Tourists' Happiness

through the Lens of Positive Psychology

thesis submitted by

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STATEMENT ON SOURCES

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institution of tertiary education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

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STATEMENT ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF OTHERS

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I recognise the JCU Ethics Committee for ensuring that all research conducted for this PhD thesis met ethical standards and received approval.

DECLARATION ON ETHICS

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted within the guidelines for research ethics outlined in the *National Statement* on *Ethics Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (1999), the *Joint NHRMC/AVCC Statement and Guidelines* on *Research Practice* (1997), the *James Cook University Policy* on *Experimentation Ethics, Standard Practices and Guidelines (2001),* and the *James Cook University Statement and Guidelines* on *Research Practice (2001).* The proposed research methodology received clearance from the James Cook University Experimentation Ethics Review Committee (H 2186; category 1).

Sebastian Filep Date

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Abstract

The purpose of the thesis is to contribute to knowledge in tourism studies by linking fresh concepts from psychology to tourist behaviour studies. The research field is called positive psychology and stems from organised initiatives by mainstream and prominent psychologists since the year 2000. The broad aim of positive psychology is to investigate what makes life worth living and the central preoccupation is with what human happiness means and how it can be measured.

The thesis is divided into six chapters. Following an introductory chapter on happiness, a detailed literature review covers key themes of positive psychology, youth travel, cultural tourism, tourist motivation, tourist satisfaction and methodological creativity. Each of the themes is divided into smaller sections in which recent and salient works are discussed. Knowledge gaps related to the overall theme of tourist happiness are identified in the review of these themes. To close the gaps, the thesis then addresses three questions:

1) How can a positive psychology approach to understanding human motivation contribute to a sound theory of tourist motivation?

2) How can flow state methods from positive psychology contribute to a better understanding of tourist satisfaction?

3) How can the answers to the first two questions contribute to a conceptualisation of a happy tourist?

Three studies are presented and analysed through a positive psychology lens in chapters 3, 4 and 5 to broadly address these questions. The studies analyse the experiences of a group of Australian study-abroad university students in relation to their travel year in Spain. The first and the last studies were conducted in Sydney and the second study was conducted in Spain. The first is a motivation study which consisted of a smaller qualitative investigation and a separate quantitative, supportive study. Travel motives of the student group were investigated qualitatively through an analysis of "a perfect day" at a destination. Using personal narrative essays, travel motives of relationship/belonging, safety/comfort, curiosity/mental stimulation and self-development were identified through this positive psychology lens. In the supportive context study, motives of a group of backpackers were investigated through motivation scales. It was shown that the students' travel motives

are similar to the motives of these other youth travellers. The essay approach thus eases the measurement of motivation. It is shown that through descriptions of perfect days similar travel motivations can be uncovered as in a more complex survey. By simplifying the measurement (employing the simple question which is universal in its application and is not culture, age nor gender specific) the positive psychology approach contributes to a sound theory of tourist motivation.

The second study is an analysis through in-depth interviews of the students' immediate conscious experiences at Spanish cultural heritage sites. The aim of this study was to identify immediate satisfaction themes from on-site experiences of the students at these sites. It is shown that the students' immediate satisfaction is characterised by challenge-skill balance, total concentration, autotelic (intrinsically rewarding) events, time transformation and the related themes of mindfulness, object focus, personal experience, calm/tranquility and discovery. It is further demonstrated that the flow model from positive psychology was useful in uncovering this layer of satisfaction and that it contributes to the overall picture of tourists' happiness.

The last study is an analysis of the students' memorable experiences in Spain. These experiences were analysed through personal narrative essays. It was found that the satisfaction themes of challenge-skills balance and autotelic events featured in the students' memorable experiences. Evidence of eudaimonia and surprise was also uncovered. These themes, together with those identified in the motivation and the on-site study further contribute to the exploratory picture of tourists' happiness.

The sixth and final chapter recaps the contribution of the three studies and presents a preliminary overview of tourists' happiness. Tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology is a product of the travel motivations for relationships and belonging, safety and comfort, curiosity and mental stimulation and a motive for personal development. The tourists' happiness is also about the on-site and memorable experience themes identified in the satisfaction studies. These tourist experience themes are all linked to the three dimensions of happiness from positive psychology: meaning, engagement and positive emotions. It is recommended that future tourism research relevant to the issue of tourists' happiness and the positive psychology field should be conducted. Suggested future research studies are: a challenge-skill balance study, a positive emotions and meaning study, a positive psychology study on tourism education and a study of benefits of travel to tourists' health.

Presentation Note

The thesis document is formatted according to the official James Cook University thesis guidelines for a Doctorate of Philosophy (PhD). Under such guidelines, candidates are encouraged to publish sections of their theses before they are formally submitted for examination. If the study chapters of the thesis are presented as a series of published papers they should be presented in a coherent format (not be reprints bound together). The intellectual thread that connects the chapters should be signposted in the introduction and summarized by way of synthesis in the general discussion. Chapter 5, therefore, includes a refereed, published paper that was solely written by the author. A short preface precedes the paper and a final statement follows from the article to tie it in with the rest of the thesis. Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 do not include refereed publications.

Aspects of this thesis research have also been presented in academic publications other than the refereed paper included in the thesis. These other research outputs are:

1. Filep, S. (2007) 'Flow', Sightseeing, Satisfaction and Personal Development: Exploring Relationships via Positive Psychology. In I. McDonnell, S. Grabowski, and R. March (Eds.), *2007 Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) CD-ROM: Tourism - Past Achievements, Future Challenges.* Sydney, Australia: University of Technology, Sydney.

2. Filep, S. (2007) Measuring immediate experiences: Flow state methods and tourist satisfaction. *The Extraordinary Experiences Conference*, 3-4 September. Bournemouth, UK: Bournemouth University.

3. Filep, S. (2008) Linking Tourist Satisfaction to Happiness and Quality of Life. *BEST Think Thank VIII – Sustaining Quality of Life through Tourism*, 24 - 28 June. Izmir, Turkey: Izmir University of Economics: IN PRINT

4. Filep, S. (2008) Measuring Happiness: A New Look at Tourist Satisfaction. In S. Richardson, L., Fredline, A. Patiar, and M. Ternel (Eds.), *2008 Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) CD-ROM: Tourism and Hospitality Research, Training and Practice: Where the 'bloody hell' are we?* The Gold Coast, QLD, Australia: Griffith University.

5. Filep, S. and Greenacre, L. (2007) Evaluating and Extending the Travel Career Patterns Model, *TOURISM – An International Interdisciplinary Journal* 55 (1): 23-38.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Aims	The overall aim of this chapter is to discuss in detail the concept of happiness. This concept is interpreted through the lens of positive psychology. Happiness is therefore conceived as a product of positive emotions, meaning and engagement.
Chapter Structure	Following a foreword, a discussion of the various interpretations of the happiness concept is presented. Two core criticisms of happiness research in positive psychology are then dismissed. These are that happiness cannot be measured and that it is not a worthy scientific pursuit. The chapter concludes with an analysis of related contemporary concerns in tourism – the concepts of wellness and welfare. This analysis leads to a detailed literature review in Chapter 2.
Conclusions	The chapter concludes with a table that illustrates how the tourist experience is tied to the happiness paradigm. By ascertaining travel motivations and satisfaction of a group of tourists at three phases of their travel experience, an exploratory picture of tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology will be created in this thesis.

Background

Happiness has been studied in different disciplines for centuries. Strong evidence exists that psychological and philosophical studies of happiness began in China, India and Greece nearly 2,500 years ago with Confucius, Mencius, Buddha and Aristotle. These were among the first thinkers to deal with questions of ethics and purpose in life, which are inextricable from the quest for greater happiness (History of Happiness, 2008).

This thesis is a small addition to understanding the complex concept of happiness. It presents an analysis of travel motivation and travel satisfaction of a group of 20 male and female study abroad university students from the University of Technology Sydney (UTS) in Australia through three main related studies. The meaning of the tourists' happiness is understood through these motivation and satisfaction analyses. As motives and satisfaction themes are tied to three dimensions of happiness from positive psychology - positive emotions, meaning and engagement – the studies are psychological and micro in character. While other theses may focus on evaluating research respondents in detail or evaluate places where research studies are conducted, this thesis focuses on evaluating cognitive and affective psychological states. The thesis thus delves into the tourists' minds to understand motivation, satisfaction and hence happiness from the positive psychology perspective. The rationale for this focus is that detailed psychological analyses of how tourists think and feel before, while or after they experience something are very few in tourism studies and there is hence a need to fill this knowledge gap.

In psychology, the comprehensive happiness research began in the 1960s (Maslow, 1962; Erikson, 1963). Since then, there have been over 3,000 published papers on Subjective Well Being (SWB) (that is, the hedonic conceptualisation of happiness) and the number of publications is increasing exponentially (The World Database of Happiness, 2008). Despite insights from humanistic psychology (Maslow, 1954; 1962; Erikson, 1963; 1982), it was not until the year 2000 when literature on happiness started flourishing in the discipline (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This contemporary enthusiasm is seen in the emergence of positive psychology as a growing area of research within psychology (Ortega, 2008). It is through this lens that happiness is later analysed and that aspects of tourist behaviour are understood in this thesis.

Tourism is no foreigner to happiness. Ancient Greeks and Romans travelled vast distances for pilgrimage purposes and ancient sporting events (Towner, 1995). The aim was essentially to improve well being by nurturing spirituality (which can be linked to the meaning dimension of happiness), or in the case of the sporting events, develop belongingness and kinship with communities. From the 11th century onwards, people started travelling to country houses to satisfy their hedonic needs and rejuvenate (examples are the rais of Algiers on the Sahel hills and Chinese pleasure houses with water gardens and groves). Then there is a history of spa tourism in England where people travelled for well being between the 1550s and 1820s. More recently, Graburn (1989) described modern tourism as the sacred journey or the spirit quest which serves to provide fulfillment lacking in ordinary daily lives. These themes of fulfillment, spirituality, rejuvenation, well being and belongingness are common “happiness” research topics in positive psychology (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The long history of tourism, however, might also be said to be about happiness for not just elites or special interest groups. Towner (1995) shows that contrary to common beliefs, the spa phenomenon in the 16th century England or the country houses in China were not simply the preserve of the wealthy.

What is Happiness?

- **Linguistic Interpretations**

Griffin (2007) points out that happiness, as a word in the English language, may not always have the same exact sentiment in other languages. He therefore mentions the ancient Greeks who interpreted happiness as eudaimonia, the literal sense of having a good guardian spirit or the state of having an objectively valuable life. On the other hand, the term happiness in the

English language stems from the noun “hap”. Hap means what just happens, chance or luck. It could be good or bad. Later on, however, happiness came to mean having good hap (Griffin, 2007).

There are further linguistic issues in the current use of the word. In a common present use, happiness is related to one’s situation (one is fortunate) and one’s state of mind (one is glad, cheerful, content). In this sense, to be happy is to be glad or satisfied or content (a subjective evaluation) with having a good measure of what one regards as important in life (an objective evaluation). These two elements, situation and state of mind, can appear in different proportions in different cases. At one extreme, a martyr can go happily to the stake with a serene conviction of doing God’s will. At another extreme, a person can be elated for a few moments before realising how unfavourable the situation really is.

- **Happiness Across Nations and Cultures**

The linguistic differences are closely linked to cultural variations. That is, different cultures may interpret happiness in distinct ways. A qualitative study using a folk psychology approach explored what Chinese people think about happiness (Lu, 2001). One hundred and forty-two undergraduate students wrote free format essays in response to a simple open-ended question, “What is happiness?” Using thematic analysis, four main themes were found:

(1) Happiness by the Chinese, or at least by these Chinese students, can be defined in terms of (a) a mental state of satisfaction and contentment; (b) positive feelings/emotions; (c) a harmonious homeostasis; (d) achievement and hope; and (e) freedom from ill-being.

(2) Happiness is a harmonious state of existence, under the following conditions: (a) the individual is satisfied or content; (b) the individual is the agent of his or her own happiness; (c) spiritual enrichment is emphasized more than material satisfaction; and (d) the individual maintains a positive outlook for the future.

(3) The relationship between happiness and unhappiness is dialectical. These two distinct entities are locked in a never-ending relationship of interdependence: each depends on the other for contrast and meaning. This relationship between the two opposites is also dynamic and constantly changing; and,

(4) Happiness can be achieved, provided that one has the following abilities: (a) the wisdom of discovery; (b) the wisdom of contentment and gratitude; (c) the wisdom of giving; and (d) the wisdom of self-cultivation (Lu, 2001).

Clearly, happiness is complex and elusive with a range of subtly different meanings across cultures. The first comparison of happiness amongst nations took place in 1948 and involved 9 countries (Buchanan, 1953). A second comparative study in 1960 included 14 nations (Cantril, 1965) and this was followed by a global survey in 1975 carried out by Gallup (1976) in which happiness in all parts of the world was assessed. At present, there is comparable data on happiness in 90 nations, and for a dozen nations, there are also time series of 25 to 40 years (The World Database of Happiness, 2008). These data provide the fuel for a rising number of publications on happiness in nations. Currently, 20% of all published literature in the Bibliography of Happiness was released in the period from 1999 to 2004. Most of these focused on the level of happiness in nations; that is, on how happy citizens are in a country. As with the Chinese data presented above, most of the cross-national and cross-cultural studies show that happiness is a combination of both hedonic (feeling related factors) and eudaimonic (personal growth, spiritual and human flourishing) factors (The World Database of Happiness, 2008).

- **Gross National Happiness**

Another common interpretation of happiness is the one in which the concept is explained in terms of Gross National Happiness (BBC, 2006). Gross National Happiness is defined as the degree to which citizens in a country enjoy the life they live. Individual happiness can be measured by self-report on a single standard question. Hence Gross National Happiness can be measured by the average response to such a question in general population surveys. Survey data on average self-report of happiness can be combined with estimates of life-expectancy based on civil registration. The resulting index denotes how long and happy people live in a country and can be expressed in a number of Happy-Life-Years (HLY). Comparison across present day nations shows huge differences on this indicator, HLY varying between 63 (Switzerland) and 21 (Moldavia). About 80% of these differences can be explained by variation in societal characteristics, such as economic development, political system and mutual trust. HLY also varies over time. During the last decade, HLY rose in Western nations but plunged in the former Soviet nations. It is argued that HLY is the best available indicator of Gross National Happiness (Veenhoven, 2004).

- **Five Different Views**

There are also philosophical interpretations. A philosopher, Haybron (2000), suggests that there are five views on exactly what happiness is in social sciences. The best known are the life satisfaction and hedonistic theories. The former refers to an overall appreciation of one's life, while the latter reduces happiness to a balance between pleasure and displeasure (Sen, 1992; Wilson, 1967). The remaining three conceptualisations of happiness are less prevalent. The third approach, the affective state view, regards happiness as a subject's emotional state. This view is different from hedonistic theories in the sense that it incorporates emotions and moods themselves, whereas the hedonistic theories only include experiences – pleasant versus unpleasant ones. The affective state view also includes predispositions to emotions and moods and thus further differs from the above approaches (Haybron, 2000). The fourth view is the perceived desire satisfaction account. This approach analyses happiness in terms of the perceived satisfaction of one's desires. That is, to be happy is to believe that most of one's desires are being or have been satisfied. Lastly, there are hybrid views (Diener and Diener, 1998). According to this perspective, happiness is a combination of life satisfaction and affective or hedonic states.

- **Subjective, Objective and Normative Dimensions**

Other researchers distinguish between subjective, objective and normative dimensions of the happiness concept (Smith, 2005). Many current explorations of happiness link the concept to subjective well being (Ryan and Deci, 2001). This mostly hedonic dimension is typically based on the view that one can be feeling good and feeling bad and that people can identify and talk about happiness in this context. Layard (2005, p.12) points out:

"By happiness I mean feeling good - enjoying life and wanting the feeling to be maintained. By unhappiness I mean feeling bad and wishing things were different. There are countless sources of happiness and countless sources of pain and misery. But all our experience has in it a dimension that corresponds to how good or bad we feel. In fact most people find it easy to say how good they are feeling, and in social surveys such questions get very high response rates... The scarcity of 'Don't knows' shows that people do know how they feel, and recognize the validity of the question.... Most of us take a longish view. We accept the ups and downs and care mainly about our average happiness over a longish period of time…."

On the other hand, objective dimension of happiness is commonly linked to developments in brain and gene research. The objective view is that there are certain happiness facts which can be established through hard science (Lykken, 1999; Martin, 2005). Such investigations, for instance, are showing that:

1) Genetically, people have a predisposition to a certain level of happiness. This genetic predisposition may account for approximately 50 per cent of the variation in happiness (Shah and Marks, 2004).

2) Life circumstances, such as possessions, relationships and income also matter but account for 10 per cent of the variation in happiness.

3) Intentional activities – such as socialising, doing meaningful work, reflecting upon and savouring life and exercising – account for 40 per cent of the variation in happiness (Shah and Marks, 2004).

The problematic issue is that people only possess limited power over both subjective and objective factors (Smith, 2005). Noddings thus states: “We do not choose the conditions into which we are born and all sorts of contingencies plague human life“(2003, p. 25).

There is also a normative dimension to happiness. This dimension fits in with Plato’s, Socrates’ and Aristotle’s philosophy which suggests that happiness is about doing good deeds for one’s own self and for others. That is, “they wanted to define happiness in a way that makes it independent of health, wealth, and the ups and downs of everyday life” (Noddings, 2003, p. 9). Happiness was not seen as episodic or momentary, but as a concept that referred to the whole life (Smith, 2005). In this normative writing, however, two different conceptions can be discerned – the comprehensive view and the intellectualist view. The comprehensive view focused around eudaimonia and allowed for some contingencies. Eudaimonism is an ethical theory that asks people to behave in accordance with the daimon or true self. The concept resembles the notions of personal growth, development and human flourishing (Waterman, 1993). Eudaimonia is further explained in the literature review and Chapter 5. By way of contrast, the intellectualist normative view argued that theoretical or contemplative thought is happiness instead of eudaimonia. Contemplation involves mulling over facts and ideas that the person already possesses. This is how a prominent British philosopher describes the intellectualist view:

"The Aristotelian contemplator is a man who has already acquired knowledge; and what he is contemplating is precisely this knowledge already present in his mind...The contemplator is engaged in the orderly inspection of truths which he already possesses; his task consists in bringing them forward from the recesses of his mind, and arranging them fittingly in the full light of consciousness " Barnes (1976, p. 38).

Thus, the intellectualist view was seen as the highest form of human activity. It was the ultimate intellectual virtue: a life of unbroken contemplation being something divine. This reasoning has later had an impact on education. According to this intellectualist view, some education topics and subjects are more valuable and carry a higher status than others (Smith, 2005).
What seems broadly similar between the subjective, objective and normative dimensions and the above interpretations is that happiness is as much about feeling good as it is about reasoning and thinking. In other words, irrespective of cultural variations, happiness is not just about hedonic pleasure (BBC, 2007; Veenhoven, 2004). Following a very thorough review of happiness literature by Seligman (2002), positive psychology conceptualises this complex construct in similar terms - hedonically as well as cognitively.

- **Happiness in Positive Psychology**

Within positive psychology, happiness is conceptualised according to Seligman's (2002) authentic happiness theory of the pleasant life, the good life and the meaningful life. The pleasant life maximises pleasurable and positive experiences. It includes positive emotions about the past, present, and future. Frederickson (2001) has identified four core positive human emotions: love, interest, joy and contentment. The good life results when people develop their virtues and strengths in activities that they are passionate about. This second domain consists of using positive individual traits, including strengths of character and talents and is commonly linked to the notion of engagement. The character strengths are qualities which are considered virtuous across cultures and historical eras (e.g. valour, leadership, kindness, integrity, originality, wisdom) (Seligman, 2002). The meaningful life results when individuals apply their strengths in activities that contribute to the greater good, such as parenting, developing friendships or servicing the community. It is argued that positive traits and positive emotions best develop through positive institutions. As meaning derives from belonging to and serving something larger than oneself, a life led in the service of positive institutions is the meaningful life (Duckworth, Steen and Seligman, 2005).The positive emotions, engagement and meaning model is also discussed in chapter 6 and the other chapters.

Within this broad happiness framework, clusters of research have formed dealing with the following topics in positive psychology: resilience, flow, positive emotions, self esteem, emotional intelligence, emotional spirituality, creativity, personal control, mindfulness, optimism, hope, self-efficacy, problem solving, goal setting, wisdom, pursuit of meaningfulness in life, humour, mediation, spirituality, positive organisational scholarship, positive ethics, authenticity, humility, closeness, compassion, forgiveness, gratitude, love, empathy and altruism, moral motivation (Snyder and Lopez, 2002).

This list of core positive psychology areas is not exhaustive but represents the diversity of research topics covered under the happiness umbrella. Many mainstream and prominent psychologists have started to recognise the importance of examining positive constructs and are making progress in the scientific study of happiness. Nevertheless, they are facing some criticism. Two core criticisms have emerged, as recently outlined by Norrish and Vella-Brodick (2007). The first criticism is mostly methodological and states that happiness cannot be measured. The second is paradigmatic and states that happiness is not worthy of scientific study. It can be asserted that both criticisms can be dismissed. The evidence to take this position is detailed in the following sections.

Measurement of Happiness in Positive Psychology

- **Subjective Well Being and Positive Emotions**

Positive emotions measures are typically tied to subjective well being measurement. Subjective well being is “a person's cognitive and affective evaluation of his or her life “(Diener, Lucas and Oishi, 2002, p. 63). Some of the more common subjective well being measures include the Satisfaction with Life Scale by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985), the four-item Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky and Lepper, 1999) and the Fordyce Happiness Measures (Fordyce 1988). These measures are all self report measures and correlate well with one another (*r*'s about 0.8). They also correlate highly with expert ratings, experience sampling measures, reports of family and friends, memory for positive versus negative life events and amount of smiling (Duckworth *et al,* 2005; Sandvik*,* Diener and Seidlitz, 1993). These self-report scales may be particularly appropriate, as individuals have a privileged position in evaluating their own experience of well being. Where possible, however, a multi-method approach may be more appropriate. This multi-method approach could reduce memory bias or the possibility of response bias. In clinical psychology, researchers have used informant reports,

diaries, structured interviews, or other supplements to self-report questionnaire to identify positive emotions (Duckworth *et al*, 2005).

In tourism studies, studies of positive emotions are scarce. One rare study that has assessed positive tourist emotions has measured emotions through emotion wheels (Pearce, 2007). In qualitative tourism analyses, descriptions of interest, love, contentment and joy could be searched for in travellers' stories or interviews. For joy, evidence of playing, pushing the limits and being creative can be considered by researchers. For interest, descriptions of urges to explore, take in new information and new experiences, and expand the self can be investigated. For contentment, descriptions of sitting back and savouring current life circumstances can be analysed. Finally, evidence of experiencing the above three emotions in close relationships could uncover the love emotion. The love emotion is defined by Fredrickson, (2001) as experiencing joy, interest and contentment in a close and tight relationship. Coding cross checks could be conducted with several researchers to ensure congruence in findings. These measures could support the quantitative assessments of positive emotions.

- **Engagement and Strengths of Character**

Engagement can also be measured. The engaged life consists of using one's strengths and talents to meet challenges (Duckworth *et al,* 2005). Flow is the experience associated with engaging one's highest strengths and talents to meet just-doable challenges (Csikszentmihalyi 1975; 1990). The state of flow and the state of engagement are therefore highly similar concepts. The flow state is the focus of much of this thesis and literature relating to it is discussed in detail in the literature review and elsewhere in the thesis. Several self-report assessment strategies exist for measuring flow. Common techniques are semi-structured, in depth, flow interviews (for example, Cszikszentmihalyi and Robinson 1990), dispositional flow state scales and flow state scales (Jackson and Eklund, 2004) or the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) (Csikszentmihalyi and Larson 1987). These measures are critically evaluated in chapters 4 and 5.

In addition to flow, the engaged life also includes employing talents, interests and strengths in an optimal way. In 2004, Peterson and Seligman devised the Classification of Strengths document (Duckworth *et al*, 2005) aimed at embellishing the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* (*DSM*) of the American Psychiatric Association (1994). The original DSM had a number of limitations that the authors try to reduce or eliminate by adding the classification of strengths.

Some of these shortcomings were lack of attention to the individual's setting and culture and overly heterogeneous diagnostic entities. The classification by Peterson and Seligman proposed 10 criteria for the 24 human characteristics of the hundreds initially considered that were determined to be strengths of character (Duckworth *et al,* 2005). The strengths are organised into six virtues. These virtues are broad categories of moral excellence that emerged consistently from historical surveys in various cultures. The six virtues are: wisdom and knowledge, courage, love, justice, temperance, and transcendence. Two self-report inventories, the Values in Action Inventory of Strengths and the Values in Action for Young People, have been refined and validated using very large samples (n = 200,000) of English-speaking respondents who accessed the surveys on the Internet (Authentic Happiness website, 2008). Qualitative assessments are also available. A content analysis strategy of scoring character strengths from open-ended written or spoken material has been developed. This strategy has extended the scope of character strengths measurement beyond surveys (Park and Peterson 2006a; 2006b; 2006c). Lastly, there are measures of meaning.

- **Meaning**

The meaningful life, as previously stated, is an attachment to, and the service of, something larger than oneself. Common ways of people finding meaning in their lives are through religion, family and friends or through work if it is not considered a chore. Creative and inspiring jobs where people are challenged are commonly meaningful to people (Baumesiter and Vohs, 2002). Duckworth *et al* (2005) point out that the choice of context wherein individuals seek meaning is subjective and often idiosyncratic so the methods for measuring meaning are commonly open-ended and qualitative.

Davis, Nolen-Hoeksema and Larson (1998) and Gardner, Csikszentmihalyi and Damon (2001) have investigated meaning-making through in-depth interviews that allowed for exploration of a variety of topics and McAdams, Reynolds, Lewis, Patten and Bowman (2001) have developed a two-hour interviewing technique in which participants are asked to consider their life as if it were a book. Participants describe specific scenes, including a high point, a low point, a turning point, and an earliest memory, as well as important scenes from childhood, adolescence, and adulthood (Duckworth *et al*, 2005). After that, the respondent is asked about relevant characters in the story, future chapters and life-story motifs and messages.

A second qualitative measure is a written narrative about a significant life event, a life transition, or a period of struggle (Bauer and McAdams, 2004; Pennebaker, 1997). Evidence exists about the physical and psychological benefits of writing about traumas and periods of struggle (Smyth 1998). Through positive psychology research, however, there is now new evidence on the positive benefits of writing about highest moments. Participants who write about these moments show enhanced positive mood and they find these writing activities important and engaging (Burton and King 2004). In an indirect manner, meaningful experiences can be uncovered. Burton and King adopted Maslow's (1962) instructions to flesh out meaningful experiences from their respondents:

"Think of the most wonderful experience or experiences in your life, happiest moments, ecstatic moments, moments of rapture, perhaps from being in love, or from listening to music, or suddenly "being hit" by a book or painting or from some great creative moment. Choose one such experience or moment. Try to imagine yourself at that moment, including all the feelings and emotions associated with the experience. Now write about the experience in as much detail as possible trying to include the feelings, thoughts and emotions that were present at the time. Please try your best to re-experience the emotions involved" (2004, p.155).

Through guiding quotes like these, in a written or oral way, through positive emotions scales and measures of character strengths or via flow state methods, happiness is clearly measurable in positive psychology. These measures are not perfect, just as measures of other phenomena are not perfect in social sciences (Veenhoven, 2003). Seligman (BBC, 2007), however, points out that the quantitative measures of happiness are statistically as strong as measures of depression. Further, as happiness is a conscious state of mind, people can be encouraged to talk about it or write about it (Veenhoven, 1991).

Why is Happiness Worthy Pursuing?

The second criticism that happiness is not worthy of scientific pursuit can also be dismissed. There are many reasons why happiness is worth pursuing. Two core reasons are that happiness is linked to mental and physical health and that it fosters resilience.

- **Health and Psychological Resilience**

King and Pennebaker (1998) and Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) are among a growing community of psychologists that support the view that there is a positive association between

health and happiness. If happiness leads to better health then pursuing happiness may be an important strategy in the prevention of illness and suffering (Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007).

Human happiness is associated with both physical and mental health. As much as this link resembles common wisdom, there is now empirical evidence that supports this common assumption. Of notable interest is the work of Barbara Frederickson and her colleagues on the interrelationship between health and positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001; Frederickson and Branigan, 2005). Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) found that positive emotions serve to alleviate the cardiovascular after effects of negative emotions. These negative effects include increased blood pressure, increased heart rate and increased vasoconstriction. In a separate study, Fredrickson, Mancuso, Branigan and Tugade (2000) found positive emotions partially reversed the adverse cardiovascular effects of anxiety. It is also argued that positive emotions contribute to psychological well being via more effective coping (Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007). Individuals who experience positive emotions are more likely to find meaning in negative events. This meaning-making in turn leads to greater positive emotions and increases coping capacity. The core of the approach identified here has been labeled the broaden and build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001). In line with the broaden and build theory of positive emotions, there is an "upward spiraling" effect of positive emotion and broadened thinking.

Further, longitudinal research on optimism has revealed that individuals with positive views of aging tend to live longer. Seligman (BBC, 2007) mentions that optimists generally outlive pessimists by 8-9 years. In the abovementioned study of writing intensely positive experiences (IPEs), Burton and King (2004) report that health buffering effects were found for writing about IPEs. Hershberger (2005) further argues that the positive psychology work on gratitude, capitalisation, satisficing and character strengths has potential applications to medical education, physician well being and patient care.

Analogies with the health and happiness interrelationship can be found in tourism. In a recent paper on the relationship between positive psychology and tourist behaviour studies, Pearce (2007) cites an excerpt which details a prescription made by a prominent physician in Victorian England, the Queen's personal doctor, to one of his patients:

"a continual change of scene and climate, together with unrestrained exercise of his mental and physical powers prolonged for a period of at least three years " (Pearce, 2007, p.18).

The patient for which the prescription was made was John Holman, a well known traveller and travel writer who later became blind from optic nerve damage. A friend of Charles Darwin, Joseph Conrad and Charles Dickens, John Holman was a celebrity in Victorian England. The connection between tourism and health thus has an interesting history and quite possibly an important future, argues Pearce (2007). Tourism might also serve as a contributor to health and should be included in these links. This relationship is further explored in the concluding chapter.

Clearly, the linkages between health and happiness exist and present a strong argument that happiness is a worthy scientific pursuit. Aligned with the link between happiness and health is the interrelationship between happiness and psychological resilience. Recent research shows that individuals can use positive strategies, such as humour and optimistic thinking, as a resource in times of stress and adversity (Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) label this resource building as development of psychological resilience. From this perspective, investigating happiness is a worthy scientific pursuit because it attempts to prevent and alleviate suffering and facilitate psychological resilience. In one study, resilient American college students were tested before and after the September 11, 2001 attacks. Due to this resilience, they still managed to experience gratitude, interest, love, and other positive emotions despite of the attacks. Meditational analyses showed that these positive emotions buffered trait-resilient individuals against depression (Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007).

A major contribution on psychological resilience is the above referred broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 2001). According to the theory, positive emotions, such as joy, interest, love and contentment, encourage individuals to engage in so-called approach behaviours. These approach behaviours are behaviours such as participating in social interactions or initiating new goals and activities. The approach behaviours broaden people's physical, intellectual, psychological and social resources in different circumstances. As such, experiencing positive emotions may contribute to psychological resilience and growth, as individuals have more resources at their disposal in times of adversity (Fredrickson, 2001). On the other hand, experiencing negative emotions, such as fear and anger, may reduce people's tendency to use approach behaviours, leading to narrower thought-action repertories. In a study by Fredrickson and Branigan (2005), respondents were shown film clips aimed at inducing negative emotions like fear and anger, positive emotions like contentment and joy; and a non-emotion evoking control. The participants were divided into three corresponding groups. Participants in the positive emotions group identified a broader range of activities than participants in the negative emotion or neutral groups. Respondents in the negative emotion group also identified a

narrower range of activities than participants in the neutral, control condition. Other research has also found that the experience of positive emotion is related to flexible, creative and open patterns of thought (Isen, 2000). These results strengthen the premise of the broaden-and-build theory: experiencing positive emotions influences individuals to consider a broader range of actions, thus improving resilience. On the contrary, experiencing negative emotions means that individuals consider a narrower range of actions, thus reducing their capacity for resilience (Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007).

In addition to health and resilience, there are other reasons why happiness is a worthy scientific pursuit. These are not limited to, but include evidence that : 1) happiness is a foundation of success; 2) happiness is linked to environmental sustainability; 3) happiness strategies have positive implications for interpersonal relationships and for the greater community; and 4) happiness has potential advantages for national policy.

- **Success, Relationships, Environment, National Policy**

Lyubomirsky, King and Diener (2005) have reviewed cross sectional, experimental and longitudinal research on the relationship between happiness and success (success can be defined as resource building and involvement with goals).Through this review they found that a common assumption is that success leads to happiness. Lyubomirsky *et al* (2005) reversed this assumption and found that happiness leads to increased success in life domains: happy people are more likely than less happy people to have successful relationships, good work performance, high incomes and good health. There is now empirical evidence that happy individuals are successful across multiple life domains such as friendship, income and work performance and marriage. Further, there is research that suggests that happiness is strongly linked to many environmental factors, one of which is air pollution. These are of growing interest to world business leaders and governments (Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007). Welsch's (2006) research found that air pollution plays a statistically significant role as a predictor of inter-country and inter-temporal differences in subjective well-being. The effect of air pollution on well-being translates into a considerable monetary value of improved air quality.

Thirdly, the happiness strategies promoted by leading researchers may also have positive effects for the greater community. Thoits and Hewitt (2001) have suggested that involvement in volunteer work (which could possibly involve volunteer tourism) contributes to happiness by facilitating social bonds and providing individuals with feelings of self-respect. Indeed, close and

supportive interpersonal relationships have consistently been found to be positively related to human happiness (Diener and Seligman 2004).

Lastly, happiness is a worthy scientific pursuit, as it has potential advantages for national policy. A growing body of research suggests that increased national economic wealth is not the best strategy for improving happiness. After a certain point, national wealth does not correlate with happiness and this poses a challenge to politicians who tie happiness to wealth (Diener and Seligman 2004). The notion of Gross National Happiness has already been mentioned and Bhutan is leading the way in integrating this measure in national policy making (BBC, 2006). More research on happiness is therefore required to show how happiness can be increased. Diener (2006) has published a set of "Guidelines for national indicators of subjective well-being and ill-being" and started obtaining a list of signatories from prominent people working in the field.

Related Contemporary Concerns

In this tourism thesis, the value of investigating happiness is strengthened by the fact that related concepts, such as wellness and welfare, are receiving increased attention by the industry and the tourism academic community. Other comparable notions, such as well being and quality of life are also receiving more attention in tourism studies than before. They are analysed in the literature review as they better fit under the positive psychology rubric.

- **Wellness**

The notion of wellness stems from the works of American physician Herbert Dunn, who coined the terms after combining the notions of well being and fitness (Arola and Suontausta, 2005). Other definitions (Schobersberger, Greie and Humpeler, 2004) similarly describe wellness in terms of physical activity combined with relaxation of the mind and intellectual stimulus or a fitness of the body, mind and the spirit. The much cited definition is the one by Müller and Lanz-Kaufmann (2001) who define wellness as the balanced state of body, spirit and mind, including self-responsibility, physical fitness, beauty care, healthy nutrition, relaxation, mental activity and environmental sensitivity.

This notion is therefore, just like happiness, closely aligned to health. A special academic interest group on the Spa and Wellness tourism has been formed by the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) (ATLAS, 2008). Much of the research conducted by

the group focuses on health aspects of going on a holiday. Spirituality, fulfillment and physical health topics predominate. A detailed book on Wellness and Health Tourism was recently released (Smith and Pucskó, 2008). The tourism industry has also started recognising the potential of holidays to serve as a way of rejuvenation, both spiritually and physically. Health focused holidays account for over 15% of the total European international holiday market (Arola and Suontausta; 2005). An industry report (Global, Travel and Tourism Analyst, 2004) has summarised 7 factors that contribute to the growing interest in wellness by travellers from the economically developed world:

1) the aging of an increasing percentage of the population and the needs of these consumers that are directed at health;
2) an increased promotion of healthy lifestyles focusing on maintaining and improving good health;
3) shifts from passive to active health and emphasis on personal responsibility for making lifestyle choices and self-care decisions;
4) stress in a 24/7 world requiring opportunities to slow down;
5) the spread of health awareness in terms of body and mind function and an integration of alternative medicines with conventional medical approaches;
6) increased traveller sophistication - tourists who are experienced, quality conscious and independent are seeking meaningful and personal experiences;
7) the changing role of women in modern societies and their likelihood to prefer wellness holidays more than men.

In sum, much of the interest in wellness tourism is a result of changes taking place well outside the tourism world, such as social changes, changing gender roles and general lifestyle changes. The tourism industry and the tourism academic community is clearly responding to these forces.

- **Welfare**

Welfare is a similar concept that has recently been discussed in tourism studies and one which is increasingly of concern to the tourism industry. A comprehensive analysis of tourism welfare was conducted by Hall and Brown (2006). The contents of the book therefore require some attention.

The authors' purpose was to present a welfare-centred approach to tourism that focuses on improving the conditions of humans, animals and the planet's natural environment. Hall and Brown argue that the welfare-centred approach differs from the dominant, business-centred tourism paradigm. This is because the business approaches tend to focus on profit maximization, commonly at the expense of the planet's living species and natural environments (D'Sa, 1999). They argue that welfare is a concern that is relevant to both alternative and mass forms of tourism and that it needs to be underpinned by ethical principles, responsibility and accountability. In these contexts, the authors discuss issues such as access and participation in tourism by marginalised groups, health benefits and stresses of travelling, risks and responsibilities of going on holiday, work-life balance in the tourism industry, the land ethic and animal rights in addition to other concerns. The book also has a chapter on pro-poor tourism. This chapter examines poverty reduction development strategies and discusses the role that tourism employment plays within these strategies. It is argued that tourism employment is often not the most appropriate tool for poverty alleviation. As it is promoted by Western government and non-government departments, pro poor tourism is frequently no more than a route to the economic hegemony of the First World countries over the Third World countries (Hall and Brown, 2006).

In many ways, Hall and Brown's text raises similar concerns to those commonly raised by the critical tourism community (Ateljevic, Pritchard and Morgan, 2007). Critical tourism scholars also investigate issues of power and ideological dominance in tourism, also stressing the need for greater welfare concerns (as will be seen in the literature review). A key weakness of the text, however, is a lack of measurement approaches to the welfare concept. Without the measurement discussion, Hall and Brown's book could not adequately explain how the welfare approach could be assessed and/or monitored by governments or the tourism industry.

Extending the "goodness" paradigm

Despite the challenges of operationalisation and measurement, it is evident that the concepts of welfare and wellness are important to the tourism industry and the tourism academe. Analyses of happiness, however, are lacking in the tourist behaviour literature (Pearce, 2007). It is understood that such a complex concept cannot be investigated holistically in a single thesis. Even so, this thesis expands on the thrust of this contemporary research and aims to present an exploratory picture of tourist happiness through the lens of positive psychology. Happiness could be seen as an additional component of the "goodness" paradigm, complementing and

building upon the works on welfare, wellness and similar notions in tourism research and practice.

It will be shown in the first thesis study that positive psychology perspectives on motivation can embellish tourist motivation research. The second and third study will show that works on flow and engagement can further tourist satisfaction research, namely on-site experience measurement and measurement and conceptualisation of memorable travel experiences. As such, this thesis follows the three phases of the tourist experience – the anticipatory motivation phase, the on-site, events phase and the memory and reflection phase (Larsen, 2007). By analysing the motivation and satisfaction of travellers in these three phases an exploratory picture of tourists' happiness will emerge. A skeleton of this picture is presented in table 1.1. This table representing tourists' happiness through positive psychology will be filled in with the findings from this PhD project in the concluding chapter.

Table 1.1: Tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology

Happiness	**Anticipation**	**On site Experiences**	**Reflections**
Positive Emotions (love, interest, joy, contentment)			
Engagement			
Meaning			

Three broad questions will therefore be answered in this thesis and the answers will be summarised in the above happiness table:

1) Can a positive psychology approach to understanding human motivation contribute to a sound theory of tourist motivation (answered by the motivation - anticipation - studies in chapter 3)?

2) How can flow state methods from positive psychology contribute to a better understanding of tourist satisfaction (answered by the satisfaction - on site and reflections - studies in chapters 4 and 5)?

3) How can the answers to the first two questions contribute to a conceptualisation of a happy tourist (answered by all the studies and reported in chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6)?

As these are broad questions of the thesis, more specific questions or aims are mentioned in the research chapters. Room will however, be left for further positive psychology research in tourist behaviour. This future research could focus more on the meaning and positive emotions elements of happiness instead of engagement, as in this thesis, an engagement model called flow, is widely used. The future research could also focus on tourist behaviour themes other than motivation and satisfaction. Ideas for this future research are presented in detail in chapter 6. Before the studies are described and the conclusions are drawn, the literature review highlights core knowledge gaps from which the specific research questions are formed.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Aims	The aim of this chapter is to thoroughly and critically review the literature which is related to the core themes of this PhD project. These are positive psychology; youth travel; cultural tourism; tourist motivation; tourist satisfaction; and methodological creativity. A further aim is to flesh out the knowledge gaps in these areas and hence allow the research questions to emerge. These research questions will be answered in the three studies (chapters 3, 4 and 5) and the findings will complete the exploratory happiness table.
Chapter Structure	Structure for the review is first presented in more detail. The literature related to each of the core six themes is then analysed thoroughly. Every section is further divided into smaller themes. For example the positive psychology section consists of a discussion of the history of the movement, current developments and future directions. Literature on quality of life and subjective well being is also reviewed under this topic. Other sections of the literature review follow similar divisions into themes and sub themes.
Conclusions	The chapter ends with a set of knowledge gaps relevant to the topic of tourists' happiness. These are: that there is a lack of research on tourist experiences of youth travellers in cultural settings; that conceptualisation and measurement of tourist motivation and tourist satisfaction could be further improved; and that application of happiness concepts and methods through post-positivist and mostly qualitative approaches is a useful way of filling these knowledge gaps in tourism studies.

Review Structure

Now that the core theme underpinning the thesis has been introduced, discussion turns to a more specific analysis to identify knowledge gaps and associated research opportunities. The literature review discusses six specific themes:

- positive psychology,
- youth travel;
- cultural tourism;
- tourist motivation;
- tourist satisfaction; and
- methodological creativity.

A discussion of positive psychology literature is provided to expand and build upon the issues raised in the Introduction and analyse other relevant topics, such as quality of life and well being. Youth travel and cultural tourism are contexts through which the positive psychology

ideas are presented in the research studies of this thesis. Youth and cultural tourism also offer potentially interesting insights for positive psychology given that youth is a time in life typically associated with major transitions, a search for meaning and self-actualisation and that cultural tourism experiences can be enriching and meaningful (Richards, 2001; Richards and Wilson, 2003, 2004). A review of the youth travel and cultural tourism literature is therefore included, although the research studies in this thesis are not directly focused on further understanding these concepts. Motivation and satisfaction literature is thoroughly analysed because the thesis delves into the tourists' minds to understand motivation, satisfaction and hence happiness from the positive psychology perspective. Lastly, a section on methodological creativity highlights a need for greater methodological diversity in tourism studies and justifies the positive psychology methodology applied in the study chapters. A summary of core knowledge gaps is provided at the very end.

Works discussed in the literature review are recent and/or salient works in the field that are related to the project. All the literature related to every theme is not covered. Instead, the review covers core contemporary issues and current research trends under each theme. By formatting the review in this way, the thesis is theoretically grounded within the contemporary literature, knowledge gaps are made more explicit and discussion of non-relevant literature is avoided. The orientation of the thesis on travel psychology topics has also favoured reviews of mostly tourism works and studies from psychology, as opposed to works from other social sciences. The literature from the aligned field of leisure, which also covers topics of satisfaction, motivation and well being (Cohen, forthcoming), has therefore not been extensively reviewed. Although related, tourism studies and leisure studies "departed from very different theoretical perspectives and formulated diverse research programs and problems. Tourism and leisure researchers rarely relate to each others' work" (Cohen, forthcoming, p.1). Although leisure as a free time activity is a prerequisite for modern tourism, travel is its distinguishing mark which makes it into an extraordinary activity (Graburn, 1989). This makes tourism different from everyday leisure activities which do not involve travel. Further, tourism typically involves a break from routine into relatively unfamiliar surroundings, whereas leisure activities are normally shorter, repetitive and more familiar (Cohen, forthcoming).

The following topics are therefore covered:

Positive psychology

- Past
- Present
- Possible future
- Quality of life
- Subjective well being

Youth travel

- Backpacking
- Student travel

Cultural tourism

- Definition and trends
- Types
- Cultural tourism in Europe
- Experience industry and contemporary cultural tourism

Tourist motivation

- Human motivation and needs
- Tourist motivation phases
- Exploration
- Debate
- Transition

Satisfaction

- Expectations approaches
- Nordic approaches
- Experience approaches
- Mindfulness
- Existential authenticity
- Tourist moment
- Slow Time
- Aesthetic experience
- Restoration
- Flow

Methodical creativity

- Dominance of positivism
- Ethnomethodology
- Feminist research and memory work

- Projective techniques
- Biographical research
- Action research
- Critical realism and flow state methodology

The studies which follow from this review aim to close literature gaps and thus contribute to knowledge. As stressed in the Introduction, the overarching contribution is the new insight to tourism studies from the field of positive psychology and happiness research.

Positive psychology

Positive psychology's contribution to understanding happiness was discussed in the Introduction. The following section presents a further, albeit a non-exhaustive, review of this growing field. This overview also fleshes out potential future trends. The field and/or its methods are also discussed in the three study chapters and in the Conclusions and Future Directions section.

- **Past**

Positive psychology has many prominent ancestors and some contemporary cousins. The discussions in the Introduction have pointed to philosophical roots in the teachings of Socrates, Plato, Aristotle and other thinkers about the notion of the good life. Later on, mostly during the 19th and 20th centuries, psychological traditions in psychoanalysis, behaviourism, humanistic psychology, cognitive therapy and existential psychology contributed to current understanding of the positive dimensions of human existence (Duckworth, Steen and Seligman, 2005). Some notable works are those of Freud (1933) on the pleasure principle, Jung's (1955) ideas on spiritual and personal wholeness, Frankl's (1984) work on finding meaning under dire human conditions or Adler's discussions of healthy individual strivings motivated by social interest (1927).

Perhaps most notable of these traditions is humanistic psychology and the academic humanist movement (Resnick, Warmoth and Selin, 2001). Rogers, Maslow, Murray, Allport and May or the so called fathers of humanistic psychology (Duckworth *et al*, 2005), have dealt with the questions of good life, individual growth and achievements, authenticity or personal responsibility building (Sheldon and Kasser, 2001). Of central interest is Maslow's work on self actualisation, which is a state in which people have access to the full range of their talents and

strengths. Maslow (1954) also used the term positive in his seminal chapter entitled: “Toward a Positive Psychology” in his Motivation and Personality book. Continuing in the humanistic tradition, Jahoda (1958) made the case for studying psychological well being in its own right and not as an absence of disease and distress. Duckworth *et al* claim: “….Jahoda provided a framework for understanding the components of mental health (rather than mental illness)” (2005, p.633). Jahoda (1958) identified six processes that contribute to mental health: growth/development/becoming, integration of personality, autonomy, accurate perception of reality, environmental mastery and acceptance of oneself.

In terms of the more contemporary cousins, related works are those on self-efficacy by Bandura (1989), broader conceptions of intelligence by Gardner (1983) and Sternberg (1985), studies of giftedness, genius and talent by Winner (2000) or quality of life studies of psychiatric patients (Levitt, Hogan and Bucosky, 1990). Nevertheless, Gable and Haidt (2005) point out that before the year 2000, the start of the positive psychology era (Seligman and Csikzentmihlayi, 2000), most studies in this discipline dealt with depression, racism, violence, trauma, suicide, irrationality and growing up under adversity. Much less was known about character strengths, virtues, civic engagement and conditions leading to happiness. Gable and Haidt point to a comment on the situation in psychology before the new millennium: “In one metaphor, psychology was said to be learning how to bring people up from negative eight to zero but not as good at understanding how people rise from zero to positive eight” (Gable and Haidt, 2005, p. 103).

- **Present**

Today, the imbalance in psychology is slowly readjusting. In the 2005 issue of the American Psychologist, Seligman, Steen, Park and Peterson provided a detailed review of positive psychology progress. They report that, since the seminal introduction of positive psychology (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), literally hundreds of articles have appeared in the scholarly and popular press on the topic. Related books have also began to appear: The Handbook of Positive Psychology (Snyder and Lopez, 2002), A Psychology of Human Strengths (Aspinwall and Staudinger, 2003), Authentic Happiness (Seligman, 2002), Flourishing (Keyes and Haidt, 2003), Positive Psychological Assessment: A Handbook of Models and Measures (Lopez and Snyder, 2004), Positive Psychology in Practice (Linley and Joseph, 2004), Character Strengths and Virtues: A Handbook and Classification (Peterson and Seligman, 2004) and others. More recent books can be added to the literature repertoire after Seligman *et*

al' s (2005) review. Some of these are: A Life Worth Living: Contributions to Positive Psychology (Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi, 2006), Handbook of Methods in Positive Psychology (Ong and van Dulmen, 2006), A Primer in Positive Psychology (Peterson, 2006), Positive Psychology Coaching (Biswas-Diener and Dean, 2007), The How of Happiness (Lyubomirsky, 2007), Happier (Ben-Shahar, 2007) or, the just released, Happiness: Unlocking the Mysteries of Psychological Wealth (Diener and Biswas-Diener, 2008).

Meetings, centres and courses on positive psychology are flourishing. Well attended scholarly meetings and conferences regularly occur. In October 2004, over 390 psychologists from 23 countries attended the Third Annual International Positive Psychology Summit (Seligman *et a*l, 2005). In 2007, a major positive psychology in business conference in London attracted much attention by academics, industry leaders and the general public (University of East London, 2007). In 2008, a Happiness and Its Causes conference was sold out in Sydney, Australia and is to be held again on 14 and 15 May, 2009 (Happiness and Its Causes, 2009). An aligned event was held in Singapore in November, 2008. The first World Congress on Positive Psychology is to be held in June 18-21, 2009 in Philadelphia, USA**.** The first Australian positive psychology conference was held in 2008, complementing a series of successful academic events in Asia, Europe and New Zealand (International Positive Psychology Association, 2008; Australian Positive Psychology Association, 2008, The New Zealand Association of Positive Psychology, 2008; Positive Psychology Centre in Asia, 2008).

Research centres and university courses are also developing. Seligman *et al* (2005) reported that the Positive Psychology Network funds more than 50 research groups involving more than 150 scientists from universities all over the world. This figure may be higher for 2008 and 2009. In 2005, 2006 and 2007 dozens of scientists and scholars gathered to discuss work on five major projects: 1) productivity and health as a function of happiness, 2) national well being indices, 3) spirituality and successful aging, 3) psychological capital, 4) positive psychology websites in Mandarin and Spanish and ultimately for all major language groups. English language websites in positive psychology are already burgeoning, together with a positive psychology listserv. The work of the scientists in these 4 areas is steadily progressing. In terms of the university courses, the first Masters degree on positive psychology started in September 2005 at the University of Pennsylvania. Within one month of announcing the existence of the degree, over 200 applications were filled. Today this university is only one of many offering similar postgraduate courses. Positive psychology was the most popular undergraduate subject

at Harvard University in 2006 (The Boston Globe, 2006). There is also a teaching task force at the Positive Psychology Center (2008) working on disseminating positive psychology curricula in high schools and colleges.

Due to such popularity, research funders have been generous and have made substantial grants to support scholarly research and the dissemination of the findings. Some major funding organisations have included: Atlantic Philanthropies, the Annenberg Foundation, Sunnylands Trust, the Mayerson Foundation, the Templeton Foundation, the Hovey Foundation, the Gallup Foundation and various national government departments (Seligman *et al*, 2005).

- **Possible future**

Despite its current rise and past progress, positive psychology faces a number of future challenges. The movement has been criticised by a number of scholars (Shapiro, 2001; Bacigalupe, 2001; Walsh, 2001, more recently Held, 2004; and Gable and Haidt, 2005). If it is to sustain itself in the future it should deal with criticism effectively. The earlier critics argued that positive psychology is too Western centric, even racist in its alleged non-representation of people of colour. Commenting on Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi's (2000) seminal introduction, Bacigalupe asked: "Where in this issue were the writers who speak about the histories, courage, challenges and success of people of colour?…little was offered towards deconstructing how, in hosting such a relevant theme, the major journal in the field simply kept the perspective of psychologists of colour silenced and invisible" (2001, p.83). Walsh emphasised the facts that the seminal paper omitted insights from non-Western psychologies and therapies, such as the Indian psychologies of Buddhism and yoga. These criticisms, however, are losing strength as positive psychology marches towards the future. Due to such large expansion of this movement, there is now a significantly richer plethora of cross-cultural and racially mixed perspectives and insights in this field than in the year 2000 (International Positive Psychology Association, 2008; Positive Psychology Centre in Asia, 2008).

There are two bigger challenges for the future. The first is methodological. Ryff (2003) calls on positive psychology to properly map out the domain of optimal human functioning. The future task is to thoroughly understand the factors that build strengths, outline the context of resilience, delineate the functions of positive relationships and understand the role of positive experiences. There is also a need to understand how all of these factors contribute to physical health and flourishing institutions (Gable and Haidt, 2005). Cleary, such an investigation of complex issues

calls for methodological improvements and diversity. A full spectrum of methods available to psychologists can be utilised in this type of research. Unfortunately, it appears that Shapiro's (2001) comment that positive psychology ignores some relevant qualitative empirical research still partially holds true. Indeed, a review of the literature shows that the research in positive psychology has commonly been dominated by a strict positivist tradition of deducing complex phenomena such as happiness and well being to a set of scales without an in-depth investigation. The exception to this rule are some works on flow, subjective well being and measures of meaning (Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi, 2006; Duckworth *et al*, 2005). By embracing a greater richness of methodological approaches, positive psychology could meet its goal of mapping out the domain of optimal human functioning.

The second major challenge is the need to eliminate the almost cult-like image of positive psychology (Held, 2004). There is a need to fulfill the vision of William James (1890) (but also of Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) to achieve a balanced, empirically grounded and theoretically rich view of human experiences that fulfills the mission of psychology as the science of mental life. Gable and Haidt state: "the recent movement on positive psychology strives toward an understanding of the complete human condition, an understanding that recognizes human strengths as clearly as it does human frailties and that specifies how the two are linked" (2005, p.109). In this sense, positive psychology will succeed if the findings of positive psychologists become part of mainstream psychology and the movement disappears as a separate niche within this discipline (Linley, Joseph, Harrington and Wood, 2006). Complementing this quest for integration within the discipline, Seligman and his colleagues are also looking forward to a future of linking in with other social sciences (University of East London, 2007). Tourism studies, as a multidisciplinary social science specialism and tourism, as a complex and large social phenomena, is a good candidate for theoretical and applied work from a positive psychology perspective. Together with wellness and welfare, quality of life and subjective well being are relevant positive psychology and happiness concepts for this field (Sirgy, Michalos, Ferriss, Easterlin, Patrick and Pavot, 2006; Pearce, 2007, BEST Education Network, 2008). The following section provides a generic overview of these two notions.

- **Quality of Life (QOL)**

Sociologist and social-psychologist, emeritus professor Ruut Veenhoven, has dedicated his long research career to understanding quality of life issues (Ruut Veenhoven home page, 2008). Defining the QOL concept is not easy.

The first questing that one should ask is: Quality of what life is being investigated? The object of evaluation is life and this could be an individual life (the quality of life of a person) or quality of life on an aggregate level (for example the quality of life of women). QOL does also not always refer to human life. It is used for animals, for example in discussions about conditions of slaughter cattle (Veenhoven, 2000). If however, the focus is on understanding the quality of individual human lives, the goal should be to explore what specific qualities are implied by the term quality.

Veenhoven therefore comments that the term quality of life refers to multiple qualities which can be ordered on the basis of two distinctions. The first distinction is between opportunities and the outcomes of life. Veenhoven explains: "…a relevant distinction is between opportunities for a good life and the good life itself. This is the difference between potentiality and actuality. I refer to this as life chances and life results" (2000, p.4). The second distinction he makes in defining quality of life is between outer and inner qualities of life. The outer quality relates to the environment and the internal to the individual. This distinction between inner and outer is also made by Lane (1994) and Musschenga (1994). Lane differentiates between the quality of society and quality of a person. Similarly, Musschenga argues that the quality of the conditions for living is not the same as the quality of being human. Veenhoven's (2000) conceptualisation of the quality of life is summarised in table 2.1:

Table 2.1 Four qualities of life

	Outer qualities	*Inner qualities*
Life chances	Livability of environment	Life-ability of the person
Life results	Utility of life	Appreciation of life

Livability of the environment refers to the meaning of good living conditions. An aligned term is habitability, albeit it is more frequently used to describe the quality of housing (Veenhoven, 1996). Life-ability of the person is also a life chance, although it is an inner quality. It refers to how well an individual is equipped to cope with the problems of life. A related concept is the one of capability (Sen, 1992).

The life results however are about the quality of life with respect to its outcomes. The outcomes can be judged by their value for one self (appreciation of life) or by their value to one's environment (utility of life). Appreciation of life is therefore commonly linked to subjective well being and life satisfaction: "Life has more of this quality, the more and the longer it is enjoyed" (Veenhoven, 2000, p.7). Utility of life, however, means that a good life must be good for something more than itself (Gerson, 1976). This external quality does not require inner awareness. So a person's life may be useful from some viewpoints, without her or him knowing it.

Therefore, the term quality of life is a catchword for various notions of the good life. It is the inner (individual) qualities that Veenhoven links with positive psychology concepts such as autonomy, reality control, creativity, inner synergy of traits, life satisfaction, happiness and most notably subjective well being. This is an important point as QOL can also be understood from philosophical, sociological, marketing and management standpoints (Sirgy *et al*, 2006).

Sirgy *et al* (2006) point out that QOL started to interest philosophers as soon as they began to critically think about life and evaluate its value. In more recent times, Steven Smith's work (1980) is of particular relevance for the QOL research in philosophy. He outlines six views of the good life in philosophy: 1) maximum gratification of desire view ; 2) dominant-end view (one selects, from the wide range of human goods one dominant end or cluster of ends to be pursued to the relative exclusion of other ends); 3) purpose in life view (one's life becomes good by contributing to an end that lies beyond it); 4) living up to one's major expectations view (good life as a function of a cognitive judgment that the real conforms to a reasonable ideal); 5) human flourishing view; and 6) satisfaction of needs view. The first, fourth and six views posit the good life as an end, whereas the second, third and fifth posit it a process. Smith's fairly recent classification neatly summaries the prevailing philosophical views of QOL, although the notion of good life has been studied for centuries. As early as 360 B.C. Plato and other Ancient Greek philosophers, such as Aristotle and Socrates, considered this concept (Tatarkiewicz, 1976).

The acceptance of QOL approaches appears to be less in sociology. Sirgy *et al* (2006) claim that the QOL concept is used in sociology but is not in common use. Few sociologists have recognised it as a viable concept or they have rejected it in favour of more familiar terms: social inequality, wealth and income, poverty, socioeconomic status (Johnson, 2002). Nevertheless, the concept has received some increased attention in the last few years among sociologists. For

example, the February 2003 issue of Sociological Abstracts (volume 51, number 1) lists 15 abstracts of articles on QOL and volume 1, number 2 lists 21 articles on QOL. The June 2003 issue lists 18 QOL studies. Sociological Abstracts is a common source of references to current publications of sociologists (Sirgy *et al*, 2006).

The growing interest in QOL research is also seen in the more applied disciplines of marketing and management. QOL research in marketing is social and behavioural science research that supports the concept of QOL-marketing, which has recently developed. Sirgy (2001) defines QOL- marketing as a business mechanism that plans, prices, promotes and distributes economic consumer goods to consumers in ways to maximise consumer well being. Consumer well being can be defined as marketing to maximise well being through acquisition, possession, consumption, maintenance and disposition of economic goods (Sirgy, 2001). Recently, an even more contemporary view of QOL- marketing has emerged that shows that any good (economic or non economic, consumer or industrial) as well as a service or a program can be successfully marketed to any one or more target consumers guided by the QOL concepts (Sirgy *et al*, 2006).The goal is service to society – a provision of a social purpose for the business enterprise beyond mere profit and legalistic tests (Kelley, 1974).In the management field, the growing preoccupation with QOL issues is primarily seen in the research focusing on quality of work life (QWL) (O'Brien, 1990; Tait, Padgett and Baldwin, 1989). QWL notion emerged from the humanistic theories, notably those of McGregor (1960), Argyris (1957) and Maslow (1954). QWL research focuses on three major types of QWL interventions: alternative work arrangements, employee involvement and job design (Sirgy *et al*, 2006). There is strong evidence that QWL contributes significantly to overall QOL (Andrews and Withey, 1976; Bagozzi, 1978, 1980).

- **Subjective well being (SWB)**

Psychology most strongly relates QOL to the notion of subjective well being (SWB) under the positive psychology umbrella (Sirgy *et al*, 2006). Well being research in psychology typically refers back to roots in philosophy on eudaimonia and hedonism, as disused in the Introduction (Ryan and Deci, 2001). Nonetheless due to an overriding concern with distress and disorder (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), SWB did not start developing until the merge of humanism as an alternative approach to explaining human behaviour in the middle of the 20th century (Wilson, 1967; Bradburn, 1969). From the 1970s, the research on SWB further developed, but it was not until the positive psychology explosion that the research on SWB

really starting flourishing (Kahneman, 1999; Kahneman, Diener and Schwarz, 1999; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Definitions of SWB have started appearing in the literature. Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith offer the following: “Subjective well being is a broad category of phenomena that includes people’s emotional responses, domain satisfactions and global judgments of life satisfaction” (1999, p.277).

Measures of SWB have significantly improved over the last four decades (Sirgy *et al*, 2006). Early measures tended to be brief, in some cases consisting of a single item within a larger questionnaire. This generic approach is problematic as the facets of SWB are separable and often account for unique variance in the measurement of the overall construct (Sirgy *et al*, 2006). In view of the above concerns, most contemporary SWB measures are multiple item quantitative instruments, typically with sub-scales to measure separate facets of SWB. The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) is a good example of such a measure (Pavot and Diener, 1993). This is a multiple item questionnaire intended to evaluate life satisfaction. These scales have been shown to have high internal consistency and solid test-retest reliability (Pavot and Diener, 1993). Another important way of assessing SWB is through Experience Sampling (Schimmack, 2003). This methodological technique is described in chapters 4 and 5 of this thesis. Despite the increased sophistication, there is a dearth of more in-depth qualitative approaches to assessing SWB, as with the positive psychology methods in general.

The measures of SWB have typically been based on two dominant theoretical approaches: the top-down and the bottom-up approach (Diener, 1984). Top-down theories are focused on mechanisms by which factors within persons (namely personality traits) determine how a person perceives her or his life circumstances and the events they experience in positive or negative terms. On the contrary, bottom up theories assume that humans all have basic needs and if life circumstances allow for the fulfillment of these needs, SWB will be achieved (Diener *et al*, 1999; Stallings, Dunham, Gatz, Baker and Bengtson, 1997). Together with these two theoretical approaches, more focused perspectives have been developed on SWB, such as the theories focusing on goal setting (Diener *et al*, 1999) and the concept of coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Despite the theoretical and measurement developments, Sirgy *et al* ‘s (2006) review points to several major issues that need to be addressed if research on SWB is to develop further. The first issue is to improve the quality of research. Diener and Seligman (2004) point out that a

large number of SWB studies continues to be conducted in a rudimentary and unsystematic fashion. Many focus on only one aspect of SWB, such as life satisfaction and do not assess other factors such as people's emotional responses. The other issue is a tendency to conduct cross sectional and correlational studies instead of longitudinal studies and the subsequent inability of most of SWB data to explain underlying causal mechanisms. Systematic longitudinal designs (Marks and Fleming, 1999) could begin to reveal developmental trends in SWB and allow for an investigation of the effects of life experiences (such as, marriage, changes in employment) on individuals' overall levels of SWB. Lastly, there is a need to further apply the findings from research on SWB. Various pragmatic applications of the results on SWB have been found (Linley and Joseph, 2004), but the implementation of these interventions has been minimal. Tourism is certainly a field in which SWB research could be further applied at the tourist, tourism worker, tourism management or host community development level. This thesis focuses on tourists, namely youth tourists and their happiness.

Youth travel

Up until recently the literature on youth travel was sparse (Richards and Wilson, 2004). The tourism research on backpacking, student and other youth travel has, however, proliferated over the past two decades. This thesis adds to this growing body of knowledge by using youth travel as the context for its research studies. The research in this field of tourism is conceptually fragmented and methodologically varied (Richards and Wilson, 2004). Two major and theoretically developed research areas of youth travel have, however, emerged – backpacking and student travel. Overview of the research on youth travel is to flesh out the current literature gaps, which the thesis studies aim to fill. Overall, it seems that there are parallel research gaps in the backpacker and student travel literature.

- **Backpacking**
  - **Definition and connections to youth travel**

Backpackers are tourists typically characterised by the following three features: 1) they commonly travel for long periods of time (months or years rather than weeks, although some researchers have found this trend to be changing - Sorensen, 2003), 2) they employ a very affordable mode of travel (transport and subsistence on a low daily budget) and 3) they typically embrace serendipity (no fixed timetable, low levels of advance planning and an openness to change of plan or itinerary) (Uriely, Yonay and Simchai, 2002; O'Reilly, 2006). Although its direct association to youth travel has been questioned (Richards and Wilson, 2001), most

scholars agree that backpacking is predominantly a youth travel activity, commonly taking place in times of life transition (Maoz, 2007). Backpacking is often a collection of self imposed rites of passage, sometimes occurring after a life crisis (Ateljevic and Doorne 2000; Maoz, 2006; Riley, 1988). O'Reilly also describes backpacking as "once a marginal and unusual activity undertaken by hippies and adventurous drop-outs….that has now become a widely accepted rite of passage for young people" (2006, p.998).

The association with youth (generally 18-35 year olds) is pervasive. Some time ago, Teas (1988) described this group of tourists as youthful travellers. In a seminal study, Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) also refer to backpackers as young budget travelers. They place the origins of backpacking in the broader history of tourism, related to youth travel. They hence refer to the Grand Tours of the 17th and 18th century Europe, tramping and the youth hostel movement and the concept of non-institutionalised tourism. During the Grand Tours, the wealthy, well educated youth of the late Victorian period would set out to experience strange and exotic life in far way places (Cohen, 1973; Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995). These travellers would often voluntarily submit to hardships. They would undertake the Grand Tours to increase their worldliness, social awareness and sophistication (Hibbert, 1969; Swinglehurst, 1974). Unlike the Grand Tour, the tramping system that developed among the 19th century European working class commonly involved travel for job search purposes. This included travelling while learning trade, where young men would find accommodation at various lodges and inns provided by their guilds (Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995). Like the Grand Tour, however, this type of travel offered opportunities for adventure, education and sightseeing (Alder, 1985). The youth hostel movement developed in the 20th century, as a reaction to the difficult conditions of urban life in European industrial cities. Young people began to take frequent trips to the countryside and this movement was particularly strong in Germany. Under the initiative of a young German school teacher, Richard Schirrmann, the first permanent youth hostel in the world was founded in 1910 (McCulloch, 1992). The Youth Hostel Association (YHA) was established and despite the short breaks during the First and Second World Wars, Schirrmann's International Youth Hostelling Association (now Hostelling International), rapidly grew and continues to operate today in many countries with millions of visitors (Richard Schirrmann – Wikipedia, 2008; Youth Hostel Association, 2008).

There are, however, other connections between backpacking and youth travel. Cohen's (1972; 1973) foundation and seminal typology of tourism distinguishes between institutionalised

tourism on one hand and non-institutionalised on the other. He argued that the experience of tourism reflects a balance between familiarity and novelty which the tourism setting provides. Cohen identified four categories on the institutionalised to non-institutionalised continuum: organised mass tourists, individual mass tourists, explorers and drifters. Organised mass tourists are the least adventurous and engage in fully packaged tours. They seek familiarity and novelty is kept to a minimum. Individual mass tourists are similar. Their tours however are not fully planned and they are not typically bound to a group, like modern day backpackers. Familiarity is still more dominant than novelty. The non-institutionalised tourists are explorers and drifters. Explorers get off the beaten track, they organise their trip alone but prefer comfortable accommodation and reliable means of transportation. For these tourists novelty dominates, but they retain some of the basic comforts of their culture and do not completely immerse themselves in the way of life of their hosts. Lastly, drifters are the more extreme of non-institutionalised tourists. They avoid tourism establishments and familiarity, organise the trip completely on their own, living with local people and taking local employment (Cohen, 1972, 1973; Loker-Murphy and Pearce, 1995).

Traditionally, the latter two categories would apply to backpackers, although the modern day backpacking (O'Reilly, 2006) is significantly more structured than drifter tourism of the past (Cohen, 1972; ten Have, 1974; Vogt, 1976; Riley, 1988). Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) have suspicions about labeling backpacking as alternative travel, considering the sophistication of transport, accommodation and tour infrastructure (particularly in Australia) as well as the high sophistication of technology available to these tourists (White and White, 2007).

Indeed, there are different types of backpackers, based on their travel experience and the degree to which they engage in a structured holiday. These types are important to review because some backpackers display characteristics of a happy traveller (a traveller with meaning, engagement and positive emotions) more strongly than other types of backpackers.

- **Types**

Uriely *et al* (2002) follow earlier work by Cohen to distinguish between 1) experimental and experiential backpackers, 2) humanistic backpackers, 3) diversionary and recreational backpackers and 4) multitype backpackers. In their qualitative study of Israeli backpackers they describe each of these types. Experimental and experiential backpackers are those who fully engage in alternative, commonly spiritual, activities at a destination. Uriely *et al* (2002) mentions

how his interviewed backpackers immersed themselves in meditation and religious activities which are different from their Israeli culture. Humanistic backpackers, however, are those who may seek out meaningful experiences in the centers of other cultures, but without being alienated from their own. These backpackers are exemplified by the following account:

"As one who spent some time in several ashrams and practiced yoga and other meditation techniques, I agree with those who say that India is the land of the search for spiritual happiness…I also think that Buddhism and Hinduism are more advanced religions than Judaism since they open a way to the inner self. However, I would not replace my Jewish religion and Israeli culture with these religions. Judaism and the Israeli culture are the sources of my identity and the framework from which I intend to build my future family life. At the same time, I would like to use some elements of the Eastern philosophies and meditation techniques in the future for my spiritual well being" (Uriely, *et al*, 2002, p.531).

On the contrary, diversionary and recreational backpackers are hedonists. They are therefore mainly interested in pleasure-related activities, without a quest for meaningful, spiritual experiences or a deep engagement with the other culture. A respondent in Uriely *et al*'s study says: "I was in Katmandu during the Passover holiday and when I heard that the Seder celebration includes a great meal for $4, I said why not…It turned out to be fun…We smoked dope, ate lots of food and took good photos of the Rabbi who sang there" (2002, p.531). Finally, there are multitype backpackers exhibiting a combination of the above three types. These backpackers are typically more experienced travellers, so called serial backpackers, with significant previous backpacking experience.

There is, however, a new type of backpacker that has emerged over the last couple of years. These youth travellers are so modern, they are far from the eccentric drifter type (Cohen, 1972) and also different form the Uriely's *et al* classifications. Some non-academic sources (USA Today, 2006; Hotel Travel News, 2006) have recently referred to the term flashpackers to describe those backpackers who use the latest technological products, frequent good quality hostels and plan and organise their trip carefully. Hotel Travel News point out that the flashpacker is a new breed of traveler and a tech-savvy tourist who travels with a cell phone, digital camera, iPod, wearable electronics clothes and a laptop, commonly placed in ergonomically correct, multi-function backpack. They are men and women in their 20s and 30s with established careers, seeking comfort and style, worrying more about saving time and less

about saving money (USA Today, 2006). With this trend gaining momentum, many in the tourism industry are meeting the growing demand by providing tech-ready accommodations at high-end hostels that cater to the needs and wants of the flashpacker. Communal bedrooms and bathrooms have been replaced by eclectic accommodation, Internet access, MP3 downloads and hostel bars (Hotel Travel News, 2006; White and White, 2007). A manager of the Auckland Central Backpackers, Campbell Shepherd, comments: "We've just put in a brand new Internet café, we've got satellite TV, we've got chip readers for photo cameras, we've got video cameras so you can watch a person on the other side of the world – these guys know how it all works and we've got to provide it" (USA Today, 2006).

- **Trends**

Two key research trends are present in the contemporary backpacking literature, related to tourist behaviour. These are: a need to further understand the heterogeneity of backpackers as a tourist group (mainly in terms of nationality, purpose, motivation, trip organisation, age, gender and lifestyles) (Loker-Murphy, 1996; Cohen, 2004; Maoz, 2006, 2007) and a recent trend to understanding the backpacker experience in-depth and through emic approaches (Uriely *et al,* 2002; Cohen, 2003; Teo and Leong, 2006).

The need to understand the diversity of backpackers as a tourist group particularly relates to the fact there is a dearth of research on non-Western backpackers. Teo and Leong (2006), point to phenomena of Asian backpacking and the need to study their travel behaviour rather than only studying Western travellers (Hampton, 1998; Hillman, 1999; Moran, 2000; Elsrud, 2001; Murphy, 2001, Scheyvens, 2002; Suvantola, 2002; Sørensen 2003). Maoz (2006) notes a rise in studies on Japanese and Israeli backpackers, but observes that there is still a predominance of studies on North American, Australian, New Zealander and Western European backpackers.

In addition to the need for greater diversity, Cohen points out "there is also a need for re-orientation of research on backpackers from the currently prevalent concern with their itineraries, travelling style and interactions to a more emic approach concerned with the manner in which they themselves construct, represent and narrate their experiences" (2003, p. 107). He adds that this approach would bridge the current research gaps between the models and practice of backpacking. In a recent study of backpackers' travel narratives, a profound self-change is recounted (Noy, 2004). The backpackers in Noy's study are portrayed as narrators,

whose stories strongly feature themes of authenticity and adventure as part of the powerful experience of self-change.

Cohen (2003) further identifies the predominance of research on backpacking from Western countries with Western backpackers and the lack of studies on backpacker- host relations. The first issue, however, falls under the lack of heterogeneity trend and the latter seems to be part of the dearth of experience research studies. Nevertheless, backpacker research is not the only aspect of youth travel with literature gaps on understanding powerful experiences which could lead to tourist happiness.

- **Student travel**
  - **Definition and connections to youth travel**

The literature on student travel has grown over the last few years, albeit not in terms of understanding student travel experiences in detail. Chadee and Cutler (1996), like many other researchers (Josiam, Clements and Hobson, 1994; Babin and KuemLim, 2001; Richards and Wilson, 2003), stress a business conceptualisation of student travel. They define it as a growing segment of the international youth travel market, due to the growing number of students undertaking international travel every year. They further point out that the economic importance of the student segment of the international travel market should not be overlooked and that as much as 20% of all international travellers are student travellers, which equates to a multibillion dollar business (Bywater, 1993; Chadee and Cutler, 1996). Typically student travellers are those in the same age group as most backpackers (18-30 years) although if, high school students are included the age bracket can expand to 13-30 years (Jafari, 2000).

Therefore student travel is mostly defined in market terms in the tourism literature with emphasis on the economic importance of this type of travel. The history of student travel and its linkages to youth travel, however, surpass the realms of the tourism industry. Early beginnings of the student travel are commonly traced back to the Grand Tour, as in the case of backpacking. This is because the Grand Tour was thought of as an educational experience for young people as well as a travel adventure. Hibbert explains that upon return from the Grand Tour the travellers were expected to have acquired: "…a broadened mind as well as a good command of foreign languages, new self reliance and self possession and a highly developed taste and grace of manner " (1969, p.15).

Other historical linkages between student and youth travel are distinct from backpacking. Some important milestones are: the Colombo Plan after the Second World War, the changed labour market conditions in the Western countries, the expansion of the student mobility programs, changes in the World Trade Organisation, the rise of the knowledge economy and internationalization (Guruz, 2009).

Student mobility acquired a new importance under the Colombo Plan, which was a development aid target from Western Commonwealth nations (Canada, Australia, the U.K.) to nations in regions of the world (such as Africa, Southeast Asia and Eastern Europe) which were struggling to rebuild in the aftermath of the war. This plan allowed thousands of young people from less developed countries to receive education in the developed Commonwealth and has hence facilitated the rise of student travel. Exchange programs and study abroad opportunities were considered cultural experiences for youth and were also politically used to promote international cooperation and peace (Knight, 2006; Guruz, 2009). Student travel was also facilitated in the 1960s through changes in middle class labour market conditions. These increasingly required the youth to receive tertiary education after high school. As more young people attended colleges and universities so did the demand for student travel and exchange increase.

In the 1990s, the student mobility programs further developed and were designed to run in parallel with trading blocks, such as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). In 1992, a key conference on education was organised by NAFTA. A program that emerged after the conference is the Program for North American Mobility in Higher Education focusing on student mobility and the development of university partnerships between Canada, the U.S., and Mexico. Similar programs, such as ERASMUS and SOCRATES, have developed in the European Union to encourage the mobility of European students (Guruz, 2009). Later, the World Trade Organisation included educational services as trade commodities. In 2002, Larsen, Martin and Morris reported that the largest component in trade in educational services is accounted for by student mobility – students who travel abroad to study. They surpass other educational services (textbooks, course material, distance and online education) (Larsen *et al*, 2002). Nowadays, many Western countries aim to become knowledge economies, where investment in education and education mobility is seen as paramount to economic growth. In the European Union, one of the primary objectives is that the European Union should become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge based economy in the world (Lisbon European Council, 2000). This development of the knowledge economy is a result of a general decline in

manufacturing industries. The modern university has changed due to greater internationalisation in the knowledge economies. Internationalisation thus involves the re-organisation of universities or faculties to encourage greater international and intercultural perspectives and knowledge into teaching and learning (Knight, 2006).

Most recently, the World Youth Student and Educational (WYSE) Travel Confederation was founded after the merger of the Federation of International Youth Travel Organisations (FIYTO) and the International Student Travel Confederation (ISTC) (WYSE website, 2008). The Confederation's mission is to increase international understanding through the promotion of travel and educational opportunities for students and youth. Its members work through specialist sector associations to provide services and products for young travellers, such as student identity cards, language travel experiences, student flights, youth accommodation and travel insurance. The confederation gathers, analyses and shares research data and market intelligence with academics, corporate and government decision-makers, and the general travelling public.

Student travel has evolved into several sub-categories. These types are outlined below, although the analysis is brief and non-exhaustive. Student travel in this thesis is treated as a generic type of youth travel and further distinctions are not stressed. The main reason for not categorising student travellers in the thesis is the small sample of the students which are used in the studies. A further reason is that the contribution to the knowledge does not rest on the characteristics of travellers but instead on the methodological and conceptual insights. As such, student and hence youth travel is simply an important context through which the happiness contribution is presented in the research studies.

- **Types**

A review of the student travel literature based on a recent and detailed published bibliography (Richards and Wilson, 2003) points to four main types of student travel: independent tertiary student travel, packaged tertiary student travel, tertiary study abroad travel, tertiary student short break travel. Primary and secondary school students have also been analysed to a lesser extent in the youth tourism literature (Bonvecchio, 1991; Richards and Wilson, 2003).The focus here is on tertiary students in the 18-35 age group. The distinction between the independent and packaged travel relates to the way students engage in travel, whereas the separation

between study-abroad and short break travel relates to the form of student experience undertaken. Hence, the latter two types can fall under the first two, and vice versa.

Many tertiary, study abroad student travelers are independent tourists (Hyde and Lawson, 2003; Richards and Wilson, 2003; Carr, 2005). Independent tourists are all the vacation travellers who have not booked an air travel and accommodation package with a travel retailer (Hyde and Lawson, 2003). The trend in independent travel has grown steadily. Quest (1990) explains that the decline of the package tour may be due to the fact that it has become unfashionable, that people have become more sophisticated in their demands and that they have gained the confidence to travel independently. Within international tourists to New Zealand during 2001-2002, 92% of British, 90% of Australian and 75% of American visitors were independent travellers (Statistics New Zealand, 2008). In a rare global, detailed survey on independent student travellers (majority in the 18-26 age group), students' decisions to travel, trip planning phases, trip activities and trip reflections were investigated (Richards and Wilson, 2003). Responses were drawn from 2,300 young people from Canada, the Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Mexico, Slovenia, South Africa, Sweden and the UK. The results show that most independent student tourists identify themselves as travellers, instead of tourists. They have low incomes but spend a lot on holidays due to longer stays, commonly combining study with work. Their main travel motivation is to explore other cultures (83%); they also place emphasis on social interaction and are normally experienced travellers (as measured by duration and frequency of previous international trips). They commonly engage in activities such as visiting historic sites and monuments (77%), walking and trekking (76%), sitting in cafes and restaurants (72%) and shopping (72%). Few independent student travellers undertake academic study or learn a language during their trip (28%). This finding suggests that language and academic study courses may be more common in group student travel. The main benefit from independent student travel is a thirst for more travel and cultural benefits (such as increased appreciation and understanding of other cultures).

A different type of student traveler, however, is a packaged student traveler. These students are not those engaging in exchange and study abroad group programs (such as SOCRATES and LEONARDO) (Richards and Wilson, 2003). Instead, packaged student travel is organised by the tourism industry. Hyde and Lawson define a package traveller as a vacation traveller who has booked his or her air travel, accommodation and possibly other element of a holiday through a travel retailer. Carr states: "As a result of the numbers of students engaging in travel, a section

of the tourism industry has developed to cater specifically for the holiday requirements for the university students" (2003b, p. 190). One of the biggest of these tourism industry providers is STA travel that in 2001 employed over 2000 people operating in numerous countries. Carr (2003b) points out that they helped organize vacations of over five million university student and youth travellers in excess of 5 billion Australian dollars (Carr, 2003b; STA travel, 2008). Contiki Tours is a good example of a tour operator providing a package holiday to student travellers and other youth tourists (Contiki, 2008).It is a coach tour holiday company operating in Europe, Australia, New Zealand, North America, and Indonesia. The travel company was formed in the 1960s to create coach trips for 18-35 year-olds with a mix of sightseeing, free time, culture, socialising and adventure. The tour operator is commonly regarded as the most popular youth travel company in the world, carrying over 150,000 18-35 year olds worldwide in 2007 (Contiki, 2008).

Study abroad tertiary travel is the third main type of student travel. This type of travel, which commonly includes attending exchange and language programs, has been extensively studied in the education literature (Chickering, 1969; Klineberg and Hull, 1979; Hansel, 1988; Stitsworth, 1988; Lambert, 1989; Biggs, 1992a, 1992b). In the tourism literature however, coverage of study of abroad travel is more recent (Chadee and Cutler, 1996; Gmelch, 1997; Ritchie, 2003; Son, 2003). Much of the tourism study abroad literature is business oriented, emphasising the economic contribution of this growing travel segment (Ritchie, 2003). There are however studies that discuss benefits of study abroad travel to participants themselves (Gmelch, 1997; Dwyer and Peters, 2004). In Gmelch's (1997) study of American university students studying in Austria, it was found that the students' study abroad trip lead to their personal development. Despite the limited immersion in the cultures they visited, the questionnaires and travel diaries with the students revealed that they became more confident, self-reliant and adaptable after their trip. Similar findings are present in the data from more than 3,400 respondents collated in a major investigation of study abroad programs by the Institute for the International Education of Students. The personal outcomes of the study abroad travel are personal development, greater academic commitment, further intercultural development and career development. The students therefore reported that the travel increased their self-confidence, that it served as a catalyst for increased maturity and the trip has had a lasting impact on world view of the students. They further reported that the study abroad experience reinforced their commitment to foreign language study, helped them better understand their own cultural values and biases and aided them in acquiring skill sets that influenced their career path (Dwyer and Peters, 2004).

Unlike the tertiary study abroad travel, short break travel has been extensively characterised as predominately hedonistic (Hobson and Josiam, 1992; Josiam, Clements and Hobson, 1994; Butts, Salazar, Sapio and Thomas, 1996). This is the last major type of student travel, as evident from the Wilson and Richards's (2004) bibliography. Much of the short break literature covers spring break holidays, reflecting the predominance of North American studies in this area of student travel. Hobson and Josiam's (1992, 1996) studies refer to spring break as a uniquely North American tourism phenomenon. Spring break is a one week college and university break in the USA between late February and early April. It is a multi-million dollar business (Hobson and Josiam, 1996). Although some students enjoy their Spring break in metropolitan cities, others visit well known beach tourism destinations, such as Daytona Beach, Florida, South Padre, Texas or Palm Springs in California. The aim is to socialise and relax but rowdy and disruptive behaviour is not uncommon. Carter cites the comments of the Daytona Beach Mayor:"I believe that we have done a lot to save spring break…If we had a repeat of the 1989 break there would be another commission sitting here that would not be as friendly to business as we are" (1991, p.1A).

In Australia, a similar short break student holiday phenomenon has emerged. It is called the Schoolies Week, a week away from home to celebrate the completion of high school and commonly to celebrate the beginning of the university life. This event is marked by alcohol abuse, heavy partying, engagement in sexual activities as well as more traditional hedonistic activities such as swimming and sunbathing (Schoolies website, 2008) .The Schoolies Week has predominately been discussed by the popular media and, unlike the spring break, its academic coverage is sparse (Maticka-Tyndale, Herold and Oppermann, 2003).

Solo, or packaged, driven by hedonism or by personal development, student travellers are clearly different in their preferences and behaviour. Irrespective of their type however, generic trends can be identified for all student travellers. Identification of these current trends is relevant as it will help flesh out the specific research questions of this thesis.

- **Trends**

Two important trends have emerged from an evaluation of the student travel literature. First, there is a predominance of studies on non-Australian students and their travel behaviour. The

reviewed student travel literature focuses on travel behaviour of university students from the United States (Hudman, 1990; Hobson and Josiam, 1992; Josiam, Clements and Hobson, 1994; Butts, Salazar, Sapio and Thomas, 1996; Gmelch, 1997; Field, 1999; Babin and Kuem-Lim, 2001), New Zealand university students (Chadee and Cutler, 1996 and Carr, 2003a), British and European students (Bonvecchio, 1991; Carr, 2003b; Carr, 2003c), Asian university students (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2001; Kim and Jogaratnam, 2002; Son, 2003; Michael, Armstrong and King, 2003; Carr and Axelsen, 2005). A recent and detailed thesis on Canadian university student travellers was also found (Barnick, 2007). The lack of studies on Australians is interesting, as student travellers from other Western nations are well represented and Asian students are increasingly added to research samples, presumably to avoid the Western bias (Cohen, 2003). One of the few reviewed studies that includes in its sample Australian university students is a study of international student travel preferences by Frost and Shanka (1999). In Frost and Shanka's study, a group of Australian and Asian students were asked to indicate their reasons for choosing destinations in the previous two years and to provide information on other travel preference factors. These consisted of primary destinations, length of stay, types of accommodation, purpose of visit and information on how they planned their trips. An in-depth understanding of the Australian student tourist experiences however, was beyond the scope of the study.

There is another core trend that has emerged and that has already been briefly mentioned. As in backpacker research, tourist experiences of student travellers are poorly understood. Analyses of backpacker experiences seem be increasing in the tourism literature (Noy, 2004; Uriely *et al*, 2002) but this increased interest does not apply to student travel experiences. There is a lack of in-depth research in all core phases of the student travel experience (anticipatory, on-site and reflection phases). Most notably, there are gaps in thoroughly understanding students' on site experiences. One of the few works that discusses cultural heritage site experiences of university students is the work of Han, Um and Mills (2005). In this paper, a development of an on-site experience measurement scale is discussed. The study however does not provide an in-depth analysis of the site experience, but instead identifies a list of factors that may be useful in understanding such an experience.

One more precise study of college students' experiences at sites was conducted by Masberg and Silverman (1996). These researchers were interested in examining the meaning of the term heritage site for the college students (most in the 18-25 age group) and to examine what a visit

to heritage site means from the student visitors' perspective. The key merit of the study is that the authors applied an in-depth, qualitative, phenomenological approach to understand the experiences in detail. They point out that this is a different approach to the majority of related studies that use predetermined categories of meaning and that do not evaluate experiences in detail. The results reveal that students think of heritage sites as places that involve either history, or history and culture. The outcomes of their visits were described in terms of two broad themes: 1) knowledge gained that was primarily factual and external and 2) several categories of personal experience, such as personal learning, social benefits and aesthetic experiences. Still, Masberg and Silverman's study was exploratory. They therefore state: "While this exploratory study offers an initial step, further efforts are needed to document, uncover and understand visitors' words, conceptions and experiences….phenomenological approaches may well hold the key to truly illuminating the multidimensional nature of visitor experiences at heritage sites" (1996, p.25).

As the above studies demonstrate, cultural tourist experiences commonly complement youth travel experiences. Cultural tourism is, therefore, another important context for this thesis and one from which the thesis research questions emerge.

Cultural Tourism

The following discussions define the concept of cultural tourism, discuss the diversity of cultural tourism demand and supply and outline core management trends in cultural attractions. The section ends with an analysis of the value of experiences in the production and consumption of cultural tourism. It is clear that experiences form the backbone of modern cultural tourism and that future research on their conceptualisation and measurement is required, in particular in the context of understanding happiness through experiences of these travellers. The student travellers who will be introduced in the thesis studies are visitors to cultural sites.

- **Definitions and growth trends**

Culture is one of the most complicated words in the English language (Williams, 1983) and it is not surprising therefore that cultural tourism is extremely challenging to define (Richards, 2001). Rasky (1998) further points out that culture is also an inflated concept with assumed immeasurable dimensions. Nevertheless, one widely cited definition of culture is by Littrell (1997). This author argues that culture is what people think (ideas, beliefs, attitudes and

values), what people do (normative behaviour patterns and way of life) and what people make (artwork, artifacts, cultural products). Culture hence comprises processes (the ideas and way of life) and the products of those processes (buildings, artifacts, art, customs).

Richards distinguishes between two definitions of cultural tourism. One is a technical definition and the other one is a conceptual definition of cultural tourism. Technically, cultural tourism can be interpreted as: “all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence” (Richards, 1996, p.24). Conceptually, however, cultural tourism can be thought of as “the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs” (Richards, 1996, p.24). Despite his status as a leading cultural tourism scholar (Smith, 2003), the above definitions by Greg Richards have been criticized. Alzua, O’Leary and Morrison (1998), have expressed concern about the word intention in the conceptual definition. They argued that intention is difficult to measure as it is more appropriate to use a scale of tourist motivations. Silberberg (1995) thus defines cultural tourism as visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution. Richards’ reason, however, for using intent is to differentiate between culturally motivated visitor who makes a conscious, mindful choice to experience culture and the culturally interested visitor who may be an almost accidental cultural tourist (Bywater, 1993; Richards, 2001). It would be challenging “to find a tourist who is not interested at least in part in some aspect of the culture of the destination they are visiting” (Richards, 2001, p. 37). Marciszewska (1990) further argues that the definition of cultural tourism should include wants and desires in addition to cultural needs. Nevertheless, although wants and desires may be beneficial for practical discussions about the consumption of specific attractions, their analysis does not provide a basis for defining the phenomena of cultural tourism (Richards, 2001). Furthermore, needs are the most important factor influencing tourist motivations to visit attractions (Leiper, 1990). Thus, despite the criticism, the technical and conceptual definitions of cultural tourism seem appropriate.

There has recently been a significant growth of cultural tourism in terms of visitor arrivals and expenditure by both governments and tourists. There are two core trends which underpin this growth. These are a growing interest in culture and a growth in cultural supply (Richards, 2001).

As world becomes rapidly globalised, homogenous and influenced by American and Western European models, there is a growing interest in culture which is unique and different from the norm, particularly by Western travellers (Smith, 2003). Smith points out that “post-war decolonization, assimilation and the growth of international tourism have all contributed to an enrichment of the world’s cultures, leading to a profusion of cultural diversity, and the creation of new, cosmopolitan cultural forms” (2003, p. 14). Waters (1995) adds that globalization is a differentiating as well as a homogenising process. It can be seen as creative process that leads to hybridisation of various cultural forms but globalization can also provide a platform for new cultural forms to be created through the fusion of diverse elements (Smith, 2003). Western food, music and fashion, for instance, are becoming rapidly influenced by ethnic influences which are partly responsible for the growing interest in culture. Beynon and Dunkerley state: “Ethnicity no longer resides in the narrowly local, as is witnessed in the proliferation of ethnic cuisine, ethnic fashion, ethnic holidays and ethnic music” (2000, p.26). The growing interest, however, has been noted for more than the last two decades and it appears that there has been a gradual increase in the percentage of tourists who are interested in culture. Between 1982 and 1995, the attendance at museums and monuments in Europe grew by approximately 25% (Richards, 1996). The World Tourism Organisation recently pointed out that cultural tourism accounted for 37% of global tourism and projected that cultural tourism would grow at a rate of 15% per year (Richards, 2001). Richards adds that an explanation for such a growing interest, is that cultural consumers are becoming more omnivorous, hence visiting many different forms of culture. He also argues that the definition of culture has widened. This argument resembles Smith’s comments about the new diversity emerging within globalisation.

Aligned to the growing interest in culture, is the growth in cultural supply. Together, these two trends underpin the overall growth in cultural tourism. Cultural attractions form part of the cultural supply (Richards, 1996). Cultural attractions, such as monuments or museums have become significant not only in terms of attracting visitors but also in attracting investment to urban areas (Green, 2001; Richards, 2001). Policy makers are continuing to invest in cultural attractions and the production of culture has become the key to many development strategies worldwide (McCann, 2002). In particular, there is an increasing trend of creating and promoting iconic cultural structures, megaevents, thematisation as a way of attracting cultural tourists and heritage mining (Richards and Wilson, 2006). Iconic structures are landmarks or flagship objects which become a symbolic shorthand for a city’s or region’s identity. Examples include the Artikum Museum in Lapland which points an icy finger towards the North Pole, or the Angel of

the North Statue which salutes the visitors as they arrive at Gateshead in North East England. Further, in the Netherlands, modern art museums have been constructed as part of the urban regeneration strategies of regional cities (Richards and Wilson, 2006). Mega events have been found to enhance community pride and place image and this effect has been referred to as the halo, showcase or feelgood effect (Hall, 1992; Fredline and Faulkner, 1998 and Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002). Salient examples of megaevents are European Capital of Culture events, the Olympic Games or the Football World Cup. For the year 2008, the European Capital of Culture was contested by 14 cities, each of which spent up to one million British pounds on the bidding process (Palmer-Rea Associates, 2004). Other cities have presented their growth in cultural supply, by coming up with specific cultural themes. New York positions itself as the cultural capital of the world, hence adopting the capital city theme (Zukin, 1995). Other examples of thematisation are Huddersfield's positioning in the United Kingdom (UK) as a creative city and Sheffield's promotion as a sports city. Lastly, the growth in cultural supply is seen in increased focus on heritage mining in some cities. This process refers to cultural re-development through revalorisation of cultural heritage, notably built heritage. Cities such as Bruges, Florence and Girona, have successfully implemented this strategy of re-exploiting their well preserved past (Richards and Wilson, 2006).

- **Types**

Just as the cultural supply is varied and rich in creativity, so are the modern types of cultural tourists different in their preferences. There are seven types of cultural tourism that corresponding types of cultural tourists engage in: heritage tourism, arts tourism, creative tourism, urban cultural tourism, rural cultural tourism, indigenous cultural tourism and popular cultural tourism (Smith, 2003).

Heritage tourism is concerned with the interpretation and representation of the past. Smith (2003) points out that heritage has become politicised as increasing recognition has been granted to previously marginalised, minority and ethnic groups. There has therefore been a growth of interest in heritage relating to the social histories of the working classes, women, ethnic minorities and indigenous groups. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has therefore recently expanded its World Heritage List with representations of the intangible heritage of indigenous peoples and industrial landscapes of the working classes (UNESCO, 2008). Management issues relating to these heritage sites have received significant research attention in the last decade or so (Smith, 2003), particularly in

terms of sustainability (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). Garrod and Fyall's study investigated major constraints and imperatives relating to the long term management of built heritage attractions in the UK. The results suggest that there is a very close linkage between the fundamental elements of the heritage mission and the widely acknowledged principles of sustainable development. There is a need to pay close attention to the balance between conservation and contemporary use, the role of education at heritage attractions and the nature of the relationship among the heritage attractions, the local community and tourists.

Arts tourism, however, has developed more slowly than heritage tourism. This form of tourism includes, but is not limited to, festivals, carnivals, art shows and exhibitions. The reason why this form of tourism has developed more slowly than heritage tourism is that the arts sector in the Western world had been reluctant to expand its audiences through tourism, as it was felt that tourists would be less appreciative of the art form presented. Instead the focus had been on the educated local elite. This has changed with the development of festivals, carnivals and community fairs as cultural tourism events (Alleyne-Dettmers, 1996). Gimblett (1998) argues that various types of festivals have flourished since the growth of mass tourism with the intention of encouraging tourism. Similarly, Rolfe's (1992) analysis showed that half of the existing arts festivals in the UK originated during the 1980's and that this growth was particularly aimed at increasing tourism in cities.

In addition to heritage and arts tourism, however, creative tourism is another modern type of cultural tourism. Creative tourism has been defined as an extension of cultural tourism and as: "Tourism which offers visitors the opportunity to develop their creative potential through active participation in courses and learning experiences which are characteristic of the holiday destination where they are undertaken" (Richards and Raymond, 2000, p.18). The key difference therefore between creative and the other types of cultural tourism is that creative tourism commonly requires interaction on the part of tourists. This interaction leads to co-creation of cultural experiences. An example of cultural tourism is Laguiole knife crafting in France. Tourists learn how to make their own Laguiloe knife, under the guidance of a qualified and experienced knife-maker. They choose the materials for the handle, assemble the spring, the bolster and the blade and finish off with engraving, decorating and polishing. Another example is perfume making in Galimard perfumeries, also in France. Tourists make their own perfume and the recipe is kept for future orders (Richards and Wilson, 2006).

There are a number of advantages of creative tourism over more traditional cultural tourism. Creative resources are normally more sustainable than tangible cultural products as creativity is a process. Cultural heritage sites, for instance, may become degraded over time, whereas creative resources can be renewed (Prentice and Andersen, 2003). Further, creativity allows a destination to rapidly innovate, giving it a competitive edge over other locations. Creativity also involves not just the creation of economic wealth (value creation) but also the creation of values (Eno, 1996; Ritzer, 1999; Richards and Wilson, 2006). Eno points out: "one of the things I think artists keep doing for us is charging up different areas of the world with value. Things that we didn't want, or things that we didn't even notice we had, are suddenly charmed and become expressive and valuable" (1996, p. 277).

There are however, other modern types of cultural tourism, arguably less sustainable but not less popular than creative tourism. Urban cultural tourism or city tourism has rapidly developed, particularly in Europe (Smith, 2003). There has been a proliferation of new short break cultural destinations (Maitland, 2006). Cities that are not traditional historical destinations are positioning themselves as short break alternative destinations and are using cultural tourism for urban regeneration to diversify their economy and enhance their image. Harvey (1989), however, warns that cultural regeneration is not a panacea for urban decline following de-industrialisation. There is a danger of placing too much emphasis on economic imperatives as part of regeneration, at the expense of social, cultural and welfare issues that matter to local communities (Fox-Przeworski, Goddard and De Jong, 1991). Perhaps due to this risk, some destinations are turning instead to rural cultural tourism, as part of their tourism supply. Many rural communities are eager to develop cultural tourism to counteract for the decline in demand for core industries, such as agriculture (Smith, 2003). Farm stays, as part of so called, agrotourism, have developed, particularly in southern European countries such as Portugal and Greece (Smith, 2003). Tourists are attracted by the gastronomy, wine and craftsmanship in these rural regions (Richards, 1999b).

Aligned with the interest in rural traditions is the indigenous cultural tourism. Jungle tours, hill trekking and wildlife tours in indigenous areas are an important niche of the cultural tourism offering (Wall, 1996; Whittaker, 2000). Due to tourists' contacts with indigenous people and tribal groups, sustainability is a core concern for ethically minded managers of indigenous tourism (Ryan and Aicken, 2005). These concerns, however, do not exclusively relate to environmental or social concerns, but also to land rights issues as well as interpretation and

representation of indigenous culture and heritage (Smith, 2003).There is therefore commonly a need to engage in community based initiatives (Moscardo, 2008) in order to empower indigenous groups to develop their own cultural offering to travellers. One such research project that is currently under way, focuses on creating opportunities for the involvement of Aboriginal Traditional Owners (TOs) in the planning and management of cultural tourism in Girringun indigenous country in North Queensland, Australia (Hyams, 2007). The project explores the range of custodial responsibilities of TOs for managing country and their connectivity to tourism activities; documents how the current regulatory setting limits the capacity for Girringun TOs to manage tourism on their traditional land; and targets tourism stakeholder with rights and interests in the Girrungun country to discuss issues of concern to their TOs. The aim of these discussions is to explore mutual opportunities for partnerships that can enable a more holistic approach to sustainable tourism management in this region of Australia (Hyams, 2007).

Evidently the cultural tourism supply is diverse, consisting of many different forms of cultural offering. The last type, as suggested by Smith (2003) is popular cultural tourism. Unlike the indigenous or rural forms of cultural tourism, popular cultural tourism is enjoyed by the masses. It is about football and pop music, theme parks, leisure complexes and shopping malls. As stressed earlier, it is challenging to define boundaries or parameters around cultural tourism if it is defined as a whole way of life. Locals may therefore engage in what is broadly regarded as popular cultural tourism just as much as tourists. In the postmodern world, cultural tourism managers are increasingly recognising the needs of some tourists to partake in a wide range of local activities (Franklin, 2003; Smith, 2003). These cultural tourists are just as likely to want to go shopping or to a theme park as they would be likely to visit a cultural heritage site.

The above discussions on the types of cultural tourism do not include an overview of core trends in the cultural tourist attractions literature. It is anticipated that one of the studies in this thesis will investigate tourist experiences at cultural attractions. A discussion of the cultural tourist attraction literature trends is for this reason relevant.

- **Cultural tourist attractions – core trends**

An attraction, as suggested by the seminal definition of MacCannell (1976) and reformulated by Leiper (1990) is a system comprising three elements: a tourist, a sight and a marker - a piece of information about a sight. Attractions are central to the tourism process (Richards, 2002) and their presentation and consumption has been studied some in detail (MacCannell, 1976; Gunn,

1988; Rojek, 1997; Edensor, 1998). Still, their study suffers from lack of theoretical depth and empirical foundation (Richards, 2002; Benckendorff and Pearce, 2003).

Gunn (1988) argued that attractions have a magnetic pulling power with their quality of the design, development and operation. Others have disagreed with Gunn. Leiper (1990) stated that tourists are instead "pushed by their own motivation toward the places and/or events where their needs will be satisfied" (1990, p.380). It could, however be argued that today a duality exists between the structuring effect of attraction systems and the reproduction and development of these systems through the practices of tourists (Richards, 2002; Richards, Goedhart and Herrijgers, 2001). In other words, the push and pull forces coexist. In Richards's words: "cultural tourists are not only guided by attraction systems, but in seeking to escape from their confines, they are at the same time challenging, extending and ultimately reinforcing the systems themselves" (2002, p.1062). In line with the rise of creative tourism, modern cultural tourist attractions are responding to the changing demand of postmodern tourists by co-creating complete and satisfying experiences with their visitors. There is an investment in immersive and participatory technologies, such as touch screens and virtual exhibitions (Mitsche, Bauernfeind, Lombardi, Ciaffi, Guida, Paskaleva-Shapira and Besson, 2007) and bundling of various attractions in one for greater stimulation and engagement. As such, combinations of tourist attractions that were previously unthinkable, such as a theme park and a gallery or a soccer field and an opera, are becoming more prevalent (Richards, 2001). Tourist attractions managers are therefore integrating the entertainment and education function of tourist attractions to attract a broader public and wider range of visitor groups. Websites of cultural tourist attractions are also being modified. Mitsche, Reino, Knox and Bauernfeind (2008) conducted a study on how stories and interactive media are applied to cultural attraction websites. The results suggest that pictures, stories, virtual tours and maps feature prominently on the websites of major cultural tourist attractions.

Despite the focus on experience diversification and an appeal to a broader range of visitors, there is an oversupply of cultural tourism attractions. Problems are evident particularly in Europe. The market is becoming saturated not just by the growth in the tourism industry, but also by attractions from other sectors, such as cinemas and shopping complexes (Berry and Shephard, 2001). The issue of saturation has lead to a number of problems, particularly in Europe which has the highest concentration of cultural sites close to urban areas (UNESCO, 2008). Cultural heritage sites in the South East UK, for instance have been affected by:

accessibility problems, due to congested transportation systems, environmental degradation and the growth of housing developments which had jeopardized the appeal of the sites, particularly in rural areas. The creation of the Millennium Dome in London at the start of the year 2000 adversely affected the competitiveness of the major attractions in the South East UK (Berry and Shepard, 2001). In Spain, for example, a country with the highest number of cultural heritage sites in the world (Castro Leon, 2005), the oversupply effect has also occurred.

Postmodernism, creativity, growth, diversification, sustainability and the oversupply are evidently some of the forces shaping modern cultural tourism. It is clear, that cultural tourist attractions are changing the way they operate to stay competitive. One modern business paradigm, relevant to cultural tourism, is the experience economy paradigm. This paradigm emphasises the value of creating powerful experiences and in that sense bears some resemblance to the paradigm of happiness which is the focus of this thesis (Pine and Gilmore, 1999).

- **Experience industry and contemporary cultural tourism**

According to Pine and Gilmore, the Western economy has gone through several paradigm shifts – from extracting commodities to making goods, delivering services, to currently staging experiences. As such, experiences have become an offer that is distinct from services. Unlike services, experiences must be staged to engage the customer and to create memorable events. Phipps explains that “experience is an elusive quality which, regardless of its intangibility, is a powerful rationale for some of the otherwise inexplicably strange and dangerous pursuits of contemporary tourism, from bungee jumping to disaster tours” (1999, p.79). In the tourism industry, a notable example of a business that subscribes to the experience economy approach is Disney (Disney website, 2008). Disney and similar theme parks aim to satisfy the visitor need for enchantment by acting as “dream factories” that stage experiences in a creative way (Ritzer, 1999). There is also an application of this approach in the events sector, as the recent research on on-site event production would suggests (Goldblatt, 2007).

Despite the similar focus on experiences and engagement, experience economy seems different from creative tourism. Creative tourism appears to be about active co-creation of experiences (Daniel, 1996; Richards and Wilson, 2006) whereas the Pine and Gilmore’s concept (1999) focuses on staging experiences. The experience economy model is also more avidly business-like, in which experiences are explicitely valued in monetary terms. Some scholars differentiate between two schools of thought on the production and consumption of

tourist experiences. These are the predominately North American school focusing on staging (based on Pine and Gilmore, 1999) and the more participatory, mostly European school (Nijs, 2007; Mossberg, 2008), focusing on co-creation between the tourist and the provider for the mutual benefit. Edensor (1998) further warns that it is probable that the perceived worth of impromptu experiences in heterogeneous tourist spaces is higher than those staged experiences by the tourism industry in enclavic spaces. Many experiences are beyond price and would be difficult to charge for, but this does not reduce their value to visitors. Richards (2001) adds that the most valuable and memorable experiences are commonly those which are unexpected or unplanned.

The implication is that cultural tourism managers may have to more carefully design their experience management strategies to truly satisfy and attract their visitors. Nevertheless the research on the production and consumption of experiences in cultural tourism is very new (Han, Um and Mills, 2005; Pearce, 2005; Ritchie, 2007). In the 21st century, postmodern cultural tourism landscape, there is a need for a better understanding of visitor experiences, their management and impact, beyond mere economic concerns. A successful business, like the one providing the dance holidays or the Catalan gastronomy, is shaping memorable experiences with its tourists with an aim of transcending the traditional business provider – customer divide.

Yet, cultural tourism and youth travel are only two areas of tourism research in which themes relevant to tourists' happiness can be analysed. Aspects of tourists' happiness can also be explored by taking a closer look at the conceptualisation and measurement of travel motivation and satisfaction.

Tourist Motivation

- **Human motivation and needs**

Motivation refers to the processes that cause people to behave as they do. From a psychological perspective, motivation occurs when a need is aroused that a person wishes to satisfy (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard and Hogg, 2006). Much of the research on human motivation therefore focuses on understanding human needs.

Needs can be hedonic, utilitarian, biogenic and psychogenic (Solomon *et al*, 2006). Hedonic needs are those that are subjective and experiential and include needs such as, the need for

excitement, self-confidence or fantasy. Utilitarian needs are those that have functional value, such as the need to reduce fat, increase fuel economy of the car and so on (Askegaard and Firat (1997). Biogenic needs are those that are required to maintain life, such as the need for food, water, air, shelter. These needs are therefore innate (Solomon *et al*, 2006). On the contrary, people acquire psychogenic needs as they become members of a particular culture. These could include, for instance, the need for status, power or affiliation. These needs are not innate but culturally shaped. Their effect on behaviour will vary in different environments. In a consumer setting for example, a Western buyer may be more driven to devote some of her or his income to products that permit her or him to display autonomy and status than a Bhutanese person who may work equally hard to ensure she or he does not stand out from a group (Baudrillard, 1969; Solomon *et al*, 2006). Much research has been done on classifying human needs. Murray (1938) outlines 20 psychogenic needs which are presented in table 2.2.

Table 2.2 – Psychogenic needs

Need	Definition
Abasement	To surrender and submit to others, accept blame and punishment. To enjoy pain and misfortune.
Achievement	To accomplish difficult tasks, overcoming obstacles and becoming expert.
Affiliation	To be close and loyal to another person, pleasing them and winning their friendship and attention.
Aggression	To forcefully overcome an opponent, controlling, taking revenge or punishing them.
Autonomy	To break free from constraints, resisting coercion and dominating authority. To be irresponsible and independent.
Counteraction	To make up for failure by trying again, seeking pridefully to overcome obstacles.
Defendance	To defend oneself against attack or blame, hiding any failure of the self.
Deference	To admire a superior person, praising them and yielding to them and following their rules.
Dominance	To control one's environment, controlling other people through command or subtle persuasion.
Exhibition	To impress others through one's actions and words, even if these are shocking.
Harm avoidance	To escape or avoid pain, injury and death.
Infavoidance	To avoid being humiliated or embarrassed.
Nurturance	To help the helpless, feeding them and keeping them from danger.
Order	To make things clean, neat and tidy.
Play	To have fun, laugh and relax, enjoying oneself.
Rejection	To separate oneself from a negatively viewed object or person, excluding or abandoning it.
Sentience	To seek out and enjoy sensual experiences.
Sex	To form relationship that lead to sexual intercourse.
Succourance	To have one's needs satisfied by someone or something. Includes being loved, nursed, helped, forgiven and consoled.
Understanding	To be curious, ask questions and find answers.

Murray believed that everyone has a basic set of needs but that people differ in their priority ranking of these needs (Solomon *et al*, 2006). These needs occur, sometime in combination, in specific behaviours (McClelland, 1955). One Murray's need that has received specific attention by researchers in psychology is the need for affiliation (or to be in company of other people) (Schachter, 1959). This need has a long history of research and it has been shown that those with a high need for affiliation often have a larger social circle, spend more time interacting with others and are more likely to be members of social groups or clubs. It was also shown that individuals with high levels of this need are also more likely to be lonely (Solomon *et al*, 2006).

A useful model that encompasses needs such as affiliation, but also includes other biogenic and psychogenic needs is Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow (1954) suggests that human needs occur in a hierarchical way and that one set of needs is most dominant in any one time. The levels of the hierarchy consist of: physiological needs (such as the need for air, water, food), safety needs (such as the need for protection from assault, murder, chaos) , love and belongingness needs (needs for family bonds, social interaction), esteem needs (such as a need for status and confidence) and the need for self actualisation, which is in Maslow's words, a need "to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (1954, p. 46). Hagerty (1999) explains that self-actualisation occurs when an individual makes maximum use of his or her gifts and interests. An individual typically moves up the hierarchy to satisfy her or his needs.

Maslow's hierarchy is typically presented as a pyramid or a triangle in undergraduate or introductory psychology books and consumer behaviour texts (see Rubin and McNeil, 1987; Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith and Bern, 1993; Solomon *et al*, 2006). Rowan (1998) points out that the problem with the pyramid or the triangle is that it suggests a closed system with a perfect point and a strict order of progressing from lower order needs to self actualisation. Maslow (1973, 1987) in his original writings never used this metaphor for his hierarchy and this fact is further stressed in chapter 3. Solomon *et al* (2006), who also portray the hierarchy as a pyramid, state that the hierarchy implies that the order of development is fixed – that is, a certain level, must be attained before the next, higher one is activated. Maslow (1954, 1973, 1987) on the contrary, suggested that one set of needs is dominant at any time but did not stress a strict progression.

Another criticism is that the hierarchy is culture bound. According to Solomon *et al:* "The assumptions of the hierarchy may be restricted to a highly rational, materialistic and

individualistic Western culture" (2006, p. 100). Rowan (1998), Wilber (1983), Riegel (1984) and more recently in the tourism context, Lee and Pearce (2003) disagree with this claim. Rowan says that "Maslow's (1987) theory, often critized because of its lack of empirical support, does in fact have very good empirical support from excellent research carried out over a long period in several different countries" (1998, p.83). Lee and Pearce's (2003) research shows the hierarchy has value in gauging the motives of Korean tourists. Maslow's hierarchy of needs therefore seems a theoretically robust and universal motivation model and seemingly, a useful approach to evaluations of tourist motivations.

- **Tourist motivation phases**

In the tourism field, motivation research has a short history characterised by opposing views on what motivates travelers. Up until 1994, the area of motivation was one of the least researched areas of tourism (Fodness, 1994; Pearce, 2005). Harrill and Potts (2002) emphasise that consensus has been difficult to achieve. Tourist motivation research is challenging due to a wide range of human needs (Pearce, 2005), methodological difficulties (French, Craig-Smith and Collier, 1995) and the need for applications across cultures (Smith, 1995). Hence, no commonly agreed on theoretical and conceptual framework has emerged (Jafari, 1987; Fodness, 1994; Pearce, 2005). Yet, the importance of studying motivation has been widely acknowledged. Lee and Pearce state that "there is a general consensus that travel motivation research makes a significant contribution to both academic and commercial interests" (2003, p. 65). Some time ago, Crompton (1979) stressed that it is easier to describe the who, when, where and how of tourism but much more challenging to answer the question "why?" which is most relevant to motivation.

Harrill and Potts (2002) distinguish between three core phases in the development of tourist motivation models. The exploratory phase took place during the 1970s and aimed to identify types of travelleres and find out why these tourist types might have different travel preferences. The second phase was the phase of great debates, which corresponded with developments in the social psychology of leisure. Lastly, there was a period of transition which showed fragmentation as well as some synthesis of contending disciplinary positions. By exploring the three phases it is shown that there is still room for fresh ideas on conceptualisation and measurement of tourist motivation, such as the exploration of happiness ideas from psychology. The positive psychology motivation approach is however not presented here and is instead discussed in chapter 3.

- **Exploration**

The works of Cohen (1972), Plog (1972, 1990, 1991), Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) are seminal in this phase (Harril and Potts, 2002). Cohen outlined four classes of tourists: the organised mass tourist, the individual mass tourists, the explorer and the drifter. He classified these types based on the dichotomy between strangeness and familiarity. Thus, an organised mass tourist would seek a high degree of familiarity with little contact with host cultures. On the other end of the spectrum is the drifter who arranges the trip alone and integrates more in a local environment but still seeks comfortable and reliable accommodation and transportation. The model is sociological as "the primary emphasis is on the relationship between the tourist and members of the host society" (Harrill and Potts, 2002, p. 108).

An alternative typology in the exploration phase is the one of Plog (1972). Plog suggests that travellers could be either allocentrics (outgoing and confident, inquisitive and curious, interested in travel of all types) or psychocentric (self-inhibited and non-adventuresome, rarely eager to explore new tourist destinations, prefer comfortable settings). The model has been criticised on theoretical and methodological grounds (Harrill and Potts, 2002). Getz (1986) explained that the model is purely descriptive and says nothing about why people might be categorized in such a way. In a study involving international tourists, Smith (1990) found that Plog's model failed to support the hypothesised relationship between preferences and personality types. Pearce (2005) comments that the model has a North American bias and that measures of the dimensions are not widely refined (for example, the use of 8 questions to establish an individual position on the allocentric – psychocentric scale).

Plog's model, as is the case with the Cohen's typology, is more sociological than psychological, according to Harrill and Potts (2002). Remaining in this tradition is the work of Graham Dann (1977). Dann postulates that tourist motivation can be understood in terms of anomie and ego-enhancement. This relationship, however, is not dichotomous as in Plog's model. An individual motivated by anomie, or normlessness, is eager to engage in tourism out of a need to escape. The problem is that the model did not suggest that tourists could be motivated by an array if different motives. Crompton (1979) thus attempted to synthesise sociological and psychological motives by locating them on a cultural-socio-psychological continuum. He therefore suggests that tourists can be motivated by novelty and education (as cultural motives) and the following socio-psychological motives: escape from a perceived mundane environment; exploration and

evaluation of self; relaxation; prestige; regression; enhancement of kinship; and social interaction. The model was, however, devised in the late 1970s and since that period of time, other significant tourist motivation approaches have emerged.

- **Debate**

In the 1980s, debates, reviews and rejoinders in tourist motivation research intensified (Dann, 1981; Mayo and Jarvis, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pearce, 1982 and Stringer and Pearce, 1984). Criticising the previous simplistic approaches, Mayo and Jarvis (1981) emphasised that "travel is a complex, symbolic form of behavior through which the traveler is usually striving to satisfy multiple needs" (1981, p.149). They argued that the concepts of complexity and consistency are particularly relevant in explaining motivations to travel. According to their reasoning, tourists travel to vary the amount of sameness or consistency in life, in turn searching for complex situations through travel experiences.

Criticism and debates also emerged between the sociological and psychological schools of thought on tourist motivation. Dann (1981) developed a tourist motivation model based on symbolic interactionism. Symbolic interactionism suggests that people tend to accord causal significance to social interaction and hence meaning stems not from solitary mental processes but from interaction (Ritzer, 1996; Harrill and Potts, 2002). Dann (1981) hence argued that tourists prior to travel visualise interactive acts that take place during travel experiences which are meaningful and which motivate that person to engage in tourism. This view was staunchly criticized by Iso Ahola who argued that Dann neglected psychological research on tourist motivation.

Stringer and Pearce (1984) and Pearce (1982) called for a more balanced approach which draws from both psychological and sociological traditions. This view addresses the issue of multimotive causation of behavior, long term motivational perspective as well as questions of intrinsic motivation. Stringer and Pearce state:

"The middle course leads to socio-psychological knowledge which is neither too general nor too specific and which is concerned with the understanding of social behavior both through basic processes and the social systems which give it form. It is in the study of relationship, as such, between the individual and the social that social psychology can find a unique and less schismatic identity" (1984, p.11).

Such a model of tourist motivation, which aims to reconcile some of the opposing views, was eventually developed by Pearce (1988) and was partially based on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy. The model - travel career ladder and its recent adaptation – travel career patterns (Pearce, 2005) are explained in detail in chapter 3. Discussion now turns to some of the other approaches which have shaped the tourist motivation history. Many of these are part of the Harril and Potts' transition phase of motivation.

- **Transition**

Despite the attempts at reconciliation, after the 1980s the tourist motivation research did not enter a phase of maturity but instead ventured into transition to a more functional and rational way of comprehending motivation (Harrill and Potts, 2002). Notable works in this era are those of Mansfeld (1992) and Fodness (1994), amongst others. Mansfeld rejected the earlier motivation models arguing that motivation is too difficult to isolate. Instead he focused on understanding the relationship between travel preferences and actual choices, as seen through his destination-choice model of tourist motivation. In this functionalist model, Mansfeld stresses the role of destination attributes in shaping motivations to travel. He suggests the following: "If it is assumed that travel motivation is reflected in the way tourists evaluate destination attributes, then the relative importance placed on the various attributes can be measured, and, thus a great deal can be learned about what actually motives tourists to travel" (p.414).

A similar functionalist view was also developed by Fodness (1994). This functional approach purports that the reason individuals hold specific attitudes is that these attitudes serve psychological needs. From this perspective, the inner needs precipitate attitudes and ultimately actions based on those attitudes which are designed to release a state of tension and satisfy needs. Thus, the reasons people give for their travel behaviour represents the psychological functions (needs) that the holiday satisfies (Fodness, 1994). Although Fodness uses a different approach, he identifies a similar set of motives as some of the earlier researchers. For example, he mentions the need for ego enhancement as a core reason to travel, which resembles Dann's (1977) work. This suggests that early research remains useful even if it does not meet perfect empirical standards. As Harrill and Potts say: "The failure to develop a universal social psychological model of tourist motivation does not appear to have impeded research on tourist behavior in general" (p.111).

Therefore, the exploration, debate and transition phases may be over, but the quest for maturity in travel motivation research continues as research on tourist behaviour keeps evolving. There is much room to advance models of tourist motivation and behavior and create better ones that are methodologically eclectic, multidisciplinary and that draw from the previous knowledge of the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. There may, however, also be opportunities for embellishing standard approaches with fresh ideas from fields of study which have evolved in the post-2000 period, such as positive psychology. The need for further embellishment and advancement of existing theories is also evident in the research field of tourist satisfaction.

Tourist Satisfaction

This section critically considers some ways tourist satisfaction has been understood and measured as the literature in this field is also relevant to understanding aspects of tourists' happiness. The satisfaction model of flow, for example, is discussed in this section - the model is used in the research studies and is linked to the happiness dimension of engagement. While acknowledging that the list of satisfaction themes and measurement approaches presented here may not be exhaustive, the list broadly resembles classifications provided by Ryan (1995) and Pearce (2005) in their reviews of tourist satisfaction. Three approaches to tourist satisfaction are discussed: the dominant, expectations approaches; the qualitative, Nordic approaches and the novel and innovative experience concepts and measurements.

- **Expectations approaches**

This tradition defines tourist satisfaction as the degree to which a tourist's assessment of the attributes of a destination exceeds expectations (Tribe and Snaith, 1998). In other words, consumer's dissatisfaction and satisfaction is a function of disconfirmation arising from discrepancies between prior expectations and actual performance (Oliver, 1980). In lay terms, if destination attributes are equal to or better than expected, the tourist is left satisfied; if on the other hand, destination attributes do not match the level of expectations, the tourist is not satisfied. This school of thought, which commonly equates tourists to consumers and thus tourist satisfaction to service satisfaction, has dominated the way satisfaction has been conceptualised in tourism (Pearce, 2005). Specific models based on this school of thought as classified by Truong (2005) include, but are not limited to: SERVQUAL, SERVPERF, IPA and HOLSAT.

The SERVQUAL (Service Quality) model is entirely based on the abovementioned disconfirmation paradigm by Oliver (1980). SERVQUAL is therefore a discrepancy model which basically assumes that consumer satisfaction is measured as the difference between expected provision and actual provision (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988; Truong, 2005). In SERVQUAL, destination attributes are absolutes and satisfaction is measured as difference between an ideal and actual state, typically through questionnaires (Ryan, 1995). The questionnaires, commonly consisting of Likert scales, typically require respondents to rank their expectations and judge the performance of their service on a seven point scale (Teas, 1993). The scales measure five underlying dimensions of service quality, consisting of: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman *et al*, 1988). Due to the ease and efficiency of data collection and the straightforward nature of the questions, the SERVQUAL scales are commonly used in the tourism industry and in academic tourist satisfaction research (Pearce, 2005). A variation of SERVQUAL is SERVPERF, which is a performance based model that better reflects long term service quality attitudes in cross-sectional studies (Cronin and Taylor, 1994) and is more construct-valid and efficient than SERVQUAL (Crossley and Xu, 1996). Essentially, however, SERVPERF is also based on the expectations – performance analysis.

The third expectations based approach is Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). In a seminal marketing paper, Martilla and James (1977) explain that IPA is an easily applied technique for measuring attribute importance and performance. IPA suggests that consumer satisfaction is a function of both expectations related to specific important service attributes and judgments of attribute performance (Martilla and James, 1977). Importance and performance ratings can be obtained for various service attributes through questionnaires and the results can be plotted on an IPA grid. In this grid there is a performance axis and an importance axis. The attribute ratings are then plotted on these axis based on performance (from fair to excellent) and importance (from slightly important to extremely important) (Martilla and James, 1977; Hudson and Shephard, 1998). The real benefit of IPA is that it is simple to use. Tourism managers can identify areas where services need to be improved without employing complex statistical skills (Truong, 2005).

The last of the major expectations approaches is HOLSAT (Holiday Satisfaction) model, devised and developed by Tribe and Snaith (1998). It is also a gap model as the other approaches, but explicitly focuses on tourism services. The model “compares the performance of a wide range

of holiday attributes against a holidaymaker's expectations as a means of evaluating satisfaction with a particular holiday destination or experience" (Truong, 2005, p. 229). The attributes are grouped into five categories: attractions, activities, accessibility, accommodation and amenity (Tribe and Snaith, 1998). It focuses less on performance alone than SERVPERF (Cronin and Taylor, 1994) and more on the relationship between performance and prior expectations. It also does not focus on performance in relation to importance (IPA; Truong, 2005) or performance related to best absolute quality (SERVQUAL; Parasuraman *et al*, 1988). It therefore overcomes the concept of absolute values of satisfaction and addresses multidimensional nature of consumer satisfaction with a holiday (Tribe and Snaith, 1998).

The expectations approaches and measures of tourist satisfaction have, however, received significant negative criticism. Empirical studies have shown that SERVQUAL fails to exhibit construct validity and that there is conceptual confusion about the interchangeability of the terms service quality and satisfaction (Brown, Churchill and Peter, 1993; Teas, 1993; Childress and Crompton, 1997; Truong, 2005). SERVPERF aims to give a full picture of satisfaction in the context of a price-based strategy, but not in the context of performance alone (Tribe and Snaith, 1998). IPA lacks statistical significance testing ability and the technique is not intended to provide thorough information to managers (Hudson and Shephard, 1998). The HOLSAT questionnaire instrument does not include general questions and open questions and hence has limited ability to gain rich information. The model also requires further testing with large samples to achieve reliable results and interpretations (Tribe and Snaith, 1998; Truong, 2002, 2005).

There are more serious problems with the expectations approaches to tourist satisfaction and some of the major criticisms are also addressed in chapter 5. The appropriateness of tying expectations to the construct of satisfaction has been questioned. In particular, it has been noted that expectations can change, that they can be superficial and uncertain, that tourists may not occasionally have expectations about their holiday and that expectations can be inflated to preserve ego (Pearce, 1988; Mazurksy, 1989; Babakus and Boller, 1992; Crompton and Love, 1995; Ryan, 1995). Additionally, these expectations assessments typically originate from applied disciplines, such as marketing and management (Ryan, 1995; Pearce, 2005). Tourism, however, may not only be viewed as a service, but as a social force (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2005) or as an experience (Tosun, Pinat-Temizkan, Timothy and Fyall, 2007). As such, tourist satisfaction can also be viewed differently and not only through the business and consumer lens (Martilla and James, 1977; Parasurman *et al*, 1988). In this context, critics have argued that a

greater array of methodological tools is necessary to understand the complexity of tourist satisfaction, in particular its affective dimension (Barsky and Nash, 2002; Pearce, 2005).

- **Nordic approaches**

As an alternative way of studying and measuring tourist satisfaction, a Scandinavian or Nordic school of thought has also formed (Kozak, 2001; Pearce, 2005). This approach is exemplified by some not so recent works on participants in guided tours (Hughes, 1991), tourists at campgrounds (Foster and Jackson, 1979), marine tourists (Greenwood and Moscardo, 1999), rural travellers (Black and Rutledge, 1996) and birdwatchers (Applegate and Clarke, 1987). This school of thought avoids the expectations emphasis and includes performance-only measures of tourist satisfaction (Prakash, 1984; Crompton and Love, 1995). Satisfaction is commonly evaluated through cross section surveys (Kozak, 2001). Crompton and Love (1995) showed that the performance only measures were superior to expectations based approaches in measuring satisfaction at tourist festivals. The key disadvantage of the Nordic approaches is the following "at core, Nordic approaches to satisfaction are pragmatic and consistent with the definition of satisfaction as a post hoc attitude "(Pearce, 2005, p.172). In other words, the approaches are highly reflective and thus cannot adequately evaluate near immediate conscious experiences. These are experiences of the present moment (James, 1890) and include the flow of perceptions, purposeful thoughts, fragmentary images, bodily sensations or emotions (Pope and Singer, 1978) which form part of tourist's satisfaction levels during an on-site visit. The value of understanding the immediate conscious experiences is explained in chapter 4. Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) emphasise that both post hoc and immediate conscious satisfaction is relevant to tourist and leisure experiences. Yet the measurements of tourist satisfaction in tourism studies have focused mainly on the former (Pearce, 2005).

Therefore, to overcome the issues of operationalisation and measurement which, evidently abound in the tourist satisfaction literature (Noe, 1999), experience approaches to the conceptualisation and assessment of tourist satisfaction have emerged in tourism, leisure and allied social science specialisms. Analysis of these experience approaches to tourist satisfaction is particularly relevant as the notion of happiness is linked to the phases of the travel experience in this thesis.

- **Experience approaches**

Tourism can be defined by its focus on the production of experiences (Prentice, Witt and Hamer, 1998) and experiences have for a long time been a central concept in tourism research (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Stamboulis and Skayannis, 2003; Uriely, 2005). Experience can be understood in affective as well as in cognitive terms. That is, as any sensation or knowledge acquisition resulting from a person's participation in an activity. Although the research on tourist experiences is not always linked to tourist satisfaction (Uriely, 2005), experience concepts and empirical assessments of these concepts may improve the operationalisation and measurement of this complex construct. The following experience themes broadly correspond to the array of related concepts mentioned by Moscardo (2009) in her analysis of tourist experiences. Slow time, aesthetic experience and restoration have been added to this collection of experiences approaches.

- **Mindfulness**

Mindfulness, as it is known in psychology, is:

"A flexible, cognitive state that results from drawing novel distinctions about the situation and environment. When one is mindful, one is actively engaged in the present and sensitive to both context and perspective. The mindful condition is both the result of, and the continuing cause of, actively noticing new things"(Carson and Langer, 2006, p. 29-30).

This construct is the opposite of mindlessness which is a state in which one is oblivious to context or perspective and in which one has a limited ability to reconsider or reinterpret information (Swanson and Ramiller, 2004; Djikic and Langer, 2007).

The link between satisfaction and mindfulness has been acknowledged (Moscardo, 2009). The theory has been applied in various tourism contexts and the evidence has frequently shown that mindfulness is associated with a range of positive outcomes. Some of these outcomes are: more effective learning, better mental and physical health, positive evaluations of experiences and positive affective responses to different situations (Carson and Langer, 2006, Houston and Turner, 2007). On the contrary, mindlessness is more commonly associated with feelings of helplessness, boredom, frustration and incompetence (Carson and Langer, 2006).

There are also linkages between mindfulness and the creation of meaning. Meaning, as was seen in the introductory chapter, is one element of happiness and hence a core satisfaction concept. A key feature of mindfulness, according to Moscardo (2009), is the processing of new information and creation of new ways of looking at the world, both of which are prerequisites for the creation of new meanings of that world. Indeed, Houston and Turner point out: "mindfulness is a process through which meaning is given to outcomes." (2007, p.139)

In tourism studies, researchers have employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches to evaluate mindfulness (Moscardo, 2009). A discussion of these methods is beyond the scope of this brief analysis. The contexts have included: interpretation (Moscardo, Ballantyne and Hughes, 2007), wildlife based tourism situations (Woods and Moscardo, 2003), natural environments (Moscardo and Woods, 1998) and built tourist attractions (Benckendorff, Moscardo and Murphy, 2006).

- **Existential authenticity**

Mindfulness is a precursor for authentic experiences of self (Carson and Langer, 2006; Kim and Jamal, 2007; Moscardo, 2009). These authentic experiences of self resemble the concept of existential authenticity. Steiner and Reisinger (2006) point out that authenticity is a blurry concept in tourism studies as it has been perceived in two general ways: as realness of artifacts or events (MacCannell, 1979) or as a human attribute signifying being one's true self or being true to one's nature (Steiner and Reisinger, 2006). Existential authenticity refers to the second interpretation and is the essence of human individuality. It is for instance, about the mutually exhilarating feeling of hosts and tourists when they feel special while dancing together (Daniel, 1996) but not about a forced smile of airline personnel or travel agents (Hochschild, 1983). This genuine and satisfactory experience makes a person feel human and happy (Kant, 1929; Hegel, 1977; Heidegger, 1996). Existential authenticity is challenging to empirically study in tourism (Wang, 1999), but, phenomenological, qualitative methods seem most appropriate (Cohen, 1988). These include long, in-depth interviews or written narratives about lived holiday experiences (Reid, Flowers and Larkin, 2005). The data can be transcribed and analysed through interpretative phenomenological analysis, as will be explained in chapter 4.

- **Tourist moment**

Tied in with the notion of existential authenticity is the concept of tourist moment. Hom Cary (2004) points out that "it is Wang's rethinking of MacCannellian authenticity, and his subsequent

formulation of existential authenticity, that comes closest to the tourist moment" (p. 63). Hom Cary (2004) refers to the citation from Daniel (1996) describing the tourist moment and the state of existential authenticity through dance:

"For many tourists, the dance becomes their entire world at that particular moment. Time and tensions are suspended. The discrepancies of the real world are postponed…Tourism, in moments of dance performance, opens the door to a liminal world that gives relief from day-to-day, ordinary tensions, and, for Cuban dancers and dancing tourists particularly, permits indulgence in near ecstatic experiences" (Daniel, 1996, p.789).

Hom Cary (2004) therefore defines the tourist moment as the heightened experience - a confluence of authenticity, history and culture that surpasses the tourist perception of herself or himself as a tourist. Of course, tourist moments can also be dull, painful, highly frustrating and entirely negative (Hom Cary, 2004) but these moments are not the focus of attention for tourism researchers who are focused on understanding satisfaction as opposed to dissatisfaction.

Hom Cary also suggests that these special and highly satisfactory tourist moments can best be evaluated through narratives. The narratives could feature in travel journal entries, diaries, postcards or conversations. Researchers could interpret the tourists' narratives to better understand the tourist moments and hence tourist satisfaction. Another concept loosely tied to these considerations of satisfaction is slow travel.

- **Slow travel and slow food**

Stories or narratives are also ways of studying satisfaction through the concept of slow travel. In her examination of slow forms of travel as holiday experiences, Dickinson (2007) examined the stories people tell about their travel. Slow travel is a type of travel where tourists experience a deeper understanding of a place by staying in that place for longer periods of time than mass tourists and avoiding long day trips. This type of travel could involve staying in a vacation rental for a week and attempting to live like a local (such as shopping at local stores, going to the same cafe every morning or taking the time to see attractions that are in the vicinity of the vacation home) (Slow Travel website, 2008). Findings from Dickinson's research suggest that these travelers typically engage more deeply with places and people and that slow travel experiences can be constructed very positively. Slow travel is thus a useful experience concept for analysing tourist satisfaction at an in-depth, personal level.

An aligned construct is the notion of slow food in hospitality research (Bratec, 2008). Slow food in the context of satisfaction is about slowly savouring and enjoying food and respecting the effort and time involved in turning it into a delicious meal. The slow food therefore does not only feed people's bodies but also their minds, as Miele and Murdoch (2002) argue. The slow food has therefore been linked to personal satisfaction and mental rejuvenation (Bratec, 2008). In a context of Slovenian gastronomy, hour long, in-depth interviews were combined with observational work to assess the concept of slow food in selected restaurants around the country. The results showed that slow food experiences were generally very positive and enriching to the participants.

- **Aesthetic experience**

A different experience approach to tourist satisfaction is the concept of aesthetic experience which has been used in visitor studies and museum research (Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson, 1990). The concept, however, originates from the work of a German philosopher, Alexander Baumgarter, who arguably first used the term aesthetic experience in Reflections on Poetry (1936, first published 1735). Baumgarten argued that reason articulates a set of rules within which the mind can operate, but that humans also have another way of understanding reality: "an experience of blinding intuition, a sense of certainty and completeness as convincing as any reason provides" (Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson, 1990, p. 10). It is this second way of seeing reality that resembles aesthetic experience.

Beardsley (1982) lists five basic dimensions of the aesthetic experience:

- Object focus (attention is fixed on intentional field)
- Felt freedom (release from concerns about past and future)
- Detached affect (object of interest are set at a distance emotionally)
- Active discovery (active exercise of powers to meet environmental challenges) and
- Wholeness (a sense of personal integration and self expansion).

Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson point out that the state is inherently pleasurable. The experience is thus clearly linked with satisfaction. Aesthetic experience, just like slow travel, is typically assessed qualitatively. Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson, for instance, conducted long in-

depth interviews with art museum professionals to evaluate the nature and conditions of the aesthetic experience in a museum context.

- **Mental restoration**

In museum contexts, the experience related construct of mental restoration is also a useful satisfaction approach (Packer, 2008). Four conditions form part of the mental restoration process: fascination (being engaged without effort); being away (physically and mentally removed from one's everyday environment); the perception of "extent" (the environment has significant content and structure to occupy the mind for an extended period) and compatibility (providing a good fit with one's purposes and inclinations) (Kaplan and Kaplan, 1989).
The name itself and the dimensions suggest that restoration is a satisfying state. The four restorative factors have been most commonly found in natural environments (Packer, 2008). There is evidence, however, that educational leisure settings, such as museums, also possess restorative elements (Kaplan, Bardwell and Slakter, 1993). Similar to the presence of the aesthetic experience in the Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson's study, Kaplan *et al* (1993) found that many museum visitors had a restorative experience during their visit. In this restoration study focus groups were used to find out if visitors raised any of the themes theoretically related to the mental restoration concept. The researchers found evidence of all the four dimensions and two conditions they identified as outcomes: a peaceful, positive, calm state; and engagement in reflection (Packer, 2008). The focus group method was shown to be a useful technique of soliciting satisfaction data.

- **Flow**

Nevertheless, with the exception of mindfulness, flow seems to have the most developed methodology out of the above experience approaches to satisfaction. Yet, unlike mindfulness it has received limited attention in tourism research and only marginal consideration in leisure research (Cohen, 2008). The flow state methodology is introduced in the methodological creativity section of this literature review and thoroughly discussed in chapters 4 and 5. In the following discussion, the concept is defined and linked to tourist satisfaction.

Flow is a state when everything comes together for an individual, where one is totally involved in a voluntary activity at hand and where the experience is highly rewarding in itself (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). It is a highly engaging state and, axiomatically, a deeply satisfying state (Jackson and Eklund, 2004). Yet evaluations of flow remain predominantly few in tourism

studies (Cohen, forthcoming; Han, Um and Mills, 2005; Ryan, 1995). The flow theory originates from Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) study in psychology. In this seminal work, experiences of visual artists were examined. Csikszentmihalyi (1975) was interested in trying to understand how artists got cognitively involved in their paintings and the feelings of joy and pleasure which they had during their engaging experiences. He identified nine core features or dimensions of such flow states. (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990):

- Challenge-skill balance (there is a match between perceived skills and challenges)
- Action-awareness merging (deep involvement leads to automaticity and spontaneity; there is no awareness of self as separate from the actions one is performing)
- Clear goals (there is a strong sense of what one is going to do)
- Unambiguous feedback (clear and immediate feedback that the person is doing his/her activity well and is succeeding in his/her goal)
- Concentration on task (total concentration on the task at hand)
- Sense of control (sense of exercising control without actively trying to be in control)
- Loss of self-consciousness (concern for the self disappears and the person becomes one with the activity)
- Time transformation (time disorientation or a loss of time awareness)
- Autotelic experience (an intrinsically rewarding experience involving a sense of deep enjoyment).

The dimensions have been linked to the dimensions of the aesthetic experience and this link is further outlined in chapter 5. There are arguably also linkages to the mental restoration criteria although works that relate the two concepts seems to be missing. Finally, the flow state has also been linked to the mindfulness concept, as its cognitive dimensions (such as challenge-skill balance or concentration on task) resemble the cognitive state of mindfulness (Moscardo, 2009).

Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) work on flow theory is seminal as there has been a proliferation of studies which have applied the model and/or proved the existence of the dimensions in various contexts. The theory has therefore been explored in music, games, religious rituals and other creative activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999), in various sports (Jackson and Eklund, 2004; Jackson and Marsh, 1996; Jackson and Eklund, 2002, Phillips, 2005), in passive activities such

as chess and more active ones like dancing (Jackson and Eklund, 2004) and in work settings, particularly reading and writing contexts (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre, 1989). Works exploring relationships between flow and tourist activities, however, are infrequent (Ryan, 1995; Han Um and Mills, 2005).

Despite this scarcity, relationships between this engaging state and tourist satisfaction have been established more than a decade ago (Ryan, 1995). Ryan discussed the application of the theory to whitewater rafting tourist experiences. He presented the model as a lens through which tourist satisfaction can be conceptualised. Nevertheless, a discussion of flow state methodology and its usefulness in measuring tourist satisfaction (Jasckson, 1992; Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre, 1989; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) was beyond the scope of Ryan's (1995) analysis.

In addition to the preceding reviews of the literature on positive psychology, youth travel, cultural tourism, travel motivation and satisfaction to assist in fleshing out research questions relevant to the topic of tourists' happiness, the issue of methodological creativity is also worth discussing. This discussion is important because a somewhat experimental and non-traditional methodological style is taken in this thesis. By discussing a range of other creative and non-traditional methodological styles in tourism, the argument for adopting the non-traditional methodological style in this thesis is strengthened. Common, dominant and traditional methodological paradigms are challenged by the explicit happiness approach to understanding tourist behaviour.

Methodological creativity

In a 1999 paper, Small commented that the tourism literature revealed that debate about tourism research methodologies and methods is not high on the agenda of tourism authors. Among the few authors who raised methodological concerns were Dann, Nash and Pearce (1988) who commented that "new research methods in tourism as a whole have not been high in the publication stakes" (p.419) and Walle (1997) who claimed that there was a need for tourism scholarship to expand its toolkit and embrace a greater plethora of techniques. The opposite seems to be the case today. A critical tourism research block has flourished with its innovative research methodologies in tourism studies (Ateljevic, Pritchard and Morgan, 2007). A book series on advances in tourism research is ongoing (Elsevier, 2008), with volumes dealing with topics such as cutting edge research in tourism (Tribe and Airey, 2007) and

emergence of research sub-areas (Ryan and Page, 2000).The audience for the book series is significantly wider than academics and every book aims to make a profound contribution to the literature by questioning some of the contested but dominant research paradigms in tourism studies (Elsevier, 2008). Further, a group of senior tourism scholars has recently coined five new values of global tourism education (stewardship, knowledge, professionalism, ethics**,** mutual respect) which will require fresh ways of measurement and implementation of those values (Sheldon, 2008). In the tourist behavior field (Pearce, 2005) there are calls for greater diversity in measuring complex phenomena, such as motivation and satisfaction (Dann and Phillips, 2001). Perhaps the reason for these increased calls for methodological creativity is that published tourism research is commonly seen as methodologically deficient when compared to other academic disciplines (Ryan, 2005).

The new era of tourism studies could indeed be seen as an era of creativity. There are many recent examples of methodological approaches in tourism. Aligned with the new approaches is an ongoing critique of the dominance of positivism.

- **Dominance of positivism**

The dominance of positivism in tourism research is widely recognised (Walle, 1997). Walle points out that both qualitative and quantitative approaches are generally regarded as useful in social sciences. In tourism however, since the time when tourism has formed as academic specialism, there has been a focus on research from practical disciplines (such as management and marketing) and an emphasis from traditional disciplines, such as sociology or psychology, to transform theoretical knowledge in practical ways (Walle, 1997). In such an environment, dominated by management imperatives, qualitative research, characterised by rich and complex information about relatively few subjects (Veal, 2005) was seen as inferior to quantitative research. In relation to the hospitality industry, Lewis, Chambers and Chacko therefore point out that the purpose of qualitative research is to “provide information for further development of quantitative research” (1995, p.171.).

The reality is much more complex. Lowych, van Langenhave, Bollaert (1992) and Walle (1997) point out that a major drawback of quantitative methods is that they are asking the researcher to refrain from using insight, intuition and other non-rigorous knowledge. This drawback is especially problematic in tourism research as tourism is a complex social phenomenon (Dann and Phillips, 2001). Tourism researchers, managers and others who study tourism and require

diverse evidence and information on complex aspects of tourist behavior may find it challenging to get adequate answers using predominantly quantitative techniques.

This challenge particularly applies to tourist motivation and tourist satisfaction research (Dann and Phillips, 2001; Pearce, 2005). In relation to tourist motivation research, Dann and Phillips state:

"…should one desire to go beyond a close-ended, standardised checklist of items prepared by the investigator to more open-ended and unclassified issues raised by the research subjects, a more qualitative, multimedia approach becomes necessary" (2001, p. 251).

They then refer to qualitative research which explored travel brochures (Dann, 1996; Selwyn, 1996) videos (Hanefors and Larsson, 1993), guidebooks (Bhattacharyya, 1997) or tourist maps (Seaton, 1994) to understand travel motivation. Similarly, satisfaction scales, typically cannot capture the complexity and subtleties of the tourist experience. Dann and Phillips (2001) point out that the commonly used scales cannot capture ambivalence, confusion or unease, all of which are concepts relevant to tourist satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Therefore, in motivation and satisfaction research, qualitative techniques can become more dominant approaches and not simply exploratory techniques leading to quantitative measurements, as Lewis *et al* (1995) suggested. There are different non-quantitative approaches which could be applied to analyses of motivation, satisfaction and other tourist behaviour concepts. The first example is ethnomethodology.

- **Ethnomethodology**

As a branch of sociology, ethnomethodology is a way of studying practical accomplishments of everyday life with a focus on mundane, practical circumstances, practical activities and practical sociological reasoning (McCabe, 2007; Garfinkel, 1967, 1994). EM as it is known (Cuff, Sharrock and Francis, 1990) therefore questions how people going about their normal business come to understand each other and create and maintain order and intelligibility in social life (ten Have, 2004). McCabe (2007) points out that tourists perform and experience themselves through their bodies, activities, interactions in social life and that these seemingly ordinary activities are an important element of tourist experiences and satisfaction. The EM approach differs from other qualitative methods in that it pays particular attention to context, occasion, and

the close analysis of how protagonists talk. McCabe provides an example. The question: “You had a good trip then?” could be considered as ironic when the questioner knows that the protagonist has had a bad trip. But the statement could come with an element of laughter or with raised intonation on certain words which may create a shared understanding that what is actually spoken is not the same as what is implied by the words. So one needs to hear the speaker say the sentence in a context to make light of the situation. This focus on understanding the meaning of the words within a situated context is the basis of EM (Garfinkel, 1994). Typical source of data for an ethnomethodologist would be therefore be recorded or live casual conversations, not highly structured interviews or essays.

- **Feminist research and memory work**

Aligned with the EM approach is feminist research on memory work based on social constructionism (Small, 1999; Small, Cadman, Friend, Gannon, Ingleton, Koutroulis, McCormack, Mitchell, Onyx, O’Regan and Rocco, 2007). Social constructionism is a sociological and psychological theory of knowledge that explains how social phenomena develop in specific social contexts. The focus is on uncovering the ways in which individuals and groups participate in the creation of their perceived social reality (McCormack, 1998). Memory work is a social constructionist method (Small *et al*, 2007) which explores the process in which individual women become part of society and participate in the process of socialisation.This group method, which typically involves collective analyses of individual written memories, has three phases. The first phase involves the individual writing about a memory focused on a specific topic. Phase 2 consists of a collective search for a common understanding of all the memories. The memories are theorised and new meanings collectively emerge. In the last phase the material provided from individual memories and the group discussion is further analysed. In this recursive phase the ‘common sense’ of each set of memories is related back to earlier discussions as well as to academic theories. The memory work therefore bridges the gap between theory and experience. The method seems to be similar to focus groups where group discussions lead to new insights, but apparently without strict guidance of a moderator and with an explicit focus on memories. Small (1999) points out that that method is feminist in the sense that it is explicitly qualitative and liberationist. It allows women to present their thoughts and feelings in their own words rather than the words of the researcher (Reinharz, 1992). The sessions or phases are commonly taped and can last for one and half hours per session (Small *et al*, 2007). Of particular concern to the focus of this thesis is that memory work has been used to study tourist experiences in detail (McCormack, 1995, 1998; Crawford, Kippax, Onyx, Gault

and Benton, 1992; Small, 2002, 2003, 2005) and notably, satisfaction in leisure contexts (Grant and Friend, 1997).

- **Projective techniques**

Projective techniques are “the presentation of stimuli designed so that their meaning or interpretation is determined by the respondent who has to structure and impose meaning into task” (Branthwaite and Lunn, 1985, p.101). The use of a range of projective measures, such as text, visual images, test and various tasks could make research respondents reveal their subconscious thoughts and give researchers insight into respondents’ personalities, behaviour and values. It is understood that people find it difficult to articulate their thoughts and feelings and the projective techniques may help reduce this problem (Westwood, 2007). Westwood, however, warns that the instructions in the projective techniques would have to be straightforward and logical and the moderator would have to be sensitive to signs of frustration, boredom or anxiety among participants. Although there is some limited work on branding in tourism research (Westwood, Morgan, Pritchard and Ineson, 1999) that uses this approach, projective techniques were more commonly used in marketing and consumer research (Levy, 1980, 1981, 1985; Heisley and Levy, 1991). Their application in tourist behaviour research, namely motivation and satisfaction research, remains to be explored further (Dann and Phillips, 2001; Pearce, 2005).

- **Biographical research**

Another methodology, not typically employed in tourism, but with a potential to provide new insights into leisure and tourist behaviour is biographical research (Sedgley, 2007). This type of methodology commonly involves analyses of life stories through in-depth interviews which focus on understanding people’s identity and development (Sedgley, 2007; Denzin, 1989). Oral history is another type of biographical research where the emphasis is on recording details about how the past was lived both individually and communally. This type of biographical research is often supplemented with historical public and private documents (Thomson, 2000). In either case, biographical research is very much subject-focused. As ethnomethodology, it aims to get close to respondents and explore aspects of their lives in their own words. In one biographical research of an older woman and her leisure activities, it was revealed how historical events and cultural norms during her lifetime (depressions, wars, educational opportunities or attitudes to money) shaped her general views of travel and leisure. The focus was therefore not on reliability and generalisability of experiences, but instead on exploring in

depth the nature of different historical circumstances which might affect people's attitudes to engage in travel (Sedgley, 2007).

- **Action research**

The last of the qualitative approaches considered here is action research. This type of method commonly employs a reflective process of progressive problem solving where individuals work in teams to improve the way they solve a particular problem or address an issue (Burns, 2007). It is believed that German-born psychologist and one of the pioneers of social, organizational and applied psychology - Kurt Lewin- first coined the term action research (Lewin, 1946; Burns, 2007). Action research normally contains three distinct phases. The first stage is a series of planning actions in which the researcher and the participant together discuss the research problems, data gathering approach and agree on a joint action plan for the research. The second stage is the action phase where the research is implemented. The third stage is reflective and consists of discussing and debating research results together. Data is typically collected through conversations or interviews but the approach is highly participatory, as with memory work. In fact, the stages of action research seem to resemble the stages of memory work, albeit without the focus on individual memories (Small *et al,* 2007). The participant and the researcher in action research are thus actively working on resolving a problem together. In tourism, this approach has been used in indigenous tourism contexts. One study, conducted in Northern Australia, explored opportunities by traditional Aboriginal owners to actively engage in tourism planning and management to develop tourism in a sustainable way in their communities (Hyams, 2008). Perhaps travel satisfaction and motivation could also be investigated through this approach. Marginalised tourists, such as drug tourists (Uriely and Belhassen, 2005), sex tourists (Ryan and Kinder, 1996) or gay and lesbian travelers (Markwell, 2006) may feel more comfortable discussing their tourist experiences through the empowering framework of action research as opposed to a more conventional method. In a similar way, women felt liberated and empowered to talk about their tourist experiences through memory work (Small *et al*, 2007).

- **Critical realism and flow state methodology**

Despite the value of the above methodological approaches, positivism and quantitative methods should not be over-enthusiastically dismissed as not-useful to tourist behaviour research. Regardless of the fact that it is fashionable to do so (Aramberri, 2001; Franklin and Crang, 2001, Nash, 2001; Tribe, 2008), Pearce (2004) warns against the danger in the simplistic rejection of positivism. He argues that quantitative, empirical evidence is well worth collecting

even if it does not apply to every research problem and that there is a role for generalisations about tourist behaviour even if they are not law like. It is also not suggested here that positivist methods are necessarily uncreative. Quantitative methods from positive psychology, such as positive emotion scales (Fredrickson, 2001), measures of optimism (Peterson, 2000) and character strengths inventories (Seligman and Peterson, 2003) might assist tourist satisfaction measurements by helping social scientists better understand aspects of tourist behaviour. As Pearce explains:

“These perspectives do not constitute a plea for a return to positivism or its variants but instead demand that we recognise a new plurality of investigation in tourism research which includes the strengths of pre-existing traditions” (2004, p. 61).

This notion of methodological plurality fits well under the critical realist methodological paradigm. While acknowledging the roles of perception and cognition, critical realism maintains that a mind-independent reality could exist (Lopez and Potter, 2001). The term was coined by American philosopher Roy Wood Sellars, in his book Critical Realism (1916) in an attempt to mediate between direct realism and idealism by saying that the objects of perception are neither objects themselves nor simply ideas (Drake, Pratt, Rogers, Santayana, Sellars, Strong and Lovejoy 1920). In a methodological sense, this philosophy argues that a particular problem can be studied and/or solved through both positivist and relativist methods (Groff, 2004), as is commonly the case in triangulation (Veal, 2005). Groff (2004) argues that strict relativism as well as strict positivism are problematic. In strict relativism, as all beliefs about the world are equally valid, no claims can be challenged on cognitive or epistemic grounds. On the contrary, in strict positivism the alleged truth is always obtainable. Flax (1992) however points out that:

“Part of the purpose of claiming truth seems to be to compel agreement with our claim. We are often seeking a change in behaviour or a win for our side. If so, there may be more effective ways to attain agreement or produce change than to argue about the truth” (1992, p. 454).

In order words, there seems little value in claiming that there is no absolute truth and that all truth is subjective. Just the same there seems little value in claiming that an absolute truth exists. It may make more sense to combine these two opposing views in a hope of arriving closer to the more “objective “truth.

In the tourism field, prolific works from the critical realist paradigm are studies conducted by Alison Gill, mainly in the area of community development and planning issues in tourist environments (Gill and Reed, 1997; Gill, 2000; Gill, 2004). In the tourist behaviour literature there is little specific mention of critical realism (Botterill, 2007) although calls for greater eclecticism in research abound (Pearce, 2005).

Flow state methodology, seems to be another appropriate example of the critical realist approach. Flow state methods are typically flow state scales (Jackson and Eklund, 2004), flow in-depth interviews (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Jackson, 1996) or experience sampling methods (Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre, 1989), resembling the eclectic plethora suggested by critical realism. Each of the methods has its advantages and disadvantages and each is very new to tourist behavior research (Filep, 2007). The methods and their application are thoroughly described in chapters 4 and 5 in which qualitative flow state techniques are employed to study tourist satisfaction. The real benefit of the flow state methods is that they can be used to evaluate immediate conscious as well as post-hoc satisfaction (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987) and cognitive as well as affective dimensions of satisfaction (Cskiszentmihalyi, 1990; Ryan, 1995). As the discussions in chapters 4 and 5 will show, the methods are not flawless. Nevertheless, their value in measuring on-site satisfaction and reflective satisfactory experiences is significant and worthy of attention by researchers who are interested in alternative approaches to tourist satisfaction. In line with the critical realist philosophy, the flow state methods can evaluate satisfaction from a happiness perspective but such a different perspective is not necessarily a more “true” representation of the tourist satisfaction phenomena. As such, the flow state methods do not always have to be used in isolation to the more traditional satisfaction measures, but they can complement them and only occasionally replace them.

Summary of core knowledge gaps

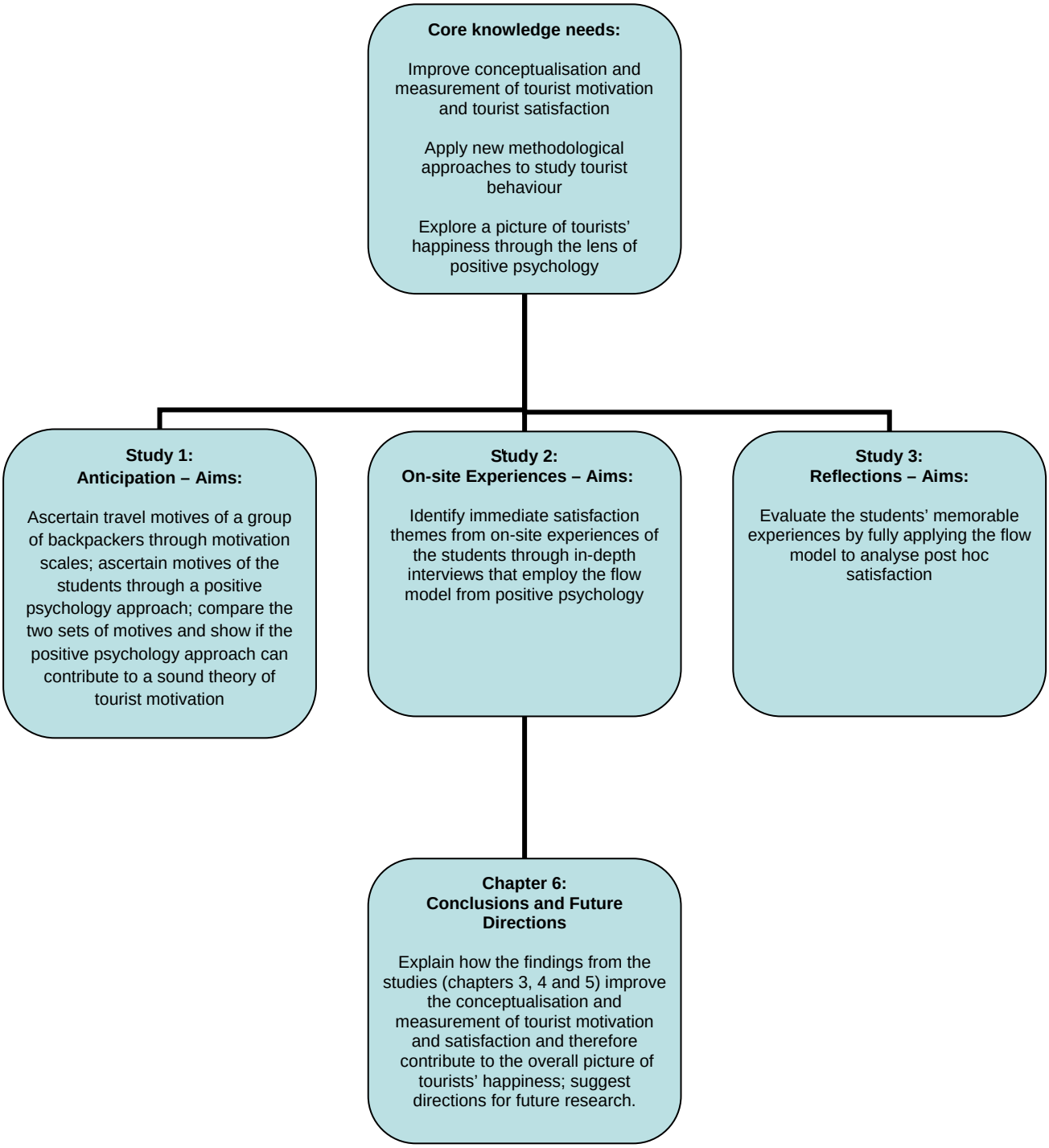
This literature review points to gaps in knowledge and literature trends in each of the 6 themes analysed. Positive psychology and the aligned quality of life and subjective well being fields are rapidly growing areas of research. There is an overall need, however, for positive psychology research to be more fully integrated within mainstream psychology and for positive psychologists to connect with other social scientists in order to better explain optimal human functioning. The need to understand complexity in positive psychology requires the use of a

greater array of research methods. Up to now, however, most research in the field has been quantitative and there is therefore a need to employ mixed methods and qualitative techniques in future studies. The analysis of youth and cultural tourism literature, as important contexts of the thesis, suggests that there is a lack of research on tourist experiences of youth travellers in cultural settings. The literature on backpackers, however, and their experiences is marginally more developed than the literature on students' travel experiences. Much of the student travel literature is business-focused with few psychological studies. Further, most of the student travel literature seems to analyse non-Australian students. Cultural tourism remains an important aspect of overall tourism, both in monetary terms and in terms of a growing interest in culture. There is a contemporary focus in the literature on intangibility, subjectivity and co-creation of cultural tourist experiences. Discussions of tourist motivation and satisfaction showed that conceptualisation and measurement of both of these aspects of tourist behaviour could be further improved. Tourist motivation theories are going through a transition. There is much room to advance models of tourist motivation and behavior by creating better ones that are methodologically eclectic, multidisciplinary and that draw from the previous knowledge of the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. In the tourist satisfaction research arena, a plethora of experience based approaches is replacing or complementing the more traditional, Nordic and expectations methods of measuring and conceptualising travel satisfaction. As part of these experience approaches, flow state and its methodology from positive psychology could be applied in studies of tourist satisfaction. Lastly, while positivism and quantitative methods should never be dismissed as non-useful to tourist behaviour research, the recent critical tourism movement has revealed an array of creative methodological approaches in tourism studies. These are currently being embraced by many tourism researchers. It is understood that anyone who studies tourism and requires diverse evidence and information on complex aspects of tourist behavior may find it challenging to get adequate answers using exclusively quantitative techniques.

How could these somewhat disparate trends and knowledge gaps be integrated into a single focus that relates to the overarching concern with tourists' happiness? Three studies were conducted to follow these contemporary trends in the literature and to close the knowledge gaps. The studies investigate the tourist experience of a group of Australian study abroad university students in relation to their trip to Spain, as outlined in chapter1. The goal is to evaluate their travel motivation and satisfaction by applying a qualitative, positive psychology perspective. In this way, the studies will shed light on how to conceptualise a happy tourist, with happiness being the dominant paradigm of the thesis. Analysis of the studies begins in chapter

3. Each of the study's aims is contributing to the overall picture of tourists' happiness. As previously noted, the studies follow the three phases of the travel experience (anticipatory, on site experience and reflective stage). A summary of the core knowledge needs, aims of the three studies and the concluding chapter is presented in figure 1.

Figure 1: Tourists' happiness knowledge needs and research studies



Chapter 3 Anticipation

Aims	The purpose of this chapter is to discern if a happiness approach from positive psychology can contribute to a sound theory of tourist motivation. One sound theory of tourist motivation is the travel career patterns (TCP) model so the results and discussion will be linked to TCP explanations and approaches. To achieve the purpose, two related motivation studies are analysed and the results of the studies are then compared. The first is a quantitative and supportive study of youth travellers using a standard TCP approach. The second is the Australian student group study in which a qualitative happiness approach is used to assess the students' travel motives. The specific aims are therefore: to uncover and compare the motivations from the two studies and to hence determine if the happiness approach contributes to the sound theory of tourist motivation.
Chapter Structure	To meet the aims and present the studies, the chapter is divided into: an introductory section on the TCP; an analysis of the supportive study; a section on the positive psychology approach; an analysis of the positive psychology, University of Technology Sydney (UTS) Australian student study; and a section on the comparison of the two studies. Conclusions about the findings and the different motivation approaches are also drawn.
Methodology	The supportive study was conducted with 200 backpackers. This study employed travel motivation scales based on the sound TCP tourist motivation model. On the other hand, descriptions of perfect days were used to assess the UTS students' travel motives through personal narrative essays. This happiness approach has successfully been used in motivation studies in education, but is new to tourism.
Conclusions	It is found that descriptions of perfect days are amenable to empirical studies of travel motivation because the results from the supportive, study are similar to the essay findings. The happiness approach can therefore contribute to a sound theory of tourist motivation and embellish the TCP model. In particular, the new approach eases the measurement of travel motivation. It employs a simple question, is universal in its application and is not culture age or gender specific.

Tourist motivation and the TCP approach

As outlined in the literature review, motivation is an area of tourism research that has frequently been open to various interpretations and, as a result, has been a subject of numerous debates (Harril and Potts, 2002; Ryan, 2002; Pearce, 2005). Many approaches to researching travel motivation can be traced to a wide array of sometimes conflicting theoretical perspectives from psychology (Pearce, 2002). Some of these include: psychoanalytic approaches (Freud, 1940), modified psychoanalytic approaches (Adler, 1927), learning theory (Hull, 1943), trait theory

(Allport, 1961) and personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955), as well as humanistic (Maslow, 1970; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) and cognitive approaches (Berline, 1960).The complex amalgam of perspectives has led to the emergence of a number of widely accepted conceptual schemes or models of tourist motivation. For example, Plog (1972,1987,1991) proposed the allocentric-psychocentric model; Crompton (1979) classified motives across a cultural and socio-psychological continuum; Dann (1977) discussed the concepts of ego-enhancement and anomie as pertinent to tourist motivations; and Iso–Ahola (1982) proposed an optimal arousal model of travel motivations. Additionally, leisure motivation approaches were developed (Beard and Ragheb, 1983). Such attempts to understand travel motives are highly important. Travel motivation theory provides the foundation for understanding travel choice and travel behaviour, and permits the understanding of the role of the experience and the meaning of travel to tourists (Mansfeld, 1992; Ryan, 2002; Pearce, 2005). The challenge is that many of the above models fail to capture the key elements of a sound theory of tourist motivation. These key elements are reported by Pearce (2005) but they are thoroughly justified and strengthened by external references in his earlier work (Pearce, 1993). According to Pearce, a sound theory of tourist motivation should have the elements from table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Key elements of a sound theory of tourist motivation

1.a specification of the role of the theory	must be able to integrate existing tourist needs, reorganise the needs and provide a new orientation for future research
2.an elaboration of the ownership and appeal of the theory	must appeal to specialist researchers, be useful in tourism industry settings and credible to marketers and consumers
3.ease of communication	must be relatively easy to explain to potential users and be universal – not country specific in its application
4.ability to measure travel motivation	must be amenable to empirical study; the ideas can be translated into questions and responses for assessment purposes
5.an implementation of a multi-motive approach vs. a single trait approach	must consider the view that tourists could see to satisfy several needs at once; must be able to model the pattern of traveller needs, not just consider one need
6.employment of a dynamic approach	must be able to consider or model the changes that are continuously taking place in tourism
7.an ability to consider both extrinsic and intrinsic motives	must be able to consider that tourists are motivated by intrinsic, self-satisfying goals and at other times by extrinsic, socially controlled rewards such as the opinions of others

One such sound tourist motivation theory is the TCP model (Lee and Pearce, 2002). The TCP model satisfies these key elements to a much greater extent and provides a more theoretically robust model of tourist motivation than the other approaches while also allowing for improvements (Pearce, 2005). The TCP model is an adaptation of the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) approach to understanding tourist motivation (Pearce, 2005). TCL was initially developed by Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), and later refined by Moscardo and Pearce (1986) and Pearce (1988, 1993). TCL broadly proposed that, as tourists accumulate travel experiences, they gradually progress upwards through Maslow's (1970) levels of motivation. These levels are hierarchical and consist of physiological, safety, belongingness, ego and self-actualisation needs. Adapting these levels of motivation, the TCL presented five tourist motivation levels: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem/development needs, and self-actualisation or fulfilment needs.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs was only one of the theoretical approaches that guided the development of TCL. The career concept originating in Hughes' (1937) work on leisure careers was always pivotal to the dynamic elements of the model. Nonetheless, the difficulty with the use of the TCL approach was the common misinterpretation of the Maslow's needs hierarchy that one level of motives must be fulfilled before moving up the hierarchy or 'ladder'. On the contrary, Pearce recently explained that in TCL, "travellers were considered to have more than one level of travel motivation, though it was suggested that one set of needs in the ladder levels might be dominant (2005, p.53)." It has been further commented that "one of the worst things that has happened to the Maslow's theory is that it has often been printed in the form of a triangle or pyramid (Rowan, 1998, p.81)." In Maslow's original writings (1970), the hierarchy was never depicted as a pyramid that suggests a closed system of human needs with rigid progression from one level to the next. These misinterpretations have also been stressed in the Literature review. Despite these misinterpretations, the hierarchy has never been empirically contradicted and is still commonly incorporated into university courses and research (Hagerty 1999; Maddi, 1976). Today, it continues to be widely used and successfully applied (Bryan, 2005; Oleson, 2004). Hence, it appears appropriate to further build its usefulness in understanding tourist motivation (Pearce, 2005).

In its present form, TCP de-emphasises the ladder hierarchy with a view to overcome the misinterpretations of Maslow's work, and places travel motivations in a more dynamic, multi-level structure than TCL by emphasising the changes in motivation

patterns (Lee and Pearce, 2002; Pearce, 2005). The essential premise of the TCL model, that with changes in travel experience tourists exhibit different motivations, is retained in the TCP model (Pearce, 2005).

The original study using the TCP model by Lee and Pearce (2002) employed a two-phase process. Twelve diverse exploratory interviews were first conducted to uncover key motive categories. Afterwards, those motive categories were placed into a broader frame of reference derived from multiple sources in the literature and studied through a major survey with 1012 male and female respondents from various Western countries (Lee and Pearce, 2002). Krueger's (1994) concept of theoretical saturation was used to guide the exploratory phase where further sampling did not elicit new or further information. In the questionnaire phase, detailed statistical analyses revealed three core motivational dimensions for all travellers (irrespective of their travel experience levels): novelty, escape/relax and relationships. These results were supported by the interview findings, which additionally identified self-development as a major motivational force (Lee and Pearce, 2002). The study was later replicated and further conceptually adjusted in a non-Western context with Korean travellers (Lee and Pearce, 2003). Overall, the findings in this second study matched the results from Lee and Pearce (2002). Hence, self-actualisation, kinship, novelty and escape/relax were again identified as the core motives for all travellers. In this replicated study, respondents with higher travel experience levels were found to display externally oriented motivations, namely self-development through seeking nature and host-site involvement. By way of contrast, subjects with lower travel experience placed more emphasis on internally oriented motivations, such as romance, kinship and autonomy.

A supportive study was first conducted to put the UTS students into a context of young international travellers, link back to the TCP explanations and approaches and show if a happiness approach from positive psychology can contribute to this sound theory of tourist motivation. Putting the UTS students into the broader context, improves generalisability and the overall importance of the findings and the comparisons presented in this chapter.

The supportive study

The aim of this study was to ascertain travel motivations of 200 international backpackers by employing a similar TCP approach as the one used in Lee and Pearce (2002) and Pearce (2005) works. As shown in chapter 2, there is evidence

that backpackers and students are comparable tourist groups due to similarities in demographic characteristics and typical experience (Richards and Wilson, 2004). Similar to the UTS group, the backpackers were planning an imminent trip or were presently participating in a trip in a foreign country.

The survey consisted of 57 travel motivation items and 11 additional demographic and travel experience questions. The TCP scales were appropriate for the study, as they had been used previously to analyse the motives of youth travellers (Lee and Pearce, 2003). Data collection was conducted at four backpacker hostels of varying quality and price in Sydney from 1 December 2005 to 20 February 2006. Sydney was chosen as a research location due to its proximity to UTS and its capacity to attract large numbers of backpackers.

A sample of 200 male and female backpackers was surveyed. The use of this larger sample supported the choice of a quantitative approach to examine travel motivations. Respondents who did not complete questions on travel experience indicators and/or any of the travel motivation items were excluded from analysis, resulting in 172 valid responses. The sample included 18- to 35-year-old travellers. The ratio of male to female backpackers was approximately 52 to 48 per cent, respectively. The respondents had to have a sufficiently good command of the English language to understand the self-administered scales and answer the demographic and travel experience questions.

Drawing on the analysis plan outlined by Pearce (2005), principal component analysis was initially used. It identified the main motivational themes present in the multi-item measures. The reliability of the measures of these themes was also examined. Cluster analysis was used to identify high and low travel experience groups within the sample. One sample t-tests were then used to identify the most important motivations for the low travel experience group.

Before principal component analysis was undertaken, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) was generated and Bartlett's chi-square test of sphericity was undertaken. The overall MSA provides a measure ranging from 0 to1, with values approaching 1 indicating the sample is adequate for further analysis. The overall MSA was 0.788, which indicates the sample was sufficient for factor analysis in order to proceed. The individual MSA were all in excess of the commonly accepted standard of 0.5, again suggesting the sample is adequate for all measures

(Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). Bartlett's chi-square test of sphericity tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix (Coakes and Steed, 2003). In this case, the chi-square statistic (5605.31, 1596 df) was significant with p=.000. These results indicated that principal components analysis could proceed. Principal component analysis was used on the 57 travel motivation items. This analysis was undertaken using varimax rotation with the criterion for the choice of the number of factors being those with eigenvalues in excess of 1, which indicates that they account for the variance of at least a single variable (Hair *et al,* 1998). Fifteen factors were identified with eigenvalues in excess of 1 accounting for 70.646% of all variance. These factors with individual item loadings can be seen in Table 3.2 in order of construct reliability.

Table 3.2: Item Loadings

Factor	Loading	Motive Item	Mean	Std. Dev
Relaxation	0.445	Avoiding interpersonal stress and pressure	6.006	2.137
(6.423)[a]	0.797	Getting away from everyday physical stress/pressure	6.076	2.263
(6.354%)[b]	0.458	Not worrying about time	6.215	2.079
(α=0.854)[c]	0.805	Giving my mind a rest	6.221	2.281
	0.727	Getting away from everyday psychological stress/pressure	6.331	2.367
	0.510	Resting and relaxing	6.541	1.887
	0.780	Getting away from the usual demands of life	6.709	1.863
	0.653	Being away from daily routine	7.285	1.918
Kinship/self-development	0.483	Contact with family/friends who live elsewhere	5.087	2.967
(6.127)	0.501	Feeling that I belong	5.169	2.504
(21.467%)	0.631	Sharing skills and knowledge with others	5.634	1.876
(α=0.851)	0.649	Being creative	5.936	2.161
	0.704	Using my skills and talents	5.965	2.088
	0.608	Working on the following values: kindness, fairness, authenticity, gratitude and open-mindedness	6.477	1.875
	0.511	Being with respectful people	6.727	1.851
	0.725	Developing my skills and abilities	7.017	1.798
	0.609	Developing my personal interests	7.128	1.509
Nostalgia/comfort	0.891	Reflecting on past memories	5.430	2.416
(5.864) (3.567%) (α=0.842)	0.855	Thinking about the good times I've had in the past	5.680	2.442
	0.578	Feeling personally safe and secure	6.483	2.175
Social interaction	0.703	Doing things with my companion(s)	6.378	2.196
(6.647) (5.292%) (α=0.829)	0.810	Being with others who enjoy the same things as I do	6.581	2.066
	0.769	Enjoying the company of others	6.983	1.694

Self actualisation	0.549	Feeling inner harmony/peace	6.169	2.214
(7.066)	0.647	Bringing out the best in me	7.029	1.801
(6.132%)	0.745	Gaining a new perspective on life	7.116	1.696
(α=0.819)	0.731	Understanding more about myself	7.140	1.670
	0.490	Gaining a sense of self-confidence	7.169	1.938
	0.580	Gaining a sense of self-accomplishment	7.291	1.486
	0.496	Learning new things	7.552	1.258
Romance/friendship	0.809	Having romantic relationships	4.285	2.560
(4.712) (2.308%) (α=0.803)	0.607	Being with people of the opposite sex	5.140	2.397
Stimulation	0.868	Experiencing thrills	6.971	1.742
(7.576)	0.812	Feeling excitement	7.395	1.477
(4.042%)	0.513	Having unpredictable experiences	7.477	1.395
(α=0.777)	0.444	Experiencing things I have always wanted to do	7.744	1.444
	0.493	Having fun	8.291	0.929
Autonomy	0.856	Being obligated to nobody	6.506	2.164
(7.078)	0.754	Doing things my own way	6.983	1.821
(4.597%)	0.639	Being independent	7.267	1.882
(α=0.758)	0.484	Exploring the unknown	7.558	1.156
Escape/social status	0.586	Getting away from my family	3.413	2.408
(4.133)	0.516	Enjoying isolation[#]	3.703	2.352
(2.794%)	0.739	Having others know that I have been there	4.017	2.692
(α=0.700)	0.480	Showing others I can cope alone	4.727	2.638
	0.442	Being recognised by other people	4.802	2.449
Novelty	0.735	Feeling the special atmosphere of the travel destination	7.651	1.221
(7.831) (2.712%) (α=0.650)	0.740	Experiencing something different	8.012	1.160
Host-site involvement	0.788	Observing other people in the area	6.721	1.718
(7.006) (3.073%) (α=0.631)	0.778	Meeting the locals	7.291	1.375
Belonging/immersion	0.618	Being near considerate people	5.837	1.979
(7.165) (2.496%) (α=0.565)	0.483	Meeting new and varied people	7.756	1.169
	0.517	Experiencing different cultures	7.901	1.117
Safety	0.705	Meeting people with similar values/interests	6.099	1.885
(6.616) (1.952%) (α=0.497)	0.493	Developing my knowledge of the area	7.134	1.435
Security (6.087) (2.102%) (α=-)	0.781	Experiencing the peace and calm	6.087	1.946
Isolation (4.709) (1.760%) (α=-)	0.506	Being away from the crowds of people	4.709	2.296

a. Factor mean. b. Variance explained. c. Cronbach's alpha

this item also loaded onto the 'isolation' factor with a loading of 0.504

All statistical analysis was undertaken using SPSS 12.0.1.

Cluster analysis was undertaken to identify higher and lower travel experience groups within the sample based on the three travel experience indicators. Hierarchical cluster analysis was used, and two clusters were found in the sample. The higher travel experience cluster consisted of 11 respondents with 161 in the lower experience cluster. Further to the cluster analysis, independent samples t-tests were undertaken for each of the three travel experience indicators and the respondents' age. Table 3.3 contains the results of these tests.

Table 3.3: Travel Experience Comparison

Item	Low Experience Mean (n=161)	High Experience Mean (n=11)	Levene's Statistic	t-statistic
Number of international trips taken	12.721	51.364	106.896	-2.134
Number of international destinations	8.478	24.273	77.705	-1.429
Total days of international travel	270.770	1733.182	60.555	-6.798
Age	25.380	27.455	0.304	-1.678

From the results of the independent samples t-tests, it can be seen that there are significant differences in both the number of international trips taken and the total days of international travel at the 95% level. Interestingly, age is not significantly different between the groups. This finding somewhat shows that age, as an indicator of travel experience, may be inadequate. However, the results should be interpreted with caution due to the relatively low sample size in the high travel experience group.

Due to the relatively low sample size in the high travel experience group and the emphasis on producing comparable results to qualitative results, it was decided not to compare the responses of the high and low travel experience groups using independent samples t-tests. Instead, the travel motivation items were centred using each individual's mean item response to minimise scale effects, and then the items for each factor were averaged to form single measures. Each factor ranges from –4, indicating unimportance, to 4, indicating importance. One sample t-tests were then used to determine the factors that are more important to the low travel experience group, as seen in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Low Travel Experience (n=161)

Factor	Mean	t-statistic[a]	Relative Importance[b]
Novelty	1.421	16.514	Important
Stimulation	1.165	16.225	Important
Belonging/immersion	0.760	10.262	Important
Self-actualisation	0.684	10.056	Important
Autonomy	0.671	7.274	Important
Host-site involvement	0.592	5.353	Important
Social interaction	0.233	2.094	Important
Safety	0.194	2.017	Important
Relaxation	0.018	0.200	-
Security	-0.300	-1.975	Unimportant
Kinship/self-development	-0.265	-3.843	Unimportant
Nostalgia/comfort	-0.538	-4.154	Unimportant
Isolation	-1.716	-10.396	Unimportant
Romance/friendship	-1.703	-10.895	Unimportant
Escape/social status	-2.283	-21.602	Unimportant

a. Null hypotheses: Factor mean = 0. b. at 95% level

The results show that the four most important factors are novelty (t = 16.514), stimulation (16.225), belonging/immersion (10.262), and self-actualisation (10.056), followed by a number of less important factors. Likewise, the least important factors include escape/social status (-21.602), romance/friendship (-10.895), isolation (-10.396), and nostalgia/comfort (-4.154), including a number of less unimportant factors. These measures of importance, however, are relative. That is, an unimportant factor may still be considered important by a respondent - it is just that it plays less of a role than an important factor on average.

The results therefore show that the backpacker group is predominately, but not exclusively motivated by self-actualisation, belonging/immersion, stimulation and novelty. These results are largely in agreement with the previous TCP studies (Lee and Pearce, 2002, 2003) which identified self-actualisation, kinship, novelty and escape and relaxation as the core motives of similar groups of youth travellers. The only major difference is that relaxation was not identified as a key motive in this study. Due to such similarities, this supportive study's results strengthen the argument that the TCP approach is a sound theory of tourist motivation. To show however, if the sound theory of tourist motivation can be furthered, the UTS students' travel motives were investigated through a positive psychology approach.

Positive psychology approach

Motivation is an important building block of the overall picture of tourists' happiness, as suggested in chapter 1. Descriptions of a perfect day are a common method of investigating human motivation in positive psychology because of links to subjective

well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Emmons, 1999; Diener, Oishi and Lucas, 2003; Oishi, 2002) but are new to tourism. While Pearce and Caltabiano's (1983) study explored tourists' good holiday experiences, the specific positive psychology approach was not employed in their study. Diener *et al* (2003) argue that the field of subjective well-being comprises the scientific analysis of how people evaluate their lives, both at the moment and for longer periods of time. The evaluations "include people's emotional reactions to events, their moods, and judgments they form about their life satisfaction, fulfilment, and satisfaction with domains such as marriage and work" (Diener *et al*, 2003, p.404). A key life domain is undoubtedly leisure travel. Therefore, descriptions of an ideal, flawless day during a holiday would uncover satisfaction and well being derived from such a great day, and axiomatically, what the traveller really wants from such a day (i.e. what motivates the tourist). In a recent positive psychology study (Reynolds and Lim, 2007), personal motives for turning to artistic leisure activities by a group of 11 women were also investigated qualitatively and through similar procedures.

Some researchers, however, use additional questions and probes in this type of motivation research. In a Psychology of Happiness university class, after the question: "Describe your perfect day", Kurtz asked students to answer the following questions:

"Describe in detail what you would do and how you would allot your time. Attempt to live that day. How did you feel throughout the course of the day? Did you feel happy? How do you feel as you look back over your day? Would you have changed anything? Can you incorporate things that made you happy on that day into your daily life?" (2006, p.4).

The additional questions were not used with the UTS group in order to prevent bias (for example, asking the respondents directly if they would feel happy). In future tourist motivation studies, however, additional probes might be useful for eliciting more in-depth descriptions but only if they are carefully worded and adapted. As tourists are not always able to directly articulate their travel motives, (Pearce, 2002) the procedure allows for a detailed look at the motives through descriptions of perfect events. The technique allows respondents to discuss their diverse needs in the context of tourist experiences and satisfaction at a destination.

The qualitative results are succinctly summarised in terms of the core motivational themes that emerged from them. A detailed analysis of nuances of the students' expressions, frequencies of motivation themes, or a more thorough analysis of gender differences is however, beyond the scope of this chapter.

The essay method and UTS study analysis

As shown in chapter 2, previous student travel studies primarily focused on motivation and travel behaviour of university students from the United States (Hudman, 1990; Hobson and Josiam, 1992; Josiam *et al*, 1994; Butts *et al*, 1996; Gmelch, 1997; Field, 1999 and Babin and KuemLim, 2001), university students from New Zealand (Chadee and Cutler, 1996 and Carr, 2003a), students from Britain and Europe (Bonvecchio, 1991; Carr, 2003b; Carr, 2003c), university students from Asia (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2001; Kim and Jogaratnam, 2002), or international students in Australia from Asian countries (Son, 2003; Carr and Axelsen, 2005). There is a dearth of studies on travel motives and experiences of Australian university students. Therefore, it was appropriate to conduct such a motivation study with this group of travellers. Ten male and ten female students participated. The study was conducted in November 2005 at UTS premises, just before the students' trip to Spain. All twenty subjects agreed to participate in the study. The respondents are identified with fictional names in the analysis which are used to differentiate males from females and to ease the interpretation process. The study was voluntary.

There are strong arguments for employing qualitative methods to study tourist motivation. A few seminal works employed in-depth interviews to study tourist motives (Crompton, 1979; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983). Analysis of photographs taken by tourists (O'Barr, 1994; Markwell, 1997), reactions to promotional material and word-of-mouth conversations have also been previously used to study tourist motives (Dann and Phillips, 2001). Many of these methods were combined in ethnographic studies seeking to understand the world through the eyes of those being researched (Palmer, 2001; Baszanger and Dodier, 1997; Veal, 2005). Indeed, Dann and Phillips (2001) stress that qualitative methods allow researchers to go beyond the standardized checklist of motivation items and explore travel motives in more detail. There have been continuous calls in many subfields of psychology for additional investigation of the potential contribution of qualitative studies (Wagner, 2003; Kidd, 2002).

Although not commonly used to study travel motives, in some cases, an essay may be a more effective method than some of the other qualitative approaches (Dann and Phillips, 2001). In contrast to the commonly used in-depth interviews, essays do not need to be transcribed, hence improving the efficiency of data collection. The problem of interviewer bias is reduced or eliminated, as a researcher does not need to construct interview questions and probe his or her respondents (Veal, 2005). Personal narrative essays also allow for greater spontaneity of expression than structured interviews (Stamou and Paraskevopoulos, 2003).

In the university context, the essays matched three dimensions of Tunnel's (1977) methodological naturalness. In this seminal work, Tunnel argued that good research methods in psychology would need to fulfil three key criteria: natural behaviour, natural setting and natural treatment. A fulfilment of the three criteria could allow new empirical laws to be discovered and internal and external validity to be improved. The UTS student group was familiar with essay writing for academic assessment purposes, hence fulfilling the natural behaviour criteria. The group also completed the essays in a natural setting. Tunnel states that, "almost any setting outside the lab, in which people regularly find themselves, qualifies as a natural setting" (1977, p.427). In this case, the study was conducted in a UTS lecture room. The natural treatment - or natural event - criterion was also fulfilled. Tunnel points out that the event is natural if the subjects would have taken part in it regardless of the study. The study took place during a pre-departure workshop for the students. The pre-departure workshop would have been conducted irrespective of the research study; so, the treatment was natural.

It has been argued that some relevant information may be missed in a respondent's essay as a result of reduced probing (McCormack, 2004). Such limitations can be overcome by a carefully worded essay question that encourages a respondent to creatively express their views. An example of this question would be to ask respondents to describe a perfect day at their destination.

Content analysis was used to review the essays. Berelson (1952) in his seminal work pointed out that this common technique is useful for identifying the intentions of an individual and determining psychological or emotional states of persons - both of which are concepts relevant to motivations. The essays were manually coded by the author and motivation themes were identified, as a rough draft set. Two additional and experienced tourism researchers, then separately coded the essays without

referring to the initial, first draft. This procedure enabled levels of agreement to be assessed. The external coders are familiar with tourist motivation research. To avoid bias, they were not informed of the study's objectives. The motivation themes of these two researchers are shown in tables 3.5 and 3.6.

Table 3.5: Pierre's set - motivation themes

relationship/belonging (meet new friends, meet locals, meet partners, immerse)	**safety/comfort** (desire for a climate conducive to relaxation, need to reduce anxiety, nice place to live, working to earn cash)
curiosity/mental stimulation/self development (learning Spanish, learning about Spanish culture, experiencing new things, challenge of moving to another country)	**physiological** (food and drink, relaxation)

Table 3.6: Laurie's set - motivation themes

mental stimulation/novelty/learning (learn about culture, authentic, local experiences, learn language, immersion in local culture)	**hedonic** (alcohol, local food, warm climate, relax, enjoy scenery)
kinship/social interaction (nightlife/social life, partners, music)	**self development** (challenge one self, become independent)

Differences between the themes were debated and overlapping themes were agreed on. As with the first phase of Lee and Pearce's (2002) study, the concept of theoretical saturation guided the study (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Krueger, 1994). The dominant themes consistently re-occurred after the analysis of the first ten essays. A final motivation set was then created based on the initial analyses. This final set is shown in table 3.7 and each of the four themes is discussed in the following section.

Table 3.7: Final motivation themes

relationship/belonging	**curiosity/mental stimulation**
self-development	**safety/comfort**

In many cases, the hedonic needs for Spanish food and drinking alcohol were intertwined with the above themes. The relationships/belonging dimension was mainly expressed through a desire to be with friends, romantic partners and locals, and through immersion in the Spanish culture. This is how Melissa expressed her motivation for building relationships: "*The perfect day...would simply be filled with all the new people I have met and come to know well – Catalan, Spanish and people from all over the world.*" On the contrary, the males placed more importance on having romantic relationships with the locals than the women. Ben noted: "*My perfect day would include waking up next to a sweet Spanish bird…*"And, picturing a hypothetical scenario in his perfect day, Jason wrote: "*That señorita was pretty hot, think I might give her a call today but only if I can summon the courage to pull off the Spanish*". The relationship/belonging theme for the group through immersion in the Spanish culture was illustrated by Brenda's comment: "*My perfect day would be to enjoy a typical Spanish day, living as a local would in Santander. I would like to spend the day with Spaniards and feel comfortable and confident speaking Spanish with them*. *We would live by their typical timetable and enjoy a beautiful local meal.*" In a study of young Spanish tourists during a visit in Australia (Filep and McDonnell, 2005), it was found that the need for immersion in Australia's culture was pertinent to those travellers. It was revealed that like other youth travellers, young Spaniards have a strong need for social interaction and cultural novelty. These needs correspond with the motivation of the Australian group in this study for engagement with the Spanish culture and relationship building.

Curiosity/mental stimulation was another theme identified in the essays and shown in table 3.7. The theme was mainly expressed in terms of improving the command of the Spanish language, learning more about the Spanish culture and having new experiences. Sarah mentioned a desire "*to speak relatively fluently*" and Mary stated: "*I would work in a little Spanish café where I'd get to practice my Spanish*". Mark expressed his desires to learn about the Spanish culture and have new experiences through relaxation, entertainment, food and drinking: "*An afternoon siesta would follow, then out again in the early afternoon to take in some local culture, perhaps a movie, play or theatre. After that, head out for a large Spanish dinner with friends over a few sangrias and tapas*." Indeed, the curiosity/mental stimulation theme resembles the top three motivations of young travellers identified by Richards and Wilson (2003) in a major youth travel study: a motivation to explore other cultures, to experience excitement and to increase knowledge. The links between these three

motives and the idea of learning the Spanish language and understanding the Spanish culture are axiomatic.

The third motivation dimension of self-development featured in most essays. Both genders expressed this need in a similar way. Amanda's comments were typical of the sample: "*I love the idea of being independent in my daily activities such as shopping, cooking, etc. I have lived with my family all of my life...Although I am aware of possible culture shock, I hope to find ways of overcoming this…*" The theme of self-development also features prominently in Lee and Pearce's (2002, 2003) TCP studies, as well as in the youth and student travel literature. It appears that self-development is both a motivation and an outcome for youth travellers. Youth Tourism Consortium of Canada (2004) found that experience through self-discovery is a key motivation of young leisure visitors to Canada. On the other hand, in a study of American college students' behaviour during their trip in Europe, it was found that study-abroad experiences often lead to personal development (Gmelch, 1997). The finding furthers the idea that youth motivations and experiences are often tightly linked, as is the case with the self-development theme identified in this study.

The last major motivation in the essays was safety/comfort. The theme was exemplified through discussions of the need to reduce anxiety about being in a new place and a desire for relaxation and weather. Discussing her desire for a safe and comfortable new place, Lisa noted: "*I would hopefully wake up in a clean, well furnished apartment*". Mary also commented on reducing her anxiety about being in a new place: "*I'd have a room in a three bedroom share house and the area I live in would be the equivalent of Newtown/Erskineville in Sydney*." The males, however, appeared to have a stronger need for resting and relaxing and enjoying the climate than the females. Mike referred to a "*hopefully not too hot or too cold – pleasant outdoor weather*", Ian mentioned "*sleeping in for a while after his lunch*" and James noted that his perfect day would include "*an outdoor siesta*". Again the findings correspond to the literature. In an analysis of the travel motivations of university students from New Zealand, it was found that main motives were a combination of passive, social and hedonistic desires (Carr, 2003a). The passive desires clearly correspond with the strong relaxation theme from the essays. These youth travel desires may also help explain why the group in this study demonstrates needs for Spanish food and drinking.

Comparison of the findings

The notion of strengthening qualitative work with a quantitative analysis or vice versa is not new to tourism studies. This procedure is common in tourism triangulation research (Decrop, 1999; Veal, 2005). By combining data sources, methods, investigators and theories, triangulation opens the way for richer and potentially more valid interpretations. Both method and investigator triangulation were used here. Method triangulation entails the use of multiple methods to study a single problem, whereas, investigator triangulation refers to different researchers interpreting the same body of data (Decrop, 1999). Thus, to better understand the problem of tourist motivation, both the essays and the quantitative motivation scales were employed (but not in a hierarchical order such as qualitative exploration and quantitative inference). Investigator triangulation was also achieved. In the data analysis phase, the essays were clearly coded by three tourism researchers ensuring congruence.

It is evident from the analyses that the essay results support the findings from the earlier TCP studies. They respectively resemble the TCP motives of (1) kinship, (2) novelty, (3) self-actualisation and (4) escape/relaxation (Lee and Pearce, 2003). The essays findings are also similar to the backpacker TCP findings presented in this chapter. In particular, the themes of belonging, stimulation and novelty feature prominently in both sets of results. An interesting contrast that should be noted is that the associations between factors differ across the studies. For example, in the qualitative study, belonging was associated with relationships; while in the backpacker study it is predominantly associated with immersion. This difference may be attributed to the two samples being at slightly different phases of their travel careers, resulting in marginally different levels of travel experience. As travellers change with different levels of travel experience, such transitions from one type of travel motivation to another would be expected (Pearce, 2005).

Nevertheless, the relative similarity between the results of the studies supports the use of positive psychology research approaches in place of quantitative TCP approaches when that is required. In particular, it has been shown that it is possible to produce markedly similar results in situations where quantitative TCP approaches prove difficult, such as with small sample sizes or where more in-depth explorations of the travel motivations are sought (Kidd, 2002). The TCP approach has not been sufficiently explored in smaller samples of travellers. By evaluating the motives of the small UTS group and then concluding that they are similar to the standard TCP motives, the positive psychology study has embellished this sound motivation theory.

Conclusions

Two broad conclusions can therefore be drawn from the analyses in this chapter. Firstly, it is shown that TCP is a robust tourist motivation model as the backpacker core motives correspond with the previous TCP studies' findings (Lee and Pearce, 2002, 2003; Pearce, 2005). The UTS group's motivation themes of relationship/belonging, curiosity/mental stimulation, self-development and safety/comfort also resemble the motives of kinship, novelty, self-actualisation and escape/relaxation suggested by the TCP model. The TCP theory is indeed a sound theory of tourist motivation fitting the elements from table 3.1. Examples of this fit are that TCP appears to be universal in its application (not country or sample specific) and that it views travel motivation as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of numerous motives, thus fulfilling elements 3 and 5.

The second conclusion is that it is demonstrated how a happiness approach from positive psychology can contribute to such a sound theory of tourist motivation. The aims and the purpose of this chapter have therefore been met. The ease of communication element (element 3) of the sound theory is further strengthened with another method for data collection that is easy to explain to potential respondents and is universal in its application. Descriptions of a perfect day are not country, age or culturally biased because the statement: "Describe your perfect day" is a general question that can be used to solicit responses from participants who are male or female, young or old and of any nationality. The ability to measure travel motivations of small groups has also been improved therefore contributing to element 4 of the sound theory. It was shown that the qualitative technique from positive psychology is amenable to empirical studies of travel motivation. The technique is not abstract and can easily yield responses for assessment purposes. It was further shown that emergent essay themes can match themes from quantitative analyses, supporting its use in situations where quantitative analysis is impossible or inadvisable.

There are, however, limitations of the research work presented in this chapter. Future researchers may wish to pay closer attention to the presentation of the statistical data if highly accurate comparisons to the previous TCP studies are sought. For example, in one of the initial TCP works (Pearce, 2005), special motive groups are plotted in the actual TCP model, p values are reported in the travel experience comparison table and t-statistics and means are rounded to 2 significant figures. This is not the case with the backpacker study which has presented the statistical data in a slightly different manner. Secondly, frequency tables, additional quotes from respondents

and more rigorous gender analysis might add to the quality and depth of the data from the essays if conceptual content analysis is used.

Despite these limitations, it is hoped the data presentation and its subsequent analysis has been sufficient to draw the two broad conclusions of the chapter and hence fulfill the aims and the purpose of this triangulated motivational analysis. In their recent critical review of the travel career patterns concept, Hsu and Huang stated: "…a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is the preferred research approach to enhance the validity of the research outcome" (2008, p.25). Additional employment of triangulation in future TCP related studies may therefore further the relevance of tourist motivation research.

The motivational themes of the students identified in the essays (relationship/belonging, curiosity/mental stimulation, self-development and safety/comfort) and strengthened by the quantitative findings also relate to the three dimensions of happiness (engagement, meaning and positive emotions). This relationship will be elaborated in chapter 6. Now that the travel motives of the group have been identified in this anticipatory tourist experience phase, analysis of their on-site experiences can be conducted to further contribute to the exploratory picture of tourists' happiness from table 1.1.

Chapter 4 On site experiences

Aims	A different snapshot of the UTS students' travel experience was taken in May and June 2006 in Spain. A satisfaction study was conducted with the study-abroad group at seven cultural heritage sites in their study-abroad towns. The aim of this chapter is to therefore identify immediate conscious satisfaction themes from on-site experiences. By studying these experiences, a fresh layer of tourist satisfaction is uncovered through the positive psychology framework.
Chapter Structure	First, the concept of immediate conscious experience is defined and benefits of understanding such an experience are outlined. Second, the setting for the study is described. This part includes a description of the sites, the reasons for their selection, and explains how the study was set up. The methodology of the research work is then discussed. This section is followed by a thorough analysis of the results of the study.
Methodology	The study combines the flow model from positive psychology with other tourist satisfaction approaches. In depth interviews related to flow and other concepts were conducted with the students and were evaluated through interpretive phenomenological analysis.
Conclusions	These results are presented and summarised in a table in the analysis section. It is shown that the students' immediate conscious satisfaction is characterised by challenge-skill balance, total concentration, autotelic (intrinsically rewarding) events, time transformation and the related themes of mindfulness, object focus, personal experience, calm/tranquility and discovery. It is further demonstrated that the flow model for positive psychology was useful in uncovering this fresh layer of satisfaction and, as chapter 6 will show, also a key layer of the tourists' happiness – engagement, meaning and positive emotions.

Defining Immediate Conscious Experiences

More than two decades ago, Mannel and Iso-Ahola (1987) clearly distinguished between two types of tourist satisfaction: immediate conscious satisfaction and post hoc satisfaction. The immediate conscious experience approach is committed to the value of monitoring the actual, on-site, real-time satisfaction with the experience itself. The immediate conscious experience can be defined as a stream of consciousness within a present moment (Mannel and Iso-Ahola, 1987). This stream of consciousness encompasses the flow of perceptions, purposeful

thoughts, fragmentary images, distant recollections, bodily sensations, emotions, plans, wishes and impossible fantasies (Pope and Singer, 1978).

Mannel and Iso-Ahola (1987) argued that immediate conscious tourist experiences have not been subjected to scientific analysis. Twenty years after their work was published, there is still a large knowledge gap in understanding the nature of the real-time tourist experience. Hayllar and Griffin's (2004) analysis of the precinct experience points to a substantial contribution to the understanding of many utilitarian themes surrounding tourism precinct development and management. However, they argue that there is a dearth of material which explains how such places are experienced by tourists. Similar concerns about the dearth of literature on immediate conscious experiences have been echoed by Hom Cary (2004) in her analysis of the tourist moment and in Pearce's (2005) recent evaluations of on-site experiences. This conceptual gap has also been highlighted in the literature review and this study is intended to fill this gap.

Immediate conscious tourist experiences are very worthy of research. Kubey, Larson and Csikszentmihalyi point out that researchers "must be cognizant of the milieus in which the behaviors and phenomena they wish to study actually occur in order to adopt appropriate methods (1996, p.99)." He further points out that human activity takes place rapidly, in short bursts, repeatedly and over variable periods of time. Similar conclusions can be drawn about tourism which is commonly a highly spontaneous activity. Unpredictability of events seems to lie at the heart of tourist experiences and it is these unpredictable events which often end up being most satisfactory (Botterill, 1987; Hughes, 1991). Therefore, immediate tourist experiences need to be researched so that tourist satisfaction can be better understood.

Study Setting

Through in-depth interviews, an analysis of immediate conscious on-site experiences was conducted by the author in Salamanca, Logroño, Madrid, Granada and Barcelona. The cultural heritage sites were not selected randomly. They had to be located in towns where the students were based. The sites had to be relatively unknown to the students so that their immediate conscious experiences were not biased by previous experiences or knowledge. In addition to these criteria, buildings with diverse architectural styles were selected (e.g. gothic, baroque, art nouveau, etc). Very large sites had to have clearly distinguishable sections (such as an entrance, corridor or main section) so that the study could be restricted to one area. The researcher has been to all the sites in the past and this knowledge was useful in setting up the

procedures for the study (e.g. interview venues or times). The author's knowledge of the Spanish language eased difficulties of conducting research in a foreign country. Each of the 7 sites is introduced below.

The Main Square, Salamanca

Salamanca's Main Square or *Plaza Mayor* was constructed between 1729 and 1755. Not only is it one of the city's most beautiful locales, but it is also considered among the most beautiful plazas in all of Spain. Its Baroque style architecture of the 18th century includes Spanish decorations of cut tablets, equilateral arches and four levels. Much of the daily and night life of Salamanca takes place in the Main Square (Walking Tour of Salamanca, 2008).

Picture 1: The Main Square in Salamanca

Source: Walking Tour of Salamanca (2008)

The New Cathedral, Salamanca

The New Cathedral of Salamanca was constructed during the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries. In the beginning of the 15th century, it was decided that Salamanca needed a bigger and more splendid cathedral. The less glamorous and grand, Old Cathedral, still stands next to it. The architects of the New Cathedral were Antón de Egas and Alonso Rodriges. It is one of the ultimate manifestations of Gothic architecture in Spain, and together with the cathedral in Segovia, it is one of the last examples of such architecture constructed in Spain (Walking Tour of Salamanca, 2008).

Picture 2: The New Cathedral in Salamanca

Source: Walking Tour of Salamanca (2008)

The Royal Palace, Madrid

The Palacio Real (Royal Palace) is the largest palace in Europe. It was originally commissioned by Felipe V in 1734 and construction took 26 years. During the construction phase, Carlos III and Carlos IV also influenced the design and décor of the site. The current King of Spain, Juan Carlos I lives in the more modest Zarzuela Palace outside of Madrid, but the Palacio Royal is still used for state occasions (The Palacio Real, 2008).

Picture 3: The Royal Palace in Madrid

Source: The Palacio Real (2008)

Malaga Cathedral, Malaga

MalagaËs cathedral was built between 1528 and 1782 on or near the site of a former mosque. While original plans had allowed for two towers, lack of funds resulted in the completion of only one, giving rise to the name by which the cathedral is affectionately referred to, La Manquita, loosely interpreted as "one armed womanò The interior has influences of the Renaissance and baroque styles (The Cathedral of Malaga, 2008).

Picture 4: Malaga Cathedral in Malaga

Source: The Cathedral of Malaga (2008)

The Hospital of the Holy Cross and Saint Paul, *Barcelona*

This is a world heritage site and one of the key attractions in Barcelona. The current buildings date from the 20th century (Wikipedia ï Hospital de Sant Pau, 2008). However, the hospital was founded in 1401 when six small medieval hospitals merged. The hospital's former buildings now house an art school close to the centre of the city. The current building is designed in Art Nouveau style characterised by integrated spaces, visible structures and materials and decorations with plant forms integrated within the building (Hospital de Sant Pau homepage, 2008).

Picture 5: The Hospital of the Holy Cross and Saint Paul in Barcelona

Source: Hospital de Sant Pau homepage (2008)

Santa María de Palacio Church, Logroño

This heritage site is located in the centre of the town. The church was built on the foundation of a palace donated by Alfonso VII of Castile. It was founded in the 11th century and reconstructed and extended in the 12th and 16th centuries. A key feature of the church is a Gothic style tower in the shape of a pyramid and a reredos (a painted or carved screen placed above and behind an altar). The reredos is the work of Arnao of Brussels, a famous Spanish renaissance sculptor (Spain Info, 2008). At the time of the study, an exhibition of the artist's work was held at the church's premises. This exhibition formed part of the on-site experiences for the students.

Picture 6: Santa María de Palacio Church in Logroño

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TO COPYRIGHT RESTRICTIONS

Source: Spain Info (2008)

Jose Guerrero Centre, Granada

Jose Guerrero is a Spanish born painter known for colours and abstract imagery. The modern art museum, named after him, is located in an old building dating back to 1892. The original building was a warehouse and later a print shop. It was constructed according to a project designed by Modesto Cendoya, a clear believer in eclecticism. The outside of the structure looks out into the city and the inside turns within itself generating a space that invites aesthetic contemplation. The building is located in a historical part of Granada. The centre won a prize in 2003 by the College of Architects of Granada in the category of renovation and restoration (Jose Guerrero Centre homepage, 2008).

Only one student resided in Granada and hence only one interview was conducted there. Initial plans were for the study to be conducted at the Alhambra Palace in Granada, but the respondent was already very familiar with the site and therefore de-sensitised to the Alhambra on-site experience.

Picture 7: Jose Guerrero Centre in Granada

Source: Jose Guerrero Centre homepage (2008)

Methodology

The students were asked to meet the researcher at the seven sites. They were then instructed to engage in sightseeing, preferably alone. If they insisted on being part of a group, they were asked to keep their conversations to a minimum so they would not influence each others' perceptions of experiences. Groups of more than two were not allowed. The author (interviewer)

met the students immediately after the on-site experiences and the interviews began within 10 minutes of the site visit.

In-depth Interviews

The interview questions were strongly grounded in the literature. As in chapter 5, the purpose of the study was not to ascertain whether the participants experienced flow at the sites. Rather, it was to use the flow model (and related satisfaction concepts) to uncover a fresh layer of satisfaction, and therefore, better understand immediate conscious tourist experiences. Because of this focus, the questions were based on Jackson's (1996) suggestions for conducting in-depth flow interviews as well as Ryan's (1995) tourist satisfaction themes. For a copy of the interview questions, refer to appendix 1. The three general questions are designed to ascertain the respondents' general state of mind at the time of research. Thus, if the students were dissatisfied with their life in Spain and were not interested in the Spanish cultural heritage, their responses could have been affected by this negative or apathetic state of mind. The opposite could be argued for those who were generally positive about their study-abroad experience and who were highly engaged in learning about the Spanish culture and history. The three general questions, hence, also related to travel motivation, which was further attended to by question 4. Questions 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 all relate to the on-site experiences. They are linked to Ryan's (1995) satisfaction themes of mindfulness (for example, questions 6 and 7), psychological risk and stress (question 1) and the flow dimensions (for instance, question 3 - autotelic experience; questions 8, 9 and 10 - concentration on task, challenge-skill balance and time transformation). The remaining questions, 2 and 5, refer to other experiences. Comparisons could then be made between the on-site experiences and similar experiences (question 2) and between the on-site experiences and highly satisfactory flow experiences (question 5). This procedure of comparing and contrasting ensured that the satisfaction analysis of the students' responses was placed in a broader context and objectively evaluated.

The respondents were, however, probed beyond the 13 core questions. So, the questions merely served as a rough interviewing guide. The interview was thus semi-structured and lasted for approximately 30 minutes with each of the 10 male and 10 female students. Each student attended one site. The interviews were audio-tape recorded, they were entirely voluntary and conducted with the students' consent at a nearby café. Non-alcoholic beverages and food expenses during the interview and transportation costs from the students' domiciles to the sites were borne by the researcher.

Other Methods

Flow state scales, dispositional flow state scales and observational methods were employed in addition to the in-depth interview method and it is therefore important to acknowledge these other methods. The scales and the observational methods were used to back up the findings from the interviews. In general, these results were congruent with the results from the interviews. A detailed discussion of the methods and an analysis of the questionnaire and observation findings are however not part of this thesis. Analysis of the results obtained through the scales and the observations are to be published elsewhere. Their analysis in this thesis would have reduced the emphasis on the flow in-depth interviews as a primary and innovative method in assessing immediate conscious tourist experiences and not allowed for a detailed discussion of the interview findings.

The scales are briefly explained in the research study described in chapter 5. They respectively measure flow in an activity and dispositional tendency for flow, and as such, offer an additional measurement of immediate tourist satisfaction which supports the interviews (see appendix 2). The scales were initially designed for studies of flow in physical activities but were adapted for on-site experience evaluations specifically for this study. This adaption has also received an endorsement from the scale founders (appendix 3).

The supplementary observations consisted of analyses of tourists' posture, walking speed and pause times at different sections of the 7 sites (see appendix 4). Pen and paper were used to record the information and all the observations were conducted by the researcher. For posture, distinctions between tense and constrained, relaxed, absolved and frozen postures were assessed. For walking speed, differences between a fast pace, slow pace, average leisurely pace and a pace with tour guides were analysed. Ticks were assigned for the type of posture and the type of walking speed that generally applied to the observable group. The observed participants were male and female tourists of different age groups and of different travel party composition (single adult, couple, small group no children, adults and children and single adult and children). Behaviour of visitors was observed for approximately twenty minutes. The work was conducted after the interviews and not with the students or in their presence. It was impractical to observe the students as their behavior could not have been natural in the presence of the researcher and as part of the study. It was however possible to observe the behavior of young visitors of similar age groups to the UTS group.

If the interviewees argued that alteration of time was an important element of their on-site experience, the results that measure time transformation on the flow scales would be analysed to see if they are congruent with this interview finding. Long pause times from the observational work would then further support the claim that time transformation is an important element of immediate conscious tourist satisfaction. This is how the scales and the observational methods backed the in-depth interview results.

Rationale for not using the Experience Sampling Method

Another common technique for evaluating immediate conscious experiences is the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) (Schimmack, 2003). ESM frequently involves the use of electronic personal data assistants (PDA's) which are given to study participants. Respondents are signaled at random times during their experiences and then asked to respond to questions related to their feelings and thoughts during their experiences (Scollon, Kim-Prieto, Diener, 2003). The ESM technique is also described in chapter 5.

At a first glimpse, the most appropriate approach for studying immediate conscious satisfaction at tourist sites would appear to be the ESM technique. The method allows the researcher to delve into respondents' momentary reactions and hence analyse their experiences from up close. ESM allows data results to be transferred onto a disc and immediately analysed without the need for transcribing.

A close look at ESM, however, suggests otherwise. Stewart and Hull (1996) emphasise two major limitations of the ESM measure: alteration of experience and lack of compliance with the self-administration. The authors suggest that "invasiveness to the on-site experience is higher with *in situ* compared to traditional methods (1996, p.15)" and thus more likely to alter experience. Using a signaling device during a site visit may detract tourists from their experiences and could alter their perceptions. Respondents may also not be willing to use the PDAs. A tourist may not respond when signaled or may not answer each item on the questionnaire. In an ESM compliance study, Hormuth (1986) found that more than 95% of participants responded to signals. However, the percentage of participants doing so within 5 minutes was as low as 60% in one population and around 80% in another. This finding suggests some tourist groups may not be willing to input information on a PDA when instructed to do so. This lack of compliance may especially be prevalent with highly enjoyable experiences.

To avoid these problems, the in-depth interview method was employed as opposed to ESM. The interviews permit a detailed evaluation of experiences. They are designed in a way that allows respondents to comment on experiences immediately after their visit (within the first 10 minutes). The interviews therefore avoid the problem of alteration of experience while almost avoiding recall bias. Research compliance could also be greater, as face-to-face interviews and small incentives may increase the chances of respondents agreeing to participate.

As a further methodological check, an e-mail was sent to the founder of flow theory, Professor Csikszentmihalyi on 21 Nov 2005 in which the methods used for the study were explained in detail (refer to appendix 5). The response was positive and encouraging (refer to appendix 6). The reply implied that the in-depth interview approach was appropriate.

Interview Analysis

Interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) was used to evaluate the interviews. Reid, Flowers and Larking point out that "understanding experience is the very bread and butter of psychology, and interpretive phenomenological analysis offers psychologists the opportunity to learn from the insights of the experts – research participants themselves" (2005, p.20). The technique aims to capture and explore meanings that participants assign to their experiences (Smith, 1996). IPA is an inductive process which does not test hypothesis and where prior assumptions are avoided (Smith, 2004). Therefore, while the construction of the interview questions was based on the flow theory and the tourist satisfaction literature, no hypotheses were tested and assumptions about the way satisfaction might be experienced by the participants were avoided.

This technique was the most appropriate method for several reasons. IPA is commonly used to analyse lived experiences with a subjective and reflective process of interpretation (Reid *et al,* 2005). The subjective, spontaneous nature of on-site experiences hence fits this criterion. Secondly, the technique is particularly suited for researching concepts where much of theoretical structure is lacking (as with immediate conscious tourist experiences). Lastly, IPA is gaining increasing popularity in qualitative positive psychology works, the research field which informs all the studies of this thesis. Reid *et al* (2005) also argue that there is scope for IPA research to move beyond applications in problem behaviours and for participants to be given a chance to talk about their strengths, well being and quality of life which fits the broad premises of positive psychology (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Following the IPA framework, the interview analysis was based on the substantial verbatim excerpts from the data. The technique challenges the traditional linear relationship between numbers of participants and value of research (Reid *et al*, 2005). Instead, idiographic focus is retained with the average number of subjects normally involved in IPA research being 15 (Smith, 2004). The sample of 20 in this study is somewhat higher as the interviews typically did not exceed 30 minutes instead of a more common hour long discussions (Smith 2004; Reid *et al,* 2005).

Works employing IPA commonly require more than one researcher for transcription coding (Lyons and Coyle, 2007). This procedure ensures acceptable congruence in findings. In this case, the completed transcripts were given to two qualified colleagues with knowledge of IPA research procedures. The colleagues independently coded the interviews without reference to the other two coding sets. In line with IPA principles, the coded themes were then discussed. The themes that overlapped were agreed on and differences were debated until a final set emerged. Two coded sets and the final set are provided in the Analysis of Results section of this chapter.

The emphasis on congruence in findings instead of reliability is deliberate. Lyons and Coyle (2007) point out that positivist research tends to be assessed in terms of reliability. This criterion implies an assumption of objectivity and that 'bias' has to be defined in terms of a deviation from some definitive truth or fact. Considering that, in IPA studies, the researcher is inevitably involved in research (through interviewing and probing, observing and/or participating), the traditional criteria that aim to eliminate 'bias' are inappropriate. Instead, a set of alternative evaluation criteria are proposed for good qualitative research (Yardley, 2000; Elliot, Fischer and Rennie, 1999). These are sensitivity to context; commitment and rigour; transparency and coherence; and impact and importance (Yardley, 2000).

Sensitivity to context means that the research should take into account theories and the understandings created by other researchers, the socio-cultural setting for the study and the relationship between the researcher and the participants. Commitment relates to demonstrating prolonged engagement with the research topic and rigour is the completeness of data collection and analysis. Transparency refers to disclosing and discussing the details of the data collection and analysis. Coherence relates to the fit between the research questions and the philosophical

perspective adopted and the method of investigation undertaken. Impact and importance relate to the theoretical, practical and socio-cultural impact for the study.
In this study, every effort was made to adhere to these core tenants of good qualitative research. The interview construction is grounded in the flow and tourist satisfaction literature improving sensitivity to context. The commitment is demonstrated through the researcher's ongoing engagement with the students' travel experience (the per-departure motivation study, this study and the study reported in chapter 5). The research process is thoroughly described and discussed ensuring rigor and transparency. The research aims fit the overall philosophy of the thesis ensuring coherence. This thesis philosophy proposes that the contribution to knowledge lies in employing non-tourism conceptual models to uncover new layers of the tourism phenomena. Lastly, the theoretical implications of the study are also addressed assuring that the impact and importance criterion is met.

Story (2007) suggests the following key stages for conducting interpretive phenomenological analysis:

- initial readings of the transcripts;
- identifying and labeling themes;
- linking themes; and
- producing a summary table of themes with illustrative quotations.

While not strictly prescriptive, this broad IPA framework provided a useful basis for analysing the in-depth interviews. The analysis of the results therefore follows these stages.

Analysis of Results

- **Initial readings**

This is typically the most overwhelming and the most challenging part of the IPA analysis. The process consists of investigators skimming the transcribed text to try to make some sense of it (Storey, 2007). The aim is to get an overall feel for the data by reading and re-reading the transcripts. The investigator is commonly presented with a mass of interview data and it can seem an impossible task to find coherent meaning in the transcripts (Coyle and Olsen, 2005). The presence of seemingly haphazard and incoherent data was also a key feature in the initial readings of these interviews. It was evident that the students found it challenging to articulate their feelings and thoughts despite probing by the interviewer and comparisons to previous immediate conscious experiences. While the interview template was structured, not every

respondent spent the same amount of time on each question. The articulation difficulties and the uneven attention to different aspects of the interview therefore made the initial readings of the transcripts a challenging process for all the coders.

Presence of additional issues or themes raised by the students further added to the complexity of the data. Balance had to be made by ensuring that the issues specified in the interview template were covered but also to allow the students the freedom to raise issues that were relevant to their immediate conscious satisfaction but which were not considered when the template was compiled. For example, at the cathedral in Salamanca, both Peter and Kristen voiced highly negative views about the role of the Catholic Church in Spain. As the study was a psychological evaluation of immediate experiences, such issues about the symbolism of the sites in the Spanish society were seen as less relevant to the research question. These sociological and cultural issues were therefore not specifically addressed by the interview questions. Yet, as the respondents' strong opinions have affected their immediate conscious satisfaction at the Cathedral, Kristen and Peter were not interrupted:

"It's amazing, inspiring, but I couldn't help thinking that Catholic church has so much money, so many people are starving and it's kind of just a sign of imperialism. They've got stuff about El Sid who killed so many people. It's all about the Catholic Church taking over Spain, kicking out everyone else. "- Kristen

"It sort of sickens me that they spent so much money, they put in so much effort into the façade of the church as opposed to actually helping people out. That's what really bothered me. Also, in context, when I'm in there I think of the Spanish inquisition. That church might have been used to, like, torture people. It sort of sickens me. And the fact that people still have so much pride in it. I dunno, it doesn't sit well with me…" - Peter

The presence of these additional themes, have further complicated the initial readings. One of the biggest threats of inappropriate initial reading is over identification or negative dis identification with the respondents. Storey warns:

"…an over-identification with an interviewee on the basis of shared or analogous experiences may lead the analyst to force the data to conform to his/her experiences or a negative dis identification with the interviewee can make it difficult to empathise with the interviewee and

thus attain the sort of 'insider' perspective on the research topic to which IPA aspires" (2007, p.54). To minimize this risk, the coders worked independently but jointly discussed their rationale for thinking about aspects of the text before agreeing on common threads. As such, if one of the coders was also negative towards the Spanish Church, he or she may have struggled to flesh out any immediate satisfaction themes from Kristen's and Peter's interviews. That is why the discussion between the researchers was so valuable in this initial analysis phase.

So despite the articulation problems, the uneven attention to the questions by the respondents, the additional issues raised and the potential for identification or negative disidentification, an overall immediate conscious satisfaction feature was identified. This feature is that immediate satisfaction was conceived by the group as a cognitive as well as an affective state. In other words, for the students, the immediate conscious satisfaction is a mental state which includes both pleasurable feelings as well as engaging and satisfying thoughts about what is being experienced. This conceptualisation fits the immediate conscious experience definition by Pope and Singer (1978). Yet, as stressed in the literature review, much of the tourist satisfaction literature conceptualises satisfaction in almost entirely cognitive terms conveniently ignoring this other, more spontaneous, affective aspect.

So once it was established in the initial readings that the immediate conscious satisfaction for the students is indeed a cognitive-affective state, more specific identification and labeling of these themes could follow.

- **Identifying and labeling themes**

It was mentioned earlier that IPA is an inductive approach with a phenomenological commitment and that there is an inherent risk of over-emphasising interpretive aspects of texts and overwriting people's subjectivity with certain theories. This overemphasis was not present in this analysis. Although the flow theory informed the analysis together with the other tourist satisfaction themes, testing the flow theory was not the objective. An a priori theoretically committed approach in IPA normally involves choosing a single theory in advance, but using it to inform rather than drive the analysis (that is, no attempt is made on testing the theory) (Coyle and Rafalin, 2000; Turner and Coyle, 2000). By using the flow theory to inform and not drive the analysis, the risk of overusing the theory was reduced. The cognitive-affective themes could however, be identified and labelled as either flow themes, other satisfaction themes or contextual themes. Some of the nine dimensions of flow were clearly identifiable in the

interviews and it was hence appropriate to highlight the positive psychology contribution in fleshing out the immediate satisfaction. The following themes were identified by coding assistants 1 and 2 (Andrea and Margo).

Table 4.1: Andrea's set

On site satisfaction

Flow	Other satisfaction themes	Contextual information
time transformation	no crowding and no photos	language ability
total concentration	pleasant temperature (not hot or cold)	inability to communicate/express oneself
challenge-skills balance	relaxation/calm/peacefulness	homesickness
action awareness merging	absorption	ability to live away from home
autotelic events	curiosity	experience something different
clear goals	interaction/engagement	career development
loss of self-consciousness	focus	new perspectives
	excitement/ stimulation	living without friends or family
	no interruptions from other people	wanting to be like a local
	no tourists	wanting to get by (difficulty in day to day tasks)
	discovery (unexpected events)	
	learning	
	daydreaming and imagination	
	respect for local culture	

Table 4.2: Margo's set

On site satisfaction

Flow	Other satisfaction themes	Contextual information
time transformation	crowds	language problems
total concentration	temperature (pleasant or unpleasant)	cultural immersion/wanting to fit in
action awareness merging	relaxation	satisfaction with time in the country
autotelic events	interest	novel environment
	aesthetics	loneliness
	interaction	self-discovery
	excitement	cultural comparison
	solitary experience	ups and downs
	tranquility	independence
	contentment	
	discovery	
	calm	
	learning	
	freedom	
	lighting	
	personal experiences	
	association (historical, present day)	

- **Linking themes**

Following the formal identification and labeling of this cognitive-affective mix, connections between different themes and different coding sets were identified. This linking process ensured that the themes from Margo's and Andrea's sets could be integrated with a less formal and methodical labeling by the principal researcher. The coders discussed in detail the initial labeling and identification. Some of the themes were eliminated as they formed a larger theme or were only identified by one coder on one or two occasions. Other themes were grouped to form new labels.

The rationale for grouping and final labeling was in many cases supported by relevant literature. For example, the other satisfaction themes of interest and learning from Margo's set and the

themes of absorption, curiosity, interaction/engagement and learning from Andrea's set were grouped into a single theme of mindfulness. The concept of mindfulness, as indicated in the literature review, neatly incorporates all of these sub-themes. This is a "flexible, cognitive state that results from drawing novel distinctions about the situation and environment" (Carson and Langer, 2006, p. 29). Mindfulness is therefore about interest, absorption, curiosity, interaction/engagement and learning (Moscardo, 1996). Similarly, the contextual information themes of ups and downs, cultural comparison, cultural immersion/wanting to fit in and language problems (Margo's set) and the themes of language ability, inability to communicate/express oneself, wanting to get by (difficulty in day to day tasks), homesickness, living without friends or family (Andrea's set) all point to Oberg's (1960) elements of culture shock (physical, orientation, cultural components, daily hassles). Oberg defines culture shock as a term that describes difficulties of operating in a foreign culture. These difficulties were common for the students yet did not seem to affect their immediate conscious satisfaction. One of the clearest accounts of culture shock was given by Maria, yet her experience at the cathedral in Salamanca was highly fulfilling. The theoretical concept of culture shock, however was regarded as too broad by the coders and was hence divided into three contextual final themes: wanting to fit in/learn about the culture, language challenges and loneliness. The remaining contextual and other satisfaction themes from the initial coding sets were also discussed and grouped to form a final set.

The flow themes were not grouped. Instead, overlaps were discussed and commonly agreed on. Two flow themes, however, were omitted from the final set: clear goals and action-awareness merging. The clear goals dimension was discovered on one occasion in one of the interviews and by one coder. It was agreed that this does not warrant its inclusion in the final group of themes as the flow dimension does not adequately represent the immediate conscious satisfaction of the student group. The action awareness merging dimension was identified by both Andrea and Margo but also did not feature prominently (it was uncovered in 2 separate interviews on 1 occasion). The action-awareness merging label was used for the following quotes:

" And it's kind of like, there were heaps of people there. It was hot there in this crappy little demountable cube thing, but because the stuff I was seeing was so intense and so visual, you didn't notice anything at all."

"*You do focus on yourself, you don't hear anything cause you're just sort of looking*."

After a discussion with the coders, it was agreed that the quotes actually more appropriately represent the other satisfaction theme of object focus and not the action-awareness merging theme.

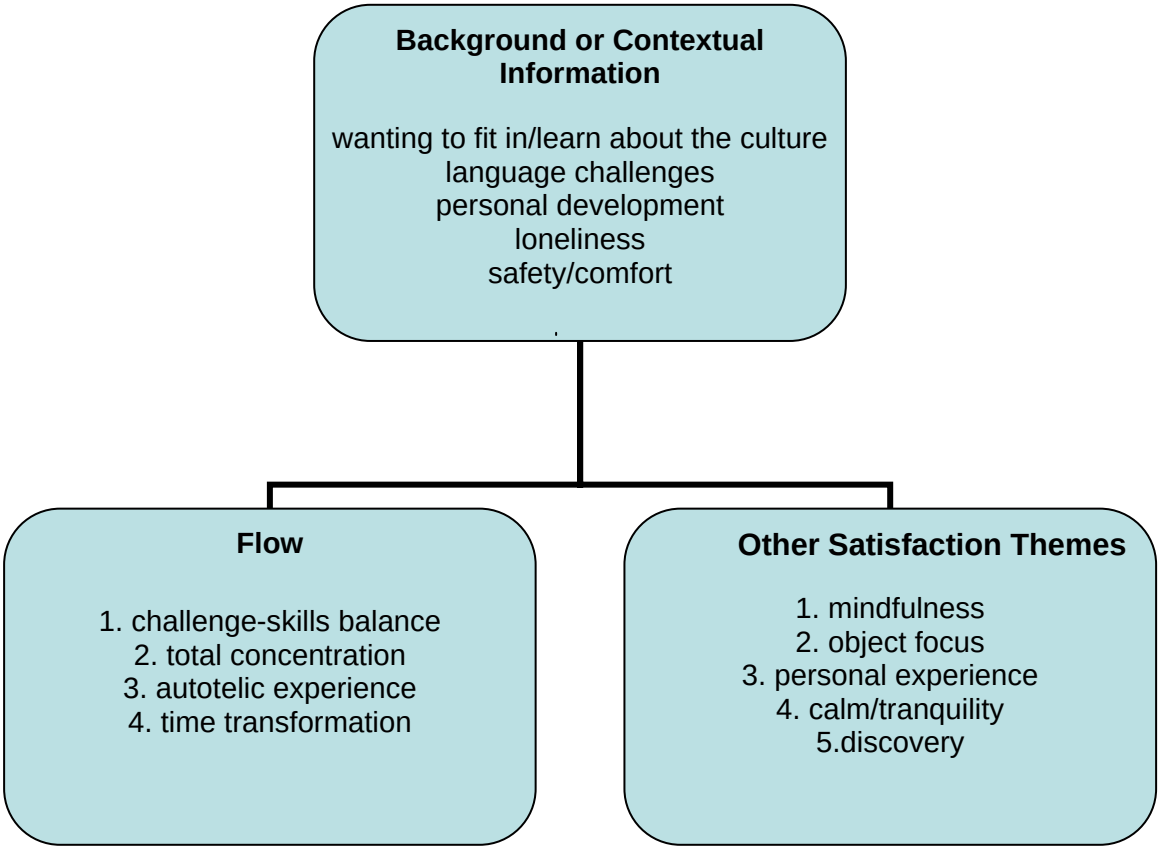
Following this initial labeling and linking of the themes, a final set representing the immediate conscious tourist satisfaction of the students emerged. It was finally possible to provide illustrative examples from the in-depth interviews for each of the cognitive- affective themes as they were not changed further. Connections however, between the final flow themes and the final other satisfaction themes were drawn to show that aspects of flow are distinct but complementary elements of the overall immediate satisfaction mix.

- **Summary of core themes with illustrative examples**

In line with the IPA procedures noted by Storey (2007) illustrative quotes are provided here under each main final satisfaction theme. Contextual themes are discussed as one whole single theme as they are not part of the immediate satisfaction mix. As with some other IPA analyses (Smith, 1996; Smith, 2004; Reid, *et al*, 2005) and in a similar manner to Uriely and Belhassen's (2005) phenomenological investigation of drugs in tourist experiences, a frequency table of the main themes was not developed. Considering the sample of 20 students and the exploratory approach to this study, statements such as: "50% of respondents or 10 out 20 students mentioned mindfulness" are therefore not used in this section. In chapter 5, on the other hand, where conceptual content analysis is used to look for flow state dimensions, the frequency of each dimension is deemed important and hence the frequency tables are used in that study. Also, the flow dimensions are not discussed in detail in this presentation of the final themes. The flow dimensions were described briefly in chapter 2 and are closely analysed in chapter 5.

The students' immediate conscious satisfaction is presented in figure 2.

Figure 2: Core contextual and immediate conscious satisfaction themes



- **Challenge-skills balance and mindfulness**

These two themes are expressed in a similar manner by the students. It was mentioned in the literature review that mindfulness is similar to the flow dimension of challenge-skills balance. This is because both of the concepts describe a state in which a tourist actively processes what he or she is observing and commonly learns from this experience. This is how Gareth described his mindful experience at the St Paul's hospital in Barcelona.

"The sounds and the site were very relaxing but at the same time your mind's working and thinking about the history of the place and the purpose - why it was built the way it was. There's a lot of religious symbols and those sorts of things you take in more. It's not the same as the beach where you just escape and relax, the atmosphere is such that you have to be more involved."

Catherine also described her state of mindfulness at the exhibition in Logroño's church:
"We just sort of had a look at the ones (the exhibits) we liked and read a bit about the artist and passed the exhibits we weren't interested in."

Even June who had a rather ordinary experience at Saint Paul's Hospital, was mindfully appreciative of the juxtaposition of the murals at the site:

"I consider myself an art lover but I'm not particularly. I mean most of the stuff I look at I don't have much knowledge about. I kind of grew up in a background where I knew about art but I think that my knowledge is fairly limited still. Still, it was interesting to observe the juxtaposition of the murals that were there and the technology that has been installed since."

In all these descriptions there is an implied desire for learning. For Gareth there was a desire to gain knowledge about the history of the place, for Catherine to learn about the artist and for June to learn about the murals. Learning is a central component of mindfulness (Moscardo, forthcoming).

On many occasions, the difference between mindfulness and challenge-skills balance was very subtle, but one distinguishing characteristic of the flow dimension is the presence of a mental challenge that is being met. This challenge is typically presented by a visual stimulus that is studied in detail and then decoded or understood (Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson, 1990). The existence of a challenge was typically hidden but was implied and thus discernable from the interviews. When asked to think of another on-site experience that could match the description of flow from Csikszentmihalyi's quote, Kirsty said:

"I guess the closest thing I can think of is seeing Picasso's Guernica. That was really one of those things that I was so in awe that I didn't feel anything for a couple of seconds. I saw it in Madrid, in a museum. Then I started analysing the shapes. I guess I am an analyst. "

So, Guernica was a complex and powerful visual stimulus for Kirsty as it had many shapes (challenges) that she started to analyse (with her visual skills). Yet this experience of detailed observation was highly exhilarating because it matched the description of flow. She was therefore experiencing the challenge-skill balance.

- **Total concentration and object focus**

Another core theme was total concentration from flow which also normally meant focus on a particular object or aspect of the site (object focus). For the bulk of the respondents, total concentration and object focus did not occur at the sites for this study. This could possibly be due to the fact that respondents were required to engage in sightseeing for the purposes of the research. Total concentration and object focus did, however, feature in other on-site experiences of the students. Talking about a fulfilling experience from his past visit to a museum Peter said:

"That time when I was in a museum in Madrid, I was looking at art because you kind of tend to ignore the people around you… Like if you are focusing on a painting or a certain work of art then it's easy to concentrate on that…"

Monique similarly described her total concentration and object focus at a Vietnam War museum in Ho Chi Ming City:

"I was packed in this little thing that everyone was moving through together….And it kind of doesn't fit in with "my body feels great" cause my body felt heavy (cause it was really intense) but it was the same sort of feeling I guess…I dunno, I agree with every other part of the quote – a complete and utter focus on what I was seeing, and what I was reading…"

The theme of concentration and focus was also expressed in the following way by Melissa in her account of the on-site experience at the church in Logroño:

"I wasn't paying attention to who was moving around me and stuff. And when I moved away I also didn't pay attention to what was around me."

- **Autotelic experience and personal experience**

Autotelic or an intrinsically rewarding experience is considered a product of the other flow dimensions and is a feeling of high exhilaration and fulfillment. It is therefore not a cognitive but an affective element of immediate satisfaction. With the exception of one person, the respondents did not have autotelic experiences at the sites during the study. Autotelic descriptions of experiences by the students at other sites, however, abound.

Autotelic experiences were highly personal. Maria's comments about her cathedral visit are illustrative of how individuals in the sample described these powerful experiences:

"It looks surreal. Inside it makes me feel at peace, content, it makes me feel like nothing else matters, it makes me feel happy, it….Yeah, nothing else matters…."

The three times repeated phrase: "makes me feel" points to this interplay between the personal and the autotelic. When asked if this was her first time at the site, Maria replied:

"No, this wasn't my first time, but this time the site still had the same impact on me as when I first saw it. That it's huge and it's there and it's beautiful and it's ….I think it's amazing (repeats twice). Ummm…it's overwhelming…."

Another example of an autotelic experience was Emily's account of her visit to Ellora caves in India. In this instance the word "amazing " is mentioned several times which is one of the words that normally describes autotelic events (Jackson and Eklund, 2004):

"I was in these caves - Ellora caves in India. Just lots of sets of different caves with beautiful carvings inside and it was just amazing cause they were carved in the dark. They had all these amazing techniques to do it, like water on the floor to reflect the light and then just this incredible painting with this woman with a flower in her hair and it was just amazing the way it was done! I felt completely calm inside, tranquil, really balanced, just a satisfied very calm sort of clearheaded feeling. I guess it was a content sort of happy feeling."

When asked how long she spent looking at the carvings she said:

"I have no idea. I didn't care how long it was. I was in a group but we were just wandering around the place, but there was no pressure…"

- **Time transformation and calm/tranquility**

Indeed, the importance of calm and tranquility to immediate satisfaction was also clearly expressed by the respondents. When asked to talk about a powerful experience from the past at a tourist site, Brenda mentioned the Alhambra fortress in Granada. To the question: "Were there

any specific physical attributes which grabbed your attention at the Alhambra fortress?" she replied:

"No, it was just the overall tranquility. The architecture is such that there is not much light that can go through. So it's actually quite cool even if it's hot outside. It's calm. You can't hear noises from the city. While you are in there you can freely focus on the architecture and the designs. The ceiling in particular I found most intriguing…"

Alexis's visit during this study to Saint Paul's Hospital was also very calming:

"I found that the hospital was beautiful. I was quite surprised how lovely actually it was. I read a few things in guide books but I didn't know it was so beautiful. The architecture is really nice. If it wasn't called a hospital and you didn't maybe pick up a few of the hospital signs you wouldn't think it's a hospital necessarily because it's sort of….When you walk into the courtyard, the atmosphere is calm. The colours of the building I also found very calming – most probably used for the purpose of it being a hospital."

Time transformation (a perception that time either slows or speeds up) was commonly intertwined with the descriptions of calm and tranquility. The quote by Monique is a good illustration of the linkage between calm and tranquility and time transformation. In her description of a different powerful on-site experience, she described how she took her time to enjoy the calming atmosphere at the site:

"When I was in Tunisia, I came across these Roman ruins in the Middle of North Africa and I found them really amazing. Maybe because I didn't have an understanding that such things existed here, but to see them! And to see the Roman ruins! There weren't so many tourists around, it was really calming and it was just nice to wander through it on your own, take your time and discover these things on your own."

Also, Brenda added shortly after her reference to tranquility that "*the time just went too quickly when I was in Alhambra".*

Monique's idea of "taking time" at the Roman ruins and Brenda's perception that time went too quickly at Alhambra show how the perception of time was distorted for the respondents during

these past experiences. The time transformation, together with the other flow elements of challenge-skills balance, total concentration and autotelic experiences hence characterises immediate satisfaction of the travellers. The related other satisfaction themes further explain the gratifying cognitive–affective state. There was however one more other satisfaction theme that was uncovered.

- **Discovery**

Discovery was the last immediate satisfaction theme that featured prominently. Unlike the rest of the themes it did not have a flow linkage in this study. The notion of active discovery has, however, been compared to the challenge-skills balance in museum visitor settings (Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson, 1990), but here the flow dimension was deemed to be more similar to the mindfulness theme.

This is how Maria expressed her discovery at the cathedral in Salamanca:

"I was standing outside and looking at the cathedral. Every time I'm there I see things that I haven't seen before. So I can look at something and I find things. I discover things there. One of my favourite aspects today was the fact that there was someone playing the organ and they were practicing their scales on the organ. We don't have that in Sydney, they were just practicing. It was like a normal thing."

And when Jo was asked what he liked the most about Palacio Real in Madrid, he said:
"Umm…When we stood up on the fence and looked inside where the plaza was. I guess it was a bit weird. We climbed on the fence and it was like we were discovering something."

Monique, who was with Jo at that time, added her commentary to the haphazard discovery:

"Yeah, I was also interested when we looked inside the palace there from the fence. It was really cool cause one person came in and walked across the palace and I couldn't help it, but I was really curious. My imagination went wild as to what that person does… I thought maybe that person has actually met the king and that person was actually allowed to enter the areas for that reason…I dunno, because I was more relaxed my imagination started to run wild a bit…"

For Brenda in Granada, the discovery at the Jose Guerrero Centre was so powerful that it influenced her intention to return to the site:

"I was surprised to see there was an Australian painter's work. I am interested in it. I actually wanna go back to it and I am curious about it."

So, it is interesting to note that the discoveries for the respondents never detracted from the quality of their on site experiences. The discovery was typically viewed in a positive light, as a random, haphazard element that enriched the overall immediate conscious experience.

Background or Contextual Information

The first three interview questions were: 1) why did you decide to do the International Studies course and come to Spain; 2) how have you found the period of time since your arrival in Spain; and 3) which aspect of your In-Country study experience do you currently find most rewarding and most satisfying and why?

The purpose was to gain an insight into the respondents' general state of mind at the time of research and effectively provide the researcher with a situational or contextual view of the experiences. Although, it was initially anticipated that the students with a negative state of mind would also have negative on-site experiences no evidence for such a claim was found. Most students were eager to fit in with the Spanish culture, improve their command of the Spanish language and overcome feelings of loneliness and homesickness. Yet these feelings did not seem to affect their satisfaction with the cultural site or their ability to talk about other fulfilling events. The case of Maria is again useful for analysis. She described one of the most fulfilling on-site experiences during this research yet she also gave a very negative account of her initial experience of living in Salamanca and feelings of general apathy about her life in Spain at the time of the interview:

"Ok, when I first arrived….I hated it. Completely hated it. Ummmm, I was gonna go home. I was ready to go home. I hated everything. I hated the size of the city. I hated the fact that I couldn't communicate. I hated that I didn't have friends, that I was disconnected from everyone, that I was isolated, that I couldn't leave the city, ummm…I didn't know what there was here to do. But, as time went on, I sort of…. I sort of learned to accept that I'm here and to make the most out of

the situation. So I'm here, I'm not going anywhere, if anything I'm going to get something out of it. "

Others talked about similar issues broadly related to the culture shock elements (Oberg, 1960), such as language issues:

"The language - I just assumed that after having 4 semesters of Spanish I would be speaking almost like a Spaniard. I got here and I couldn't say anything – couldn't say anything at all. My friend spoke much better than me. It was a stab in face, it was a kick when I was down. I just couldn't get by at all. And couldn't express any aspect of my personality because I had no language skills. That was the hardest thing – not being able to express myself because I just didn't have the skills…. Next semester we are actually in with the Spanish students. It's going to be a bit harder. But it will also be exciting because I will have more of an understanding of the language. "- Lisa

On the other hand, the following two quotes are representative of the more positive contextual themes:

"I really wanted to do Nursing in South America so the Spanish language would really propel me there. But I didn't go to South America for International Studies because I didn't think it was very safe for me there as like, first moving out of home…" – Terena.

"*I love cementing friendships over time. In my group of friends in OZ we are closed off to any new people. We've been the same group for almost 10 years. It's good not to have them as a fallback. Instead you are forced to make new friends and get to know people for the first time as opposed to knowing people already and talking crap day in and day out. It's good to have a look at someone else's life and create friends."* – Peter.

At the time of the interview, therefore, the students were also concerned with satisfying their safety and comfort needs and were developing opportunities for self growth through close friendships. These themes neatly resemble the travel motives of the students identified in chapter 3.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify immediate conscious satisfaction themes of the student group. The results show that the tourist group's immediate satisfaction at a site consists of both affective and cognitive elements. The tourists were immediately satisfied by feelings of calm and tranquility, time transformation and by experiences that were personal and intrinsically rewarding (autotelic) for them. For the participants, to be immediately satisfied was also about being mindful, being focused on objects and discovering new things about the sites. Total concentration on visual stimuli and a feeling of exhilaration from meeting the challenges imposed by the visual stimuli (challenge-skills balance), were also the core immediate satisfaction themes. Most of the students were experiencing culture shock at the time of the interviews. Yet, these challenges did not seem to affect their ability to have satisfying experiences at tourist sites on this occasion or to talk about other fulfilling moments from the past.

The presence of the cognitive-affective mix may sound contradictory. For example, it may be thought that experiences that are characterised by a lot of thinking such as mindfulness and total concentration contradict with the notions of relaxation, tranquility and time transformation. Yet the presence of both hedonic and more cognitive (thinking) themes is the essence of the flow state. Being in flow (a highly satisfactory optimal state) is as much about being engaged and attentive as it is about deriving emotional pleasure from such attentiveness and engagement (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, 1990; Ryan, 1995; Jackson and Eklund, 2004). Aspects of this state were uncovered in the in-depth interviews. The flow model from positive psychology has therefore embellished the conceptualisation of the immediate conscious tourist experience. Through the following quote:

"My mind isn't wandering, I am not thinking of something else. I am totally involved in what I am doing. My body feels great. I don't seem to hear anything. The world seems to be cut off from me. I am less aware of myself and my problems" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1982, p.23)*,*

an important layer of the tourists' immediate satisfaction was brought to light. This different layer of tourist satisfaction may not have been uncovered through commonly highly reflective Nordic methods (Prakash, 1984; Hughes, 1991; Crompton and Love, 1995; Kozak, 2001) and certainly not through expectations based approaches such as SERVQUAL (Parasuraman *et al,* 1988; Truong, 2005) or IPA (Martilla and James, 1977; Hudson and Shephard, 1998). Instead, the

findings of this study complement the increasingly popular, experience related conceptualisations of satisfaction, such as the tourist moment (Hom Cary, 2004) and existential authenticity (Wang, 1999; Steiner and Reisinger, 2006). In line with this approach, the study suggests that satisfaction is both a feeling and a cognitive evaluation and that it is at least as much about immediacy as it is about reflection. The application of the flow model and its addition to more standard tourist satisfaction concepts has therefore improved the measurement of the immediate conscious tourist satisfaction.

There are however limitations of this on site study. The fresh conceptualisation and measurement of the immediate tourist satisfaction was based on the findings obtained from a small sample of travellers who are culturally quite homogenous and who are in the similar age group (18-30 years old). Gender differences were not explored and this limitation is further discussed in chapter 6. Further, because the focus was on identifying immediate satisfaction themes, the students were also encouraged to talk about other immediately satisfying on-site experiences that may have been more powerful than their experience during this study. This procedure was risky as it could have violated the immediate conscious criterion because the students were asked to also talk about satisfying experiences from the past. Despite this risk, it is believed that the criterion was not violated because the participants discussed other experiences in the context of the flow quote which was presented in present tense and which describes an immediately gratifying moment. Lastly, as with any IPA research, the interpretation and generalisability of the findings should be taken with caution. The fact that the themes were cross coded and that the deductions and reasoning were thoroughly discussed has reduced the potential bias.

Considering the limitations, this on-site experience study could be conceived as an exploratory examination of immediate conscious on-site tourist satisfaction – the satisfaction type which has been overlooked in tourism studies (Mannel and Iso-Ahola, 1987; Hom-Cary 2004, Hayllar and Griffin, 2004). It is hoped that the study has laid a foundation for new research on conceptualisation and measurement of tourist moments, immediacy and satisfaction from the tourism psychology perspective. The following chapter concludes the story of the student-travellers and examines their memorable travel experiences.

Chapter 5 Reflections on Experiences

Aims	A further contribution to the exploratory picture of tourists' happiness is made in this chapter. The specific aim is to evaluate the students' memorable experiences from Spain after their return to Australia. This evaluation is done by identifying post-hoc satisfaction themes from the descriptions of these memorable experiences.
Chapter Structure	The chapter includes a refereed, published article in which this final research study is explained in detail. The article is preceded by a short preface and followed by a final statement. This structure ensured that the published work is tied in with the rest of the thesis.
Methodology	The flow model is fully applied to analyse the experiences. The students were asked to write an essay in which they described two memorable experiences from their study abroad year. The essays were coded according to the nine dimensions of flow through conceptual content analysis. Cross validation by an independent researcher was also completed.
Conclusions	The results are presented in tabular form and discussed in the article. It was found that the satisfaction themes of challenge-skills balance and autotelic events featured in the students' memorable experiences. Evidence of eudaimonia and surprise was also uncovered. Further studies of these two post-hoc satisfaction themes are needed. As with chapters 3 and 4, these research results form an important part of the tourists' happiness table. This table is revisited in chapter 6.

Preface

This study ends the students' year-long travel story and is titled: "Applying the dimensions of flow to explore visitor engagement and satisfaction." A paper reporting the study was published in Volume 11, issue 1 of the refereed journal, Visitor Studies, in 2008. The James Cook University rules for PhD submission permit the inclusion of published articles provided they are integrated into a thesis structure. The following comments and later, reflections provide that integration.

The journal was a relevant outlet as it commonly publishes broadly based articles related to visitor or tourist experience evaluation. Visitor Studies is the official, refereed journal of the

Visitor Studies Association. The journal has recently developed a partnership with Routledge which is expected to lead to an increased accessibility of the journal to libraries, universities, centres and institutions that share an interest in visitor studies. The association is a leading organisation focusing on different components of the visitor experience. The association's goal is to better understand and enhance the visitor experience through research, dialogue and evaluation. Visitor Studies publishes quality conceptual and research papers with an international focus on visitor research, evaluation studies and research methodologies (Visitor Studies Association, 2008).

Visitor Studies was also chosen as it is not part of the mainstream tourism journal group (see tourism journal rankings by McKercher, Law and Lam, 2006). A further reference to Jafari's seminal opinion piece is appropriate: "Our contributions to knowledge must be externalised. Tourism will remain unknown as long as we favor publishing in our field-specific journals. We certainly have something of value to share with other fields…" (2005, p.2). In a modest way, the Visitor Studies paper broadly fits in with the agenda of externalising knowledge. Readership is not restricted to tourism scholars. The journal's articles frequently relate to museums, art galleries, out-of-school learning environments. They are read by academics and practitioners interested in museum studies and education in addition to tourism scholars and practitioners (Visitor Studies Association, 2008).

The paper is included in its original, published format. To follow the same structure as in the rest of the thesis, the reference list for the article is integrated with the other references at the end of the thesis. Numbers of tables from the paper are adjusted to fit in with the numbering system of the thesis. First person singular voice is occasionally used in the article and is not changed to the third person style of this thesis. Direct citations by the students and the in text referencing style are also retained and are shown as they appeared in the journal.

There are two issues which need consideration in presenting this paper in its original format. Firstly, a section that had to be omitted from the published version due to word limits was a further discussion of congruence of the research findings. It is hoped that the value of seeking congruence between different sets of qualitative data was demonstrated in chapter 4 in detail. Secondly, the explicit focus on engagement might limit the reader's ability to consider the article in the broader context. This focus exists in the published paper because the flow model is more directly related to the engagement than to the meaning and positive emotions elements of

happiness. This linkage however, becomes looser when the memorable experiences also include descriptions of eudaimonia or other meaningful themes. The elaboration of these points in the data section of the paper provides a stronger connection to happiness ideas than is implicit in the original title of the paper. Therefore it is important to consider the article not just in terms of its contribution to exploring visitor engagement but also in the broader context of understanding post hoc satisfaction through analyses of memorable holiday events and in the context of contributing to the broader picture of tourists' happiness.

……START OF PAPER……..

Applying the Dimensions of Flow to Explore Visitor Engagement and Satisfaction

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Abstract

This article applies models from the field of positive psychology in conceptualising and appraising visitor or tourist satisfaction. In particular, visitor engagement is explored using personal narrative essays as a means of assessing satisfaction. Twenty university study-abroad students participated in the study, writing reflective essays about their year-long overseas experience. The results suggest that aspects of flow, and other concepts from positive psychology, were part of the students' satisfaction. Exploring engagement in this way has thus uncovered a fresh layer of satisfaction that could not have been detected by a traditional tourist satisfaction approach.

So central to the meaning of human life, the concern for happiness has fascinated philosophers, politicians, novelists, psychologists, biologists, sociologists, and many others for centuries (de Botton, 2002; Glatzer, 2000; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Surveys in Canada and the United States have revealed that most North Americans think about happiness, on average, at least

once each day (Lyubomirsky & Ross, 1990). Biologists see it as the result of chemical processes, sociologists see it as a social condition, and philosophers perceive happiness in a more moral context (Glatzer, 2000). In psychology, happiness is often accepted to be the sum of pleasures and pains, as well as an overall appreciation of one's life as a whole (Veenhoven, 2003a). The study of happiness has recently gained the interest of mainstream and prominent psychology researchers who aim to understand happiness in pragmatic terms (Duckworth, Steen, & Seligman, 2005). This interest is seen in the emergence of positive psychology as an important area of research. Positive psychology is "an umbrella term for the study of positive emotions, positive character traits, and enabling institutions" (Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005, p. 410). Its broad aims are to investigate what makes life worth living, and its central preoccupation is with human happiness and well being (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Tourism is arguably the largest self-initiated, social, leisure phenomenon for creating happiness on the planet (Pearce, 2007). Positive psychology, with its focus on happiness, therefore holds a lot of promise for tourism.

Positive Psychology and Happiness

According to Seligman et al. (2005), clinical psychology has, until recently, been guided by the need to reduce suffering and has thus focused on curing human ills and depression. Although such research is valuable to both researchers and practitioners, a psychological understanding of human happiness, designed to shed more light on prevention of those same illnesses, is at least as valuable (Linley, Joseph, Harrington, & Wood, 2006). Positive psychology, with a focus on understanding happiness, is clearly relevant to human satisfaction. Overall happiness is said to depend much on satisfaction in different life domains, one of which is leisure travel (Glatzer, 2000).

Positive psychology is founded on the pioneering work of Maslow (1954, 1962), Erikson (1963, 1982), Deci and Ryan (1985), and Ryff and Singer (1996), amongst others. Mainstream and prominent psychologists from around the world have embraced this field in the last decade and particularly in the last five years (Seligman et al., 2005). Research blocks, such as the European and Asian Networks of Positive Psychology, have emerged in addition to strong research clusters in North America (Linley et al., 2006). There is the Australian Centre on Quality of Life, which is affiliated with global positive psychology networks (Deakin University, 2007). The research field is also gaining increasing media attention in Africa and South America (Hashmi, 2005; The Tide Online, 2006). Positive psychology has become part of various cross-

disciplinary initiatives on understanding well-being and some recent initiatives in the management field (Center for Positive Organizational Scholarship, 2007).

This research area does not propose to provide a miracle formula for human happiness (Pearce, 2007; Snyder & Lopez, 2002); however, it does propose that happiness can be measured adequately by self-reports. Several standard measures have been shown to be quite valid and reasonably reliable, although not always very precise (Diener, 1995; Veenhoven, 2003a). It is argued that happiness is a conscious state of mind that people can talk or write about (Veenhoven, 1991) and that an imperfect measurement is better than no measurement at all (Veenhoven, 2003b).

To date, few analyses of positive psychology have been conducted in the tourism field (Filep, 2007). This lack of attention is somewhat surprising. There has been talk within the tourism industry about the business of happiness as “the next big thing” (Travel Impact Newswire, 2007) and clusters of research have emerged in the area of experience economy in tourism (Nijs, 2007) based on the seminal work of Pine and Gilmore (1998). Consumer well-being is becoming an increasingly important topic in this field (Nijs, 2007). In addition, there is a growing interest in research streams such as spa and wellness tourism (Smith & Kelly, 2006), quality of life through tourism (Puckso, 2006), an aligned interest in self-transformational outcomes of travel (Noy, 2004; White & White, 2004), and a renewed interest in the notion of existential authenticity (Hom Cary, 2004; Steiner & Reisinger, 2006). Furthermore, tourism today is preoccupied with the issue of sustainability and is becoming increasingly engaged with its social and individual dimensions (Hall & Brown, 2006). It therefore appears appropriate to investigate the ideas of positive psychology in the context of tourist satisfaction.

Measuring Tourist Satisfaction

Within the last decade, tourist satisfaction research has received a fair share of criticism from a number of influential tourism scholars (Crompton & Love, 1995; Pearce, 2005; Ryan, 1995). The most dominant school of thought on tourist satisfaction is the North American tradition (Pearce, 2005). Here, tourist satisfaction has often been linked to service quality and is typically evaluated through questionnaires (Cronin & Taylor, 1994; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988; Truong, 2005). Service quality is an important aspect of tourist satisfaction and its quantitative measures are well liked by the industry because they are straightforward and easy to administer. These measures typically consider satisfaction in terms of the gap between performance and expectations (Pearce, 2005).

One of the difficulties with the service quality approach is its preoccupation with expectations as a determining factor in tourist satisfaction. This is problematic because tourist expectations may change (Ryan, 1995) and they may be ambiguous or uncertain (Crompton & Love, 1995; Mazursky, 1989). Occasionally, tourists may not have any expectations prior to their experiences and may be driven by an element of surprise (Pearce, 2005). Babakus and Boller (1992) reported that customer expectations are generally rated very highly because of the need to preserve self-esteem and ego.

Further problems have been identified with the use of the performance-expectation discrepancy as a measure. For example, Teas (1993) noted that on a 7-point scale, a score of-2 could result when expectations are very high (7) and the performance is moderate (5). The-2 score could also be obtained when the expectations are modest (4) and the performance is rated as fairly poor (2). The two values of-2 are problematic. Pearce (2005) asked, “Is it likely that customers with the higher expectations and moderate outcomes are as satisfied as those with modest expectations and quite inferior outcomes?” (p. 170).

Thirdly, service quality measures tend to be reflective, post-hoc measures. Mannell and Iso-Ihola (1987) pointed out that satisfaction is both a post-hoc evaluation and an immediate conscious process, but service quality measures tend to be focused only on the former.

Lastly, this approach does not shed light on long-term satisfaction (i.e., personal growth derived from the tourist experience). This type of satisfaction is often called *eudaimonia* and has thus far received very limited attention by tourist satisfaction researchers (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004).

Therefore, four key problems have been noted in this dominant tourist satisfaction approach: (a) the focus on expectations as a major influence on satisfaction; (b) the inability of the scales to adequately measure the gap between expectations and performance; (c) the focus on evaluating satisfaction in entirely reflective, post-hoc terms; and (d) the inability of the approach to shed light on eudaimonia. Some authors (Barsky & Nash, 2002; Wirtz & Bateson, 1999) have also argued that the dominant approach focuses on cognitive dimensions of satisfaction without much attention to its affective (or emotional) elements.

Positive psychology offers a new perspective on tourist satisfaction by linking satisfaction to happiness. As in the smaller, Nordic tradition (Applegate & Clarke, 1987; Black & Rutledge,

1996; Kozak, 2001), this way of evaluating satisfaction is not linked to expectations. Flow state measures, such as the Experience Sampling Method (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), can be used to evaluate satisfaction based on immediate conscious processes (Schimmack, 2003), rather than reflective, post-hoc evaluations. The methods used in positive psychology can also be used to evaluate the eudaimonic (Ryan & Deci, 2001) and affective dimensions of satisfaction (Fredrickson, 2001).

Tourist Engagement and the Concept of Flow

Seligman et al. (2005) identified three core themes from the literature relating to happiness: engagement (losing the self in engaging activities); positive emotions (experiencing and savoring pleasures); and meaning (participating in meaningful activities). Their review suggests that engagement is key in determining happiness and satisfaction. This concept of engagement closely resembles Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) concept of “flow” (Duckworth et al., 2005; Seligman et al., 2005). Duckworth et al. defined *flow* as “the experience associated with engaging one's highest strengths and talents to meet just-doable challenges” (2005, p. 638). When a person is in flow, everything comes together for him/her and the person is totally involved in the activity at hand. The experience is highly rewarding in itself (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Hence, flow is not only an engaging state, but also a deeply satisfying state. Jackson and Eklund (2004, p. 5) stated that “flow represents optimal experience, and Csikszentmihalyi (1990) uses these two terms interchangeably”.

According to Jackson (1996), flow has nine dimensions, which Csikszentmihalyi (1990, p. 48) describes as “elements of enjoyment”:

- Challenge-skill balance (there is a match between perceived skills and challenges)
- Action-awareness merging (deep involvement leads to automaticity and spontaneity; there is no awareness of self as separate from the actions one is performing)
- Clear goals (there is a strong sense of what one is going to do)
- Unambiguous feedback (clear and immediate feedback that the person is doing his/her activity well and is succeeding in his/her goal)
- Concentration on task (total concentration on the task at hand)
- Sense of control (sense of exercising control without actively trying to be in control)
- Loss of self-consciousness (concern for the self disappears and the person becomes one with the activity)
- Time transformation (time disorientation or a loss of time awareness)

- Autotelic experience (an intrinsically rewarding experience involving a sense of deep enjoyment).

Jackson has identified these flow dimensions in elite athletes. The nine dimensions have been similarly described in music, games, religious rituals, and other creative activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), in various sports (Jackson & Eklund, 2002; 2004; Jackson & Marsh, 1996; Phillips, 2005), while playing chess and dancing (Jackson & Eklund, 2004), and in work settings, particularly in reading and writing contexts (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

In visitor studies, the dimensions have been linked to Beardsley's (1982) aesthetic experience concept. The aesthetic experience is a peak visual experience characterized by the following key dimensions (Beardsley, 1982; Csikszentmihalyi & Robinson, 1991):

- Object focus (the person willingly invests attention in a visual stimulus)
- Felt freedom (the person feels a sense of harmony that pre-empts everyday concerns and is experienced as freedom)
- Detached affect (the experience is not taken literally—e.g., in the case of art)
- Active discovery (a cognitive involvement in the challenges presented by a stimulus and a feeling of excitement from that involvement)
- Wholeness (the person has a feeling of self-acceptance and self-expansion).

Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson argued that the concepts of “flow” and the “aesthetic experience” describe a very similar state of mind. They suggested that (a) the flow dimension of merging of action and awareness resembles Beardsley's (1982) object focus; (b) the time transformation from flow is similar to felt freedom; (c) the loss of self-consciousness is comparable to detached affect; (d) the challenge-skills balance and the sense of control resemble active discovery; and (e) the clear goals and unambiguous feedback dimension link with the concept of wholeness. These links are important because they suggest that the flow concept could be applied to tourist or visitor experiences.

Measuring Flow

The flow dimensions are typically evaluated through the Experience Sampling Method (ESM), Dispositional Flow State Scale (DFS), Flow State Scale (FSS), and Flow Interviews. ESM usually requires a signalling device that directs participants at random times to complete a

questionnaire (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989). The questions are linked to the respondent's momentary situation and psychological state. ESM has therefore been used to study cognitive as well as affective dimensions of experience. A related *in situ* measure is the self-initiated tape-recording method (SITRM), which has been used in leisure research (Lee, Dattilo, & Howard, 1994). In this case, respondents are issued a tape-recorder and have to verbally respond to a set of questions during a leisure activity or immediately after an event. Today, this method would often involve the use of digital voice recorders following a similar procedure. The two *in situ* measures have been used widely to measure flow in different contexts (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Schimmack, 2003; Scollon, Kim-Prieto, & Diener, 2003) but have two key limitations: alterations of experience due to respondents' participation in studies during their visitor experiences and subsequent lack of compliance with the self-administration (Stewart & Hull, 1996).

The FSS and DFS, respectively, assess flow experiences within a particular event and the dispositional tendency to experience flow in an activity (Jackson & Eklund, 2002, 2004; Jackson & Marsh, 1996). The scales are based on the general ESM principle of measuring reactions to an experience or an activity. However, they have an advantage of being designed in a way that allows respondents to fill them out immediately after their experience as opposed to during the experience (Jackson & Eklund, 2004). Hence, no signalling device is necessary and the problem of the alteration of the experience may be minimised. Compliance may also be greater than with a traditional ESM approach. Visitors could be asked to fill out the scales in front of researchers following their site visit, possibly increasing the chances of participation. When combined with the in-depth interview method (Jackson, 1996), these scales may offer powerful measurements of flow.

In the in-depth interview approach, respondents are typically asked to describe an experience that stands out as being better than average in an activity in which they normally participate (Jackson, 1996, 1992).The interviewees are then given three quotes to orient their attention to flow. More specific questions about the dimensions of flow can then be asked.

Flow can also be measured in a more reflective manner through personal stories. Such evaluations of flow are useful for investigating the complex state through positive reminiscing (Molinari & Reichlin, 1985; Thornton & Brotchie, 1987) rather than investigating flow in terms of immediate conscious processes. Theoretical justification for such an approach can be found in

studies in mysticism where personal stories are often used as principal sources of data on peak or transformational experiences (Brainard, 1996; Forman, 1993; Jantzen, 1988).

The present study used personal stories to evaluate visitor engagement, and hence satisfaction, using the flow model.

Method

This study was the third of three related studies conducted with Australian study-abroad students. The first was a motivation study (Filep & Greenacre, 2007) where motivation themes of relationship/belonging, curiosity/mental stimulation, self-development, and safety/comfort were identified. The unpublished second study was an idiographic analysis of the travellers' on-site experiences at Spanish cultural heritage sites using the DFS and FSS scales, Flow Interviews, and observational methods. The third study concludes the story of the students' year-long travel experience with personal narrative essays.

- **Participants**

Ten male and 10 female students from the University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) were invited to participate in the study, and all 20 agreed. The students were 18-35 years old and had just completed a Bachelor of Arts in International Studies component of their degree, which they were required to combine with their primary degree in Business, Tourism Management, Communications, Engineering, and other disciplines. The students all chose fictional names by which to be identified to ease the interpretation process and differentiate men from women.

The convenience sample was chosen because I am familiar with the content and the structure of the Spanish UTS study-abroad program and the coordinator of the program agreed that the study be conducted. The students were informed of the objectives, procedures, and data analysis techniques in a consent form and an information sheet. Participation in the study was entirely voluntary.

- **Instrument Design and Data Collection**

Data were collected during a de-briefing workshop for the students following their return to Australia after a one-year study abroad experience in Spain. An essay writing task was used because the student group was familiar with essay writing for academic assessment purposes. Other qualitative methods, such as in-depth interviews, would not have allowed for such spontaneity of expression (Stamou & Paraskevopoulos, 2003). The use of personal narrative

essays also reduced the potential for researcher bias as there was no need for probing and structured questions.

The students were asked to describe two memorable experiences from their year in Spain and to write about their feelings and thoughts. Following Jackson's (1996) suggestions for conducting flow interviews, the students were given two quotes to orient their attention to flow:

I was in Venice watching a theatre performance: “My mind wasn't wandering and I wasn't thinking of something else. I almost felt like I was part of the performance. My body felt great and I didn't seem to be easily distracted by other people.The world seemed kind of cut off from me. I was definitely less aware of myself and my problems while at the theatre”

and

I was visiting my friend in Portugal. He lives in the country: “I focused my attention at these wheat fields at the back of his house. This was definitely no ordinary landscape! The wheat was changing colour as the sun was going down. I could see mountains far back in the horizon. The air was fresh and crisp but I felt warm and at ease. I didn't want to be anywhere else. I thought I could stay there staring at those fields forever. My friend was talking to me, but I didn't seem to hear him. He later on told me how he kept on repeating his question 5 times but I didn't even notice.”

The quotes contained descriptions of flow dimensions such as time alteration, complete focus, action-awareness merging, challenge-skill balance, sense of control, and loss of self-consciousness. The first quote has been used by Csikszentmihalyi (1975) and other flow researchers (Fave & Massimini, 1988; Han, 1988; Jackson, 1992, 1996) in qualitative studies to orient people's attention to flow. I prepared the second quote specifically for this study to illustrate the experience of flow in the context of a fulfilling visual tourist experience. The references to the out of ordinary landscape, the changing colors of the wheat fields, the sunset and the mountains combined with feelings of ease and comfort resemble the autotelic experience dimension. The notion of staring at the fields forever represents time transformation, and the idea of not hearing the friend represents total involvement in the visual stimuli similar to object focus from the aesthetic experience or total concentration from flow (Cskiszentmihalyi, 1990).

These orientation quotes gave the students an idea on how to proceed with their narratives. The quotes did not specifically relate to visitor contexts in Spain, in order not to lead the respondents. The key difference between Jackson's (1996) flow interview and this technique is that in these personal narrative essays the respondents were not oriented toward flow beyond the quotes. They were encouraged to be highly descriptive and spontaneous in their reflections and were not made aware of the nine dimensions of flow. The students were provided with two blank pages to write about their travel experiences. After 30 minutes, the essays were collected from the students. Three of the students were able to describe only one memorable story. Thus a total of 37 rather than 40 personal stories were analyzed.

- **Data Analysis**

The essays were analyzed using commonly used conceptual or thematic content analysis (Berelson, 1952; Veal, 2005). A research colleague was asked to code the essays based on the nine dimensions of flow. I then coded the essays independently, without referring to the original codes. Any overlapping themes or coding differences were discussed and the dimensions further refined. This procedure ensured congruence in the findings even though it was acknowledged that researchers often "draw upon their own interpretative resources to make sense of what the person is saying" (Smith & Osborn, 2003, p. 72).

Results and Discussion

Each dimension of flow was evaluated separately, as in Jackson's (1996) and Rettie's (2001) studies. The aim of this study was not to ascertain whether each traveller was in flow or not during their memorable experience. Rather, the objective was to use the flow model to analyze how the participants experienced satisfactory, engaging moments. In this way, the flow dimensions provided a way of studying engagement and hence satisfaction.

- **Challenge-Skill Balance**

In sports, this dimension often refers to a set desired outcome and certain level of physical skills required to meet this outcome, such as winning a 100-meter race (Begly, 1979; Fletcher, 2002). For visitor settings, the issue of active discovery (one of the elements of the aesthetic experience that overlaps with the challenge-skill balance) is more relevant. The crux of the notion of active discovery is that the person becomes cognitively involved in the challenges presented by the stimulus and derives a sense of exhilaration from the involvement.

This is how Sarah talks about her active discovery when she arrived at an art performance at her flatmate's studio:

To walk into the studio was like walking into another world. A dark, huge area like some forgotten attic. Pictures and artwork at every turn and people sitting in their places creating art. That feeling was the feeling of tapping into some little treasure and knowing all its charms.

The phrases “another world” and “knowing all its charms” particularly point to the notion of active discovery. In a similar way, Mary expresses her active discovery in a mountain village in southern Spain:

The view was of untouched forests and yellow ground simmering under the hot summer sun. In a region where the majority of land is used up for olive groves this was a rare sight.

Other students wrote about the challenge-skill balance in more general contexts of overcoming the language and cultural barriers. These descriptions involved cognitive efforts of conversing in another language and interacting with different cultural groups and feelings of joy and delight from being able to meet these cognitive demands. Brian says:

I felt more uninhibited being able to enjoy the music with other Barcelonians and was able to communicate in Spanish and Catalan with the friendly people I met.

Lisa provides the following reflection of the challenge-skill balance:

To be a foreigner in a foreign city is not always a pleasant experience yet my experience of integrating into my new home for the year, learning the language and meeting strangers and discovering the city's secrets was entirely a positive one.

This dimension featured in 23 of the 37 stories (62%). The challenge-skills balance dimension featured in at least one story for 16 out of the 20 students. The dimension was roughly equally represented in the stories of both genders.

- **Action-Awareness Merging**

The action-awareness merging dimension was also present in the personal essays. Amanda talks about her experience during the Semana Santa (Easter) festival:

Suddenly, the Virgin Mary came into view, a climax to the drumming, swaying as if alive, decked in golden robes, glimmering. That moment of appearance was quite spectacular, the crowd starting to clap, me joining in the fervour, caught up in the moment.

The key phrase of relevance is “caught up in the moment”, which suggests a brief loss of awareness. In a similar way, Lisa talks about her loss of awareness at a concert in Barcelona:

Something made me get up from my comfortable grassy position and held fearlessly towards these bright lights and surging sound waves. Next thing I knew I had been sucked into the crowd like a flailing animal in a pit of quick sand. I soon stopped struggling and let myself be propelled forward through the sweaty bodies and waving arms towards the pulsating speakers.

Of particular relevance are the phrases: “something made me get up” and “next thing I knew” suggesting that action and awareness merged at that moment. In addition, Lucy talks about becoming one with the landscape that surrounded her. She says:

My friends and I set up camp, laid out on blankets eating, drinking but talking very little. It was as if though the stillness of the place had seeped into us.

The key words are “seeped into us”, suggesting the mental integration of the landscape with the person.

This dimension was uncovered in 13 of the 37 stories (35%). The dimension featured in at least one story in 8 out of the 20 respondents. Interestingly, 7 of these 8 were women.

- **Clear Goals**

According to the research conducted by Jackson and Eklund (2004) in sports settings, the clarity of purpose or goal setting “occurs on a moment-by-moment basis, keeping the performer fully connected to the task and responsive to appropriate cues” (p. 8). The clear goals dimension was identified in 16 of the 37 stories (43%). It was described in at least one memorable experience by 12 out of the 20 students. The dimension featured in the stories of both genders (7 female and 5 male stories). Brian says:

I was in Razzmatazz watching a DJ performance. I went there with a few other ICS Australian students to see a particular dj—planning on a fun night of dancing, smoking and drinking.

Amanda also clearly states her goals:

I visited friends in the Canary Islands over summer and participated with them in a Romeria festival to honour the local statue of the Virgin Mary.

Rebecca says:

This experience was unplanned, knowing only that I wanted to explore the nature of this place and see how mountains and sea combined.

These participants had clarity of purpose. Brian was committed to seeing a DJ, Amanda wanted to honor the statue and participate in the festival, and Rebecca wanted to see how the mountains and the sea combined in Asturias. It is not evident that the clarity of purpose was present on a moment-by-moment basis. However, the 12 students who reported this dimension had an overall clarity of purpose for their travel experience. The clear goals should not be confused with expectations. There is no evidence the students had expectations on how those goals would be fulfilled.

- **Unambiguous Feedback**

For athletes, unambiguous feedback is thought of as an unarticulated self-reassurance that each body part is moving in an optimal way. In visitor contexts, the dimension is linked to the aesthetic experience concept of wholeness, that is, a sense of personal integration and self-expansion (Beardsley, 1982; Csikszentmihalyi & Robinson, 1990). This is how Gavin talks about this personal integration and self-expansion during his visit to Gaudi Park:

The park itself was full of amazing surprises—Gaudi's ingenuity—it was so nice to stand among the creations especially as they were built to be shared by the community—a place for oneself, while being collective. I enjoyed looking at the colours and the lopsidedness of his creations. I spent the whole morning here.

The key phrase is “a place for oneself, while being collective”, which describes the notion of personal integration and self-expansion. Brenda's unambiguous feedback seems to have occurred when she was confronted with a magic view of Granada:

I walked into the town and marvelled at the mountains that provided a beautiful backdrop to the city. It looked like a painting and gave me a spring in my step and made me smile.

She felt connected with the beautiful image and at that moment she knew she was experiencing satisfaction. This was her unambiguous feedback.

However, this dimension did not feature prominently in the stories. It was uncovered in only 9 of the 37 stories (24%) and was mentioned by only 8 separate respondents. The dimension featured more in female stories (6 out of 8 essays).

- **Total Concentration**

The total concentration dimension resembles the object focus element from the aesthetic experience. The students mentioned a focus on stimuli of various forms. The stimuli often included a performance, a landscape or a particular building. This is how Brenda describes her focus on the Alhambra palace:

I visited the Alhambra with my mum—it was amazing to see the remains of this society. I was in awe of this structure and lamented the loss of this creative culture.

The idea of being “in awe” suggests interest and focus on the object. Similarly, Amanda talks about her focus on the statue of Virgin Mary:

We dressed in the traditional local costume of the region and I followed the statue for 8 hours as we descended from the hill down to the village.

Others used words like *captivated* or *engrossed* to describe their object focus. Jason says:

I was in a square in Barcelona which was extremely beautiful and because it was so beautiful I was very engrossed in it.

The dimension was mentioned by 9 students (4 men and 5 women). It featured in 12 out of 37 of the stories (32%).

- **Sense of Control**

This dimension was not identified in the essays. Csikszentmihalyi and Robinson (1990) have merged this dimension with the concept of skill-challenge balance and related both concepts to

the above-mentioned active discovery notion (Beardsley, 1982). It appears that in visitor contexts, active discovery may effectively account for both dimensions. In sports settings, sense of control is often described as a sense of infallibility or unshatterable self-esteem when performing in flow. These experiences may be less relevant in more passive activities such as sightseeing.

- **Loss of Self-Consciousness**

In lay terms, loss of self-consciousness can be thought of as loss of ego and not worrying about how others perceive actions. Gavin talks about his experience at Gaudi Park:

I took my time to walk up the hill, not thinking, just looking at what was around me. My favourite feeling was just being separated from the world—or more—just being separated from my world—stresses, people, places.

These references to separation and “not thinking” are crucial here. Loss of self-consciousness is about being “free of the voices within our head that question whether we are living up to the standards that we perceive are important to be met” (Jackson & Eklund, 2004, p. 11). The women similarly expressed their loss of self-consciousness. Lisa's experience at a concert in Barcelona is a good example of the loss of self consciousness. Lisa says:

Next thing I knew I had been sucked into the crowd like a flailing animal in a pit of quick sand. I soon stopped struggling and let myself be propelled forward through the sweaty bodies.

The notion of letting herself be propelled or the idea of stopping to struggle indicates that Lisa was not concerned about how others perceived her at that moment. She did not worry about her image at that moment. She experienced a loss of self-consciousness.

This dimension was identified in 12 out of 37 (32%) of the stories, and at least once in 8 out of the 20 students (4 men and 4 women).

- **Transformation of Time**

In Rettie's (2001) qualitative analysis of flow amongst Internet users, a common perception was that hours could be spent browsing the web without realizing it. Similarly, in sports settings there is often a perception that time either slows or that it seems to pass more quickly than expected (Marsh & Jackson, 1999). In this study, however, there was very little evidence of this dimension

in the students' accounts. This is how Mary explains her feelings of how time slowed during her stay with friends at a mountain village in southern Spain:

It was as though we felt like we'd been given all the time in the world.

Peter also expresses his transformation of time during his memorable visit to a village in Galicia:

It was a far cry from the bustle of a city, even a small one like Granada. It was a place made to just watch time go by.

This dimension featured in only 8 out of the 37 stories (21%), and only 3 women and 3 men reported this dimension.

- **Autotelic Experience**

The last dimension uncovered was autotelic experience. Once experienced, flow becomes a very desirable state and is an enjoyable experience that one is motivated to return to (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). The word *autotelic* is derived from the Greek word that means doing something for its own sake, and this dimension is considered to be the result of the other eight elements (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). Following Jackson and Eklund's (2004) suggestions, words such as *rush* or *buzz* were searched for, in addition to phrases that resemble these words. As the autotelic experience is the result of the other dimensions, it was often discovered in the concluding paragraphs of the essays.

This is how Nora expresses her autotelic experience after a Christmas Eve party at her friends' place:

It was a terrific night spent with the people I'd come to know over the year—people from all over the world. And this aspect is what I stopped and pondered a number of times through the night. This night epitomised the cultural mix that coloured every experience this year. That is what I loved about it.

Jessica remembers her multicultural dining experience in a similar way:

I knew that I would never experience anything like that again and that it would be a memorable experience for everyone there.

Similarly, George sums up his autotelic travel experience:

It was more than just joyful and lively, more than just relaxing and I just didn't need to think as there was nothing to worry about.

The phrases such as “terrific night”, “anything like that” and “more than joyful and lively” all describe a very desirable state that one is motivated to return to. The phrases thus describe autotelic experiences.

Evidence of this dimension was found in 19 out of 37 stories (51%) and reported by 11 out of 20 participants (5 men and 6 women). Thus, together with the challenge-skills balance and the clear goals, this dimension featured prominently in the stories of the student travellers. The number of stories containing evidence of each of the nine dimensions of flow (in descending order of prevalence) is reported in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Flow dimensions (out of 37 stories)

Flow dimension	Number of stories	%
1-Challenge-skill balance	23	62
2-Autotelic experience	19	51
3-Clear goals	16	43
4-Action-awareness merging	13	35
5-Loss of self-consciousness	12	32
6-Total concentration	12	32
7-Unambiguous feedback	9	24
8-Transformation of time	8	21
9-Sense of control	0	0

- **Evidence of Eudaimonia and Surprise**

Two additional themes were identified—eudaimonia and surprise. *Eudaimonism* is an ethical theory that calls people to recognize and to live in accordance with the daimon or “true self” (Norton, 1976). Waterman (1993) stated, “The daimon is an ideal in the sense of being an excellence, a perfection toward which one strives and, hence, it can give meaning and direction to one's life. Efforts to live in accordance with the daimon, to realize those potentials (self-realization), give rise to a condition termed eudaimonia” (p. 678).

Eudaimonia therefore closely resembles the notions of personal growth, meaning and self-actualization (Waterman, 1993). Eudaimonia was identified in 20 out of 37 stories (54%) and 12 out 20 respondents (6 men and 6 women).

Steven says:

Within this very old and quiet place, I was able to relax and realise there is more to this world than the materialism we at times bind ourselves to in our daily life.

Similarly, Alma ends her memorable restaurant experience with:

This whole experience of enjoyment in food and friends was particularly Spain and absolutely unforgettable.

Mike states:

I came to know Spain better than I ever had before.

Clearly, there was evidence of what it meant to be in Spain or what Spain meant to the students suggesting personal growth. For Steven, the engaging experience led him to conclude that there is more to life than materialism, again suggesting deep personal meaning. Although explorations of eudaimonia are very new to tourism (Pearce, 2005), the links between flow dimensions and eudaimonia have been established empirically prior to this study (Moneta, 2004). However, eudaimonia may be evaluated in more depth through studies of personal meaning (Seligman et al., 2005).

Surprise was uncovered in 22 out of 37 stories (60%) and reported by 13 out of 20 students. Amanda's encounter with the Virgin Mary is again of relevance:

I had no idea of what to expect, making the Virgin's sudden appearance all the more unexpected and dramatic.

Susan also mentions her surprise during a memorable meal:

It was a beautiful dinner in a fancy restaurant and the speeches by our friends really brought home the strong bonds we have made this year. I guess I was surprised by the emotion in the room especially coming from the males.

These references to sudden and unexpected events suggest an element of surprise. This dimension featured more in women's stories. Only 4 of the 13 students who mentioned surprise were men. The surprise element remains to be explored in far more detail in different studies. Table 5.2 reports the number of stories containing evidence of each of these two additional themes—eudaimonia and surprise.

Table 5.2 Additional themes (out of 37 stories)

Additional theme	Number	%
1-Surprise	22	60
2-Eudaimonia	20	54

Conclusions

The objective of the study was to use the flow model to see how the participants experienced satisfactory, engaging moments. Engagement was primarily expressed through the challenge-skill balance dimension (or the closely linked aesthetic dimension, active discovery) and the autotelic experience dimension with more than 50% of the stories featuring these dimensions. This study shows that tourist satisfaction is partially a product of these dimensions as well as eudaimonia and surprise. Both eudaimonia and surprise need to be investigated further.

The key difference between genders was that the men were less articulate in their descriptions than the females. This gender finding is congruent with a similar study on positive reminiscing of college students (Bryant, Smart, & King, 2005) that suggested that young women were better at expressing their positive memories.

The flow dimensions were expressed in the essays without probing (except for the orientation quotes). The essay method allowed for a more spontaneous and possibly more authentic representation of engagement than other methods for investigating flow. However, the essay method is not necessarily better than other methods in investigating visitor engagement. Through in-depth interviews, each flow dimension could have been explored in more detail, and more evidence of the flow dimensions may have been uncovered. Using the experience sampling method may have allowed engagement to be evaluated as an immediate conscious process (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Engagement could also be assessed through non-flow related methods.

Nonetheless, the essays proved useful in presenting a new layer of satisfaction that could not have been discovered through traditional approaches that focus on service quality. The study has shown how tourist satisfaction is experienced through a satisfaction method based in positive psychology. The evidence of challenge-skill balance, autotelic experience, eudaimonia, and surprise is based on only 37 stories by 20 travellers. Yet these themes do feature in the tourists' satisfaction accounts and demonstrate that tourist satisfaction is much more than service quality. In line with Packer's (2008) findings on the outcomes and benefits of a museum visit, this study has shown that well being is central to visitor satisfaction. The engagement study has demonstrated that aspects of flow produce highly satisfactory outcomes for visitors.

Two key future research opportunities have emerged from this study for understanding engagement through flow. Firstly, there is an opportunity to examine physical manifestations of the flow dimensions. In this study, a number of participants referred to increased heart rate, sweating, and excess body temperature as physical manifestations of their satisfactory and engaging experiences. Future research can examine how these manifestations are perceived by visitors. Secondly, this study did not investigate factors inhibiting flow. Possible inhibitors include excess noise, excess crowding in visitor settings, respondents' physical health, mood at the time of the experience, or individual personalities. There is room for further research that would seek to understand the likely inhibiting factors of engagement in visitor settings.

More importantly, engagement should be explored concurrently with meaning and positive emotions so that the value of Seligman et al.'s (2005) model as a whole can be examined. Meaning can be studied through long, in-depth interviews and written narratives about significant life events, life transitions or periods of struggle of which travel is often part (Noy, 2004) or through the Purpose in Life Test (Crumbaugh & Maholick, 1969). This test is a unidimensional measure of how meaningful a person perceives his or her life to be. Positive emotions could be measured through emotion wheels (Pearce, 2007), or a set of scales based on Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build-theory of positive emotions. Lastly, the model needs to be tested in larger studies where cross-cultural differences can be explored.

Museums and other visitor managers could use the happiness measures to evaluate visitor satisfaction. To evaluate post-hoc satisfaction, focus groups, questionnaires, interviews, or narrative essays based on the flow dimensions could be used with diverse groups of visitors. For evaluating immediate satisfaction, hand held personal data assistants (PDAs) could be used to assess momentary reactions to museum exhibits. The PDAs are not expensive. Their cost is

normally around $100 U.S. dollars per item (Scollon et al., 2003). Where appropriate, these engagement measures could be combined with positive emotions scales and measures of meaning. The happiness model (engagement—positive emotions—meaning) is considered an effective alternative to service quality models in evaluating, appreciating, and ultimately increasing visitor satisfaction.

About the Author

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……END OF PAPER……

Final Statement

The article offered a way forward but did not present solid conclusions. A general conclusion can nevertheless be drawn that is similar to the conclusion drawn in chapter 4. Traditional and dominant tourist satisfaction approaches can and should be embellished by new approaches from disciplines outside tourism studies. Positive psychology ideas on post hoc and immediate satisfaction hold much promise for better understanding tourists' