stimuli long before they even arrived onsite, and their cognitive appraisal process ended only when they were required to participate in the activity that inspired their fear or perceived risk. It is for this reason that visitors were still found to have patronized KNP and purchased tickets despite being fearful or perceiving risks.

In contrast to the initial conceptual framework, several factors emerged from the study to shape the effectiveness of KNPs psychological safety practices on visitors' cognitive appraisal process. These factors were also discovered to have bearing of visitors' subjective experience of psychological safety onsite.

As the overarching theory, Social Exchange Theory (SET) adequately demonstrated the provision of psychological safety at KNP in terms of exchange, reciprocity and equity. Indeed, it was confirmed that providing psychological safety within the consumer context of KNP involves a convoluted dyadic relationship between visitors and the attraction site. This relationship

was found to be marked by an exchange of both monetary and relational values, with the attraction site (management and employees) acting as the giver of psychological safety whilst visitors acted as its recipients.

In terms of reciprocity, the study uncovered negligible expectation of returns on the part of both actors. Employees, for instance, felt no compulsion to reciprocate for visitors' patronage of the attraction site because they considered providing psychological safety to be outside their job description. Visitors, on the other hand, had low expectations of psychological safety since only a fraction of visitors expected KNP to cater for their psychological safety onsite. Even though there was no pressure or implied sense of psychological contract involved in the exchange, the attraction site still showed moral obligation towards providing psychological safety to visitors. However, contrary to what SET suggested, KNP's moral obligation was not binding but rather introspectively driven by self-interest.

On the issue of equity, granted that monetary value (specifically, reward) was not forthcoming from visitors and the institutions governing psychological safety at KNP were not robust, power embedded in the exchange was found to be largely in the hands of employees. Thus, employees got to decide when, where, how and in what situation(s) to provide psychological safety. However, given that visitors generally portrayed low willingness to reciprocate directly, opportunity for employees to exploit the relationship was equally low. Below (Figure 8) is a model depicting the consumer perspective on providing psychological safety at Kakum National Park. .

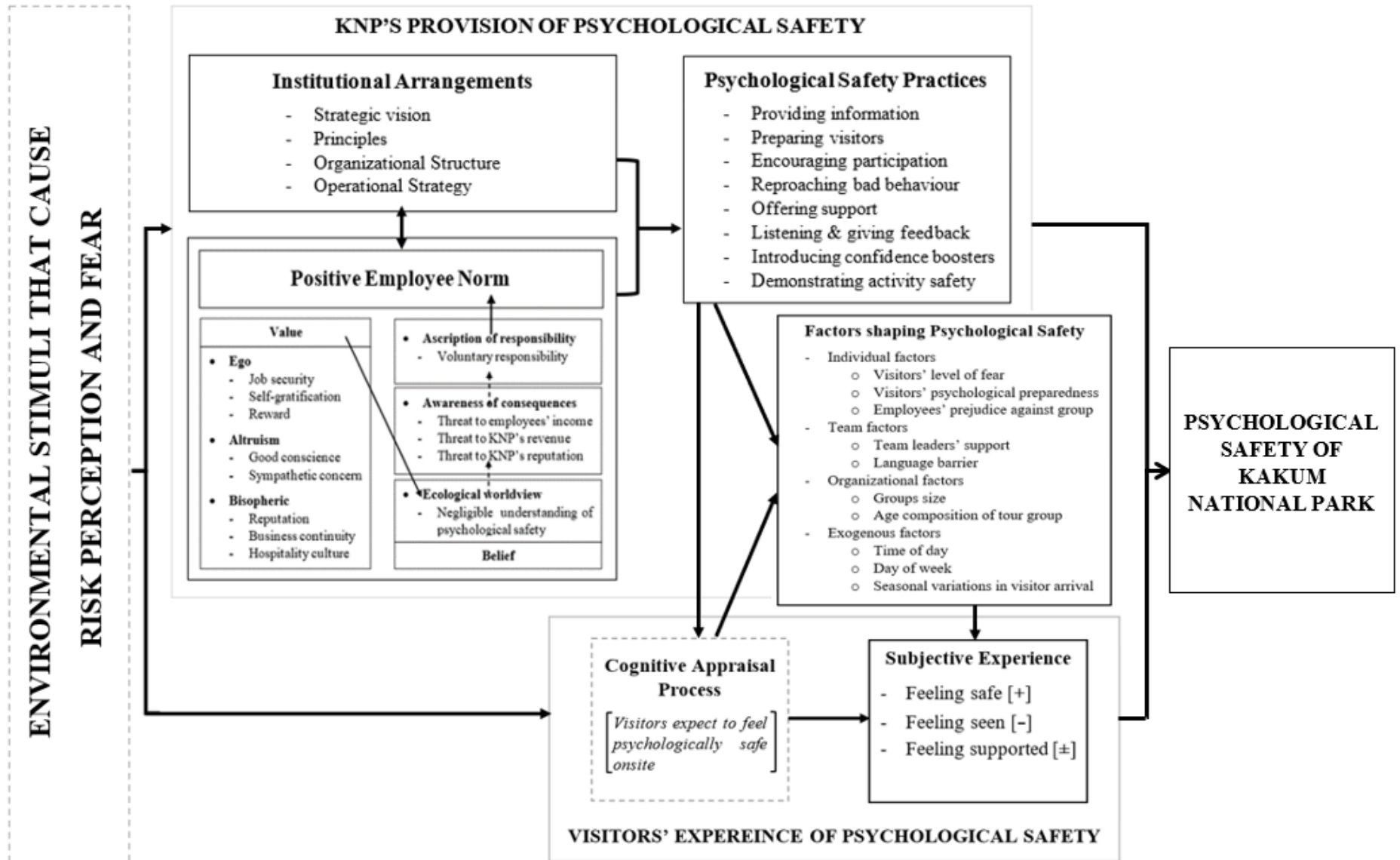


Figure 8: Consumer Context Model for Providing Psychological Safety at Kakum National Park

Source: Moore (2022)

Conclusions

The study reached nine (9) conclusions based on its objectives and subsequent findings. To begin with, institutionalization for the provision of psychological safety to visitors was at its infancy at Kakum National Park (KNP). This was made evident by the absence of a distinct strategic vision for psychological safety, weak and informal institutional arrangements (IAs) which seem more like principles than rules, and the sporadic nature of monitoring for compliance. The aforesaid indicates that although institutionalization for providing psychological safety might be past the stage of rationalized myths, it is still a long way from isomorphism.

Second, the fact that KNP management viewed the provision of psychological safety to be a result of normative pressure (the right thing to do for visitors) seems to imply that to some extent management recognized the importance of psychological safety to its visitors and the facility's general competitiveness.

Third, employees seemed to have a positive mindset towards providing psychological safety. This was demonstrated by the fact that even though they considered it voluntary on their part and independent of KNP's institutional arrangements, they still held high responsibility for its provision. This seems to suggest that with minimal training and education, KNP employees are more likely to assume greater moral or ethical responsibility for providing psychological safety.

Then again, KNP's practices for providing psychological safety appeared to suggest that the physical and psychological dimensions of safety

are interdependent rather than mutually exclusive. Indeed, psychological safety was found to be most pronounced when supplementing physical safety measures.

Fifth, the study provided additional evidence to substantiate earlier claims that demonstration (exemplification) is a common practice among tourist sites that offer adventurous experiences. In fact, KNP employees identified it as one of the most effective and frequently employed practice to convey the safeness of activities onsite.

Furthermore, rather than relying on a single practice, the study found that employees at KNP always combined several practices to provide psychological safety to visitors. Moreover, the decision regarding which combination of practices to implement was found to be highly subjective and based on the tour guide's discretion.

Additionally, when visitors' expectations were juxtaposed with actual safety implementation, there appeared to be gaps in KNP's general conceptualization and implementation of safety. To be specific, management implied that providing safety at KNP encompasses both the physical and psychological dimensions; however, employees did not recognize the psychological safety provision as part of their designated job roles. Moreover, there seemed to be a mismatch between what visitors perceived as safety and what employees intended to provide. This suggests that KNP needs to revisit its general conceptualization of safety, specifically, what it means to provide psychological safety within its premises.

Penultimately, there were barriers moderating the extent to which psychological safety was provided and experienced at KNP. These barriers were discovered to be on an individual, team, organizational and exogenous level. Owing to the fact that psychological safety is an exchange between employees and visitors, these factors were found to apply to both, with the factors limiting employees' provision often affecting visitors' experience of psychological safety.

Finally, the study added to the body of evidence supporting the notion that psychological safety is a dimension of safety, albeit a marginalized one. Several findings served as evidence for this. First, participants lacked comprehensive understanding of the concept. Second, despite management's claims that employees had been sensitized on its provision, there was lack of robust IAs to back its implementation. Third, employees perceived its implementation as voluntary, and were primarily driven to provide it out of self-interest. Fourth, while visitors understood the importance of psychological safety, they were unsure who was responsible for providing it.

In a nutshell, findings from this study contribute to the conclusion that, even though psychological safety is a vague and often overlooked dimension of safety, its importance to the tourism industry should not be underestimated, especially given that the tourism product is a discretionary purchase that is inversely related to insecurity.

Contribution to Knowledge

To begin with, while there are numerous studies on the topic of safety in mainstream tourism literature, there has been relatively less focus on safety measures at attraction sites. More specifically, psychological safety as a dimension of safety has been grossly overlooked, especially when considered from a consumer perspective. At its basis, this study contributes to addressing this dearth in knowledge.

Also, literature has implied the role that institutions and personal norms have on psychological safety. Yet, very little research has been conducted to investigate how institutions and personal norms interact to shape the overall outcome of psychological safety in any given context. This study has provided empirical evidence to this effect, thus filling this knowledge gap.

Furthermore, most studies in literature have examined psychological safety in relationships where power plays an obvious role such as that of supervisor-subordinate and organization-employees. This study, on the other hand, observed the concept in a relationship in which power is almost evenly distributed, namely, the visitor-attraction site relationship. The empirical evidence from this study, therefore, helps to fill this gap in literature.

Finally, this study provides baseline data for future studies into the provision of psychological safety within the consumer context of Kakum National Park.

Theoretical Contributions of the Study

Since psychological safety is a relatively underexplored area in literature, there are no models or theories underlying how psychological safety manifests in the consumer context. This study has attempted to fill this theoretical gap by proposing a model (see Figure 8) that can guide future research on the provision of psychological safety in the consumer context of tourism.

Additionally, psychological safety has thus far been examined from three levels of analysis (namely, the individual, team and organizational perspectives). These studies have been premised on the fact that psychological safety manifests itself within stable bounded relationships. This study, on the other hand, has brought to fore the fact that psychological safety can also manifest within transient relationships such as the one that exists between a visitor to an attraction site and employees of an attraction site.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn from this study, the following recommendations for policy and practice are made to enhance the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park.

To begin with, existing institutional arrangements for providing psychological safety at KNP were found to be weak and informal. To address its shortcomings, management must enhance its robustness. This can be achieved by:

- first, redefining what it means to provide safety at KNP - with particular emphasis on the psychological safety dimension. This would help in establishing a clear vision for providing safety in general and psychological safety in particular at KNP.
- second, developing an institutional policy which outlines formalized guidelines for providing psychological safety onsite. These guidelines (which should be clear, concise and simple to understand) can then be made easily accessible to employees via the facility's website, institutional safety handbook/manual or notice boards.
- third, communicating the rewards and punishments for compliance and non-compliance to psychological safety practices. Management can incorporate these rewards and punishments into KNP's institutional policy for psychological safety and regularly communicate it to employees during staff forums such as their monthly meetings.
- Last but not least, ensuring routine monitoring for practice implementation and following through with corresponding rewards and punishments.

According to the findings of the study, KNP employees assumed responsibility for providing psychological safety despite claims that it was not their designated job. However, management, through their sensitization efforts, suggested otherwise. To clarify this miscommunication while also enhancing employees' responsibility for visitors' psychological safety, it is imperative to establish continuous dialogue between management and KNP employees

regarding the issue of psychological safety. This would serve a threefold purpose. First, it would reinforce employees' understanding of their comprehensive responsibilities as tour guides. Second, it would augment their perceived effectiveness in promoting and providing psychological safety. Finally, it would make them feel more actively involved in shaping KNP into a psychologically safe environment.

Additionally, the provision of psychological safety was found to be heterogeneous and highly subjective, relying primarily on the discretion of tour guides. This may have contributed to the inconsistent findings on visitors' psychological safety. To ensure consistency in the provision of psychological safety, the study proposes that management:

- train employees on how to provide psychological safety to a collective unit (a tour group) as opposed to only individual visitors who exhibit fear or perceive risks.
- educate employees on the detrimental effect of harbouring prejudices against specific groups, which excludes them from receiving psychological safety.
- improve upon the tour guide-to-visitor ratio.
- standardize the pre-participation orientation. To be more specific, it needs to be expanded and intensified especially during peak seasons.

Furthermore, inherent differences emerged in the conceptualization and implementation of psychological safety at KNP. This warrants streamlining of KNP's provision of psychological safety. To accomplish this, management must

realign stakeholder's opinions, expectations and experiences of psychological safety.

- On the part of visitors, management can actively solicit for feedback on their onsite experiences through visible comment boxes, easily accessible visitor logbooks and online reviews. This would not only provide best practices for providing psychological safety onsite, but also make visitors feel welcome and by extension psychologically safe onsite.
- Management must also organize regular capacity building exercises for KNP employees and other third-party contractors working onsite. Capacity building may take the form of stakeholder forums, training seminars and workshops. Through these initiatives, stakeholders can be educated on the intentions and potential benefits of providing psychological safety as well as the consequences of their negligence especially on visitors.

In terms of policy, the findings of this study have implications for governmental agencies involved in tourism development. The study recommends that:

- the Ministry in charge of Tourism should consider updating the existing safety manual for attraction sites, namely, the Tourism (Visitor Sites) Regulations (L.I. 2393), to include the psychological safety dimension.
- the Ghana Tourism Authority, as the ministry's implementing body, should be empowered to look out for the implementation of

psychological safety practices while conducting monitoring activities at attraction sites.

- the National Tourism Development Fund should also make allowances to incorporate psychological safety into their general safety trainings for tourism establishments.

Finally, the study suggests that the psychological dimension of safety should be included in the academic curricula on safety and security taught in tourism institutions. This would stem the marginalization of this dimension of safety.

Recommendations for Future Research

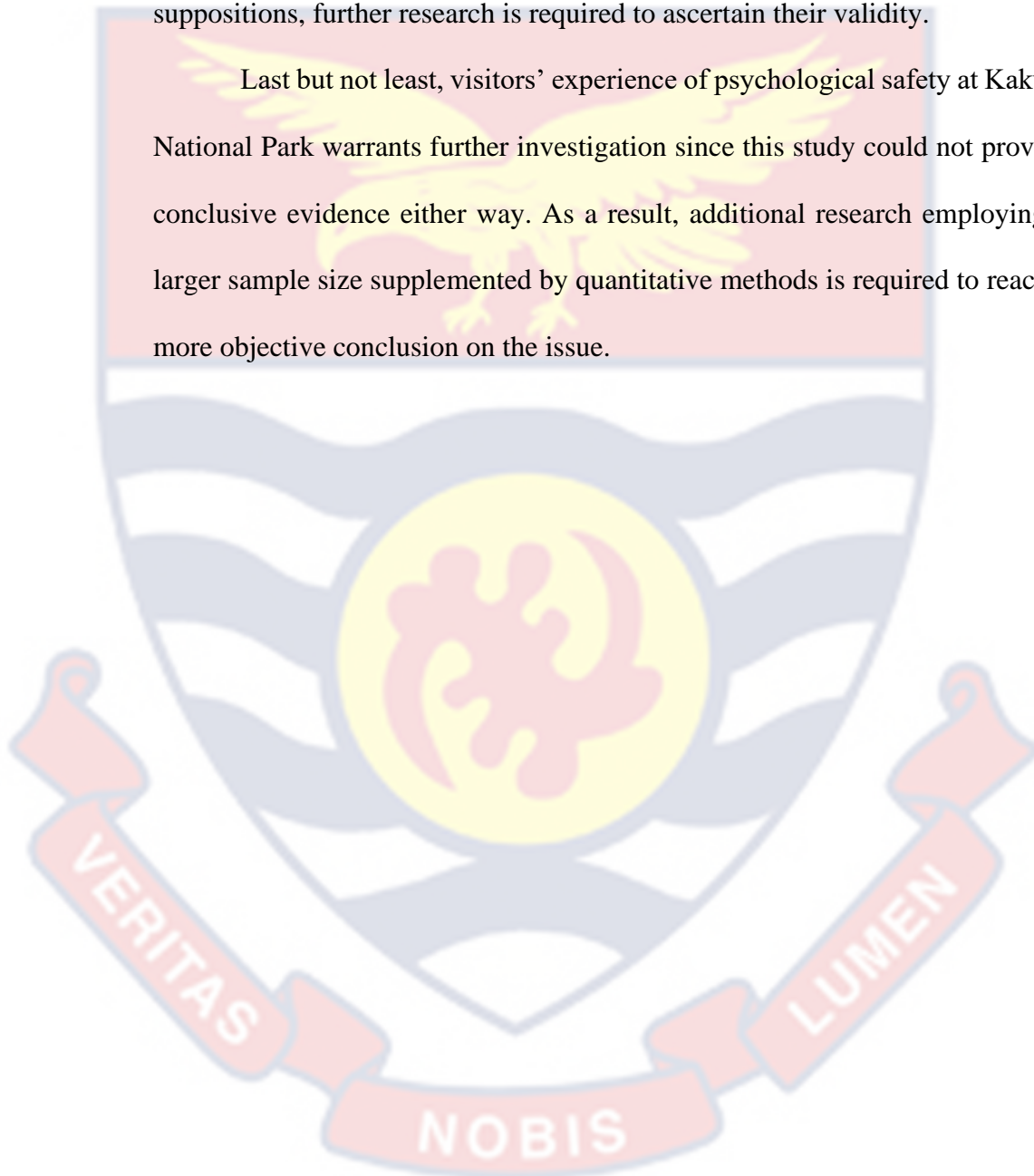
This study advocated going beyond the duty of care; however, it focused solely on psychological safety which has been marginalized in literature. This study, therefore, suggests that further research on safety at attraction sites should attempt to provide a more holistic view that incorporates both the physical and psychological dimensions of safety.

Also, since this study was limited to a specific context (that is, Kakum National Park), it is suggested that additional research should be directed towards validating the findings of this study. For instance, a nationwide study on attraction sites similar in nature to Kakum National Park can be conducted.

Despite its limitations, the study presents some original views on the provision of psychological safety in the consumer context of tourism. For instance, when the findings from the pre-test and actual field study are compared, it seems that the type and nature of activity offered at an attraction

site may act as a predictor of management's provision for psychological safety or lack thereof. Additionally, language, group size and age were found to be barriers to providing psychological safety. Given the novelty of these suppositions, further research is required to ascertain their validity.

Last but not least, visitors' experience of psychological safety at Kakum National Park warrants further investigation since this study could not provide conclusive evidence either way. As a result, additional research employing a larger sample size supplemented by quantitative methods is required to reach a more objective conclusion on the issue.



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APPENDIX A

In-Depth Interview Guide for KNP Managers

Research Topic: Beyond Duty of Care: Providing Psychological Safety at
Kakum National Park

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Mary Acquaye Moore, a PhD student from the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast. As part of my thesis, I am conducting a study on the *Institutional Arrangements put in place for the provision of psychological safety at Kakum National Park* (this instrument forms part of a larger project). Your participation, through partaking in this interview, is paramount to the success of this research.

It is worth noting that the average participant spent approximately 30 minutes to complete the interview. If you should participate, you would be free to withdraw at will. Also, all information provided is solely for academic purposes and would be handled with the highest level of confidentiality and anonymity. Thank you.

Consent: Do you willingly consent to partake in this study?

Section A: Management's Strategic Vision for psychological safety

1. From a management perspective, what constitutes providing safety at Kakum National Park?

Probe: Does it include helping visitors overcome their fears and risk perceptions?

Does it include making sure that visitors *feel* safe onsite?

2. Are you conversant with the term 'psychological safety'?

Probe: Does KNP have a strategic plan for providing psychological safety to visitors?

Why does KNP make the effort to provide psychological safety to visitors?

Section B: Institutions governing Psychological Safety at KNP

3. Are there protocols, rules and regulations on how employees are to relate to/deal with visitors who exhibit fear or perceive risks onsite?

Probes: If yes, what does it entail?

what is the nature of these rules (formal/informal)

where are they sourced from?

how are they communicated to employees?

how are they monitored for adherence or non-adherence?

can you give examples of particular scenarios?

If no,why not?

4. Can you describe KNP's framework for providing psychological safety to visitors?

Probe: Who are the actors and what role do they play?

5. What is KNP's operational strategy for providing psychological safety?

Probe: To what extent are the actors involved in decision making regarding the provision of psychological safety?

What degree of autonomy do employees enjoy in the execution of psychological safety?

To what extent are actors integrated in the provision of psychological safety?

Socio-demographic Characteristics

Sex:

Age:

Position held:

How long have you worked at Kakum National Park?

How long in your current position?

Do you personally participate in any of the Park's activities?

How often?

APPENDIX B

In-Depth Interview Guide for KNP Tour Guides

Research Topic: Beyond Duty of Care: Providing Psychological Safety at Kakum National Park

Dear Employee,

My name is Mary Acquaye Moore, a PhD student from the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast. As part of my thesis, I am conducting a study into the *employees' perspective and provision of psychological safety to visitors at Kakum National Park* (this instrument forms part of a larger project). Your participation, through partaking in this interview, is paramount to the success of this research.

It is worth noting that the average participant spent approximately 30 minutes to complete the interview. Also, should you choose to participate, you will be free to withdraw at will. Furthermore, all information provided is solely for academic purposes and will be handled with the highest level of confidentiality and anonymity. Thank you.

Consent: Do you willingly consent to partake in this study

Section A: Employees' Understanding of Psychological Safety

1. Have you heard about the term 'psychological safety' before?
Probe: What do you think it is about?
2. In your opinion, what is safety at Kakum National Park?
Probe: What does it take to provide safety to visitors?
3. In your opinion, does safety include providing visitors with a *feeling* of protection or helping them overcome their fears or the things they consider to be risky? *Why?*

Section B: Employees' Beliefs about Psychological Safety

4. In your opinion, is it actually possible to protect visitors against (or at least influence) their fears and perceived risks? *Why?*
Probe: Can you personally do it? *Why? / Why Not?*

5. In your opinion, do visitors' inability to overcome their fear or perceived risks have any effect on you?

If yes, in what way? If no, why?

6. Do you think it is part of your job to help visitors overcome their perception of risk or fears when they are onsite? *Why?*

Probe: If no, whose job is it?

7. What motivates you to personally ensure that visitors feel safe onsite?

Probe: Self-interest/moral obligation/safety consciousness/institutional arrangements?

Can you give examples of a particular scenario?

Section C: Psychological Safety Practices

8. What are some of the things you personally do to make visitors feel safe/protected?

Probe: Do you educate visitors about the things they are likely to encounter?

What do you do to help visitors overcome their fears when they become afraid/frightened/scared during an activity?

What do you do when visitors complain about the riskiness of KNP?

Can you give examples of particular scenarios?

Section C: Factors shaping Employees' provision of Psychological Safety

9. What are some of the things (good/bad) that affect your decision/behaviour of making sure visitors feel unafraid during their visit at Kakum National Park?

Section D: Socio-demographic characteristics

Sex:

Age:

Position held: How long have you worked at Kakum National Park?

On the average, how many tours do you partake in within a day?

Probe: How many visitors are in each tour group?

How many do you personally participate in with visitors

APPENDIX C

In-Depth Interview Guide for Visitors

Research Topic: Beyond Duty of Care: Providing Psychological Safety at
Kakum National Park

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Mary Acquaye Moore, and I am a PhD student from the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast. As part of my thesis, I am conducting a study on the *visitors' experience of psychological safety at Kakum National Park* (this instrument forms part of a larger project). Your participation, through partaking in this interview, is paramount to the success of this research.

It should be noted that, on average, participants spend 30 minutes to complete this interview. Also, should you choose to participate, you will be free to withdraw at will. Furthermore, all information provided is solely for academic purposes and will be handled with the highest level of confidentiality and anonymity. Thank you.

Consent: Do you willingly consent to partake in this study?

Section A: Visitors' experience of psychological safety onsite

1. What do you think safety at KNP is about?

Probe: What do you expect in terms of safety at Kakum National Park?

2. Do you expect that KNP employees would help you cope with your fear or the things you consider to be risky? *Why?*

Section B: Experiencing Psychological Safety

Feeling safe

3. During your activities onsite, did you feel that you could freely voice out your concerns regarding safety, fear or perceived risks?

Probe: Did you actually voice out any concerns?

If yes, can you tell me about it? If no, why not?

Feeling seen:

4. Do you think expressing your discomforts/concern/opinions regarding the site's safety or your perceived risk/fears matter to KNP's management? *Why?*

Probe: Are you aware of any formal means through which you can voice out your discomforts/concern/opinions regarding experience onsite? If yes, what are they? If no, did you ask about it?

Feeling supported:

5. In general, have KNP's employees made you feel that they value your safety?

Probe: In what way? Can you give examples of a particular scenario where you were offered support by an employee?

Section C: Efficacy of KNP's Psychological safety practices

6. Did you feel unsafe or vulnerable during any part of your experience onsite?

Probe: If yes, what caused the lack of psychological safety?

What are some of the things that decreased your experience of psychological safety onsite?

What specific things did the site's employees (particularly your tour guide) do to make you feel safe?

Section D: Socio-demographic characteristics

Sex: Age:

Highest Level of Education Attained: Country of Origin:

Is this your first time visiting KNP? How long are you staying onsite?

Are you part of an organized tour group or alone?

What is the current purpose for your visit to Kakum National Park?

What activities did you patronize onsite?

APPENDIX D

PROFILE OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

A. Profile of Managers

Code	Sex	Age	Education	Duration of employment	Duration as Manager
KPM1	Male	48	Undergraduate degree	10 years	4 years
KPM2	Male	35	Post graduate certificate	10 years	2 years
KPM3	Male	35	Undergraduate degree	4 years	1 year

Source: Fieldwork (2021)

B. Profile of Employees (Tour Guides)

Code	Sex	Age	Education	Duration of employment	Affiliated Agency	Tours per day	Visitors per tour group
TG1	Male	61	O' Level	27 years	FC CTG	1-3	1-200
TG2	Male	41	A' Level	3 years	FC CTG	1-3	1-100
TG3	Female	35	SHS	5 years	FC CTG	1-4	1-100
TG4	Female	37	SHS	7 years	FC CTG	1-3	1-200
TG5	Female	40+	A' Level	10 years	GHCT TG	1-2	1-50
TG6	Male	50+	A' Level	22 years	FC CTG	1-3	1-120
TG7	Male	45	A' Level	21 years	FC CTG	1-4	1-200
TG8	Female	47	A' Level	27 years	GHCT TG	±1	1-50
TG9	Male	23	SHS	4 years	GHCT TG	±1	1-200
TG10	Female	25	SHS	4 years	GHCT TG	1	1-100

Source: Fieldwork (2021)

FC CTG – Forestry Commission Community Tour Guide

GHCT TG – Ghana Heritage Conservation Trust Tour Guide

SHS – Senior High School

C. Profile of Visitors

Code	Sex	Age	Education	Times Visited	Traveling in:	Country of origin	Purpose
KNP1	Female	25	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP2	Male	18	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP3	Male	23	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP4	Male	35	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP5	Male	31	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP6	Female	25	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP7	Male	30	Tertiary	FT	Alone	Ghana	Recreation
KNP8	Male	25	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP9	Female	31	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP10	Female	45	JHS	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP11	Male	23	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP12	Male	25	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP13	Female	21	Tertiary	RT	Group	Holland	Recreation
KNP14	Male	27	Tertiary	FT	OT	Switzerland	Recreation
KNP15	Female	23	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP16	Male	29	Tertiary	FT	Alone	Ghana	Recreation
KNP17	Female	25	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP18	Male	57	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP19	Male	22	Tertiary	RT	Alone	Ghana	Recreation
KNP20	Male	21	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP21	Male	29	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP22	Male	19	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP23	Male	45	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP24	Female	23	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP25	Male	25	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP26	Female	20	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP27	Female	25	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP28	Male	55	Tertiary	RT	Group	USA	Recreation
KNP29	Male	33	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP30	Female	46	JHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP31	Male	29	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP32	Female	19	SHS	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP33	Male	30	SHS	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP33	Male	29	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP35	Male	19	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP36	Male	27	Tertiary	FT	Group	Nigeria	Recreation
KNP37	Male	44	Tertiary	FT	Alone	Ghana	Recreation
KNP38	Female	23	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP39	Male	26	Tertiary	FT	Alone	Ghana	Recreation
KNP40	Female	21	SHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP41	Female	31	JHS	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP42	Male	46	Tertiary	RT	Group	Ghana	Recreation
KNP43	Male	32	Tertiary	FT	Group	Ghana	Recreation

Source: Fieldwork (2021)

JHS – Junior High School; SHS- Senior High School; FT- First timer; RT- Repeat Visitor

APPENDIX E

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309

E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/R/1/1289

9TH NOVEMBER 2021

Ms. Mary Acquaye Moore
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
University of Cape Coast

Dear Ms. Moore,

COMMENTS ON YOUR RESEARCH PROTOCOL

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has approved your request for ethical clearance to conduct a research titled "*Beyond the Duty of Care: Providing Psychological Safety at Kakum National Park*". The approval is subject to you considering the comments below and making the necessary revision in your current protocol:

1. Provide the site for pre-testing and justify the choice of this site.
2. Explain, in practical terms, how you would implement the proposed ethical issues of right to participate, informed consent, non-discrimination, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality.
3. Time for data collection, cleaning, analysis and reporting should be revised to reflect current timelines.
4. Provide separate informed consent for management, staff and the tourists.
5. You have indicated in the section on possible risks and discomforts that "*To control this effect, the researcher will pause the interview*". Please note that the harm might have already occurred before you decide to pause the data collection. Kindly provide information on how this would be addressed.
6. Under checklist, "YES" should be ticked since vulnerable persons like pregnant women and the elderly may also be eligible for participation in your research.

You are required to revise your protocol by incorporating the above comments, highlight on all corrections effected in the revised work and a soft copy of the revised protocol to the UCCIRB Administrator for the Board's consideration. Please provide us with a write up on how you have affected the change.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'S. Owusu'.

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST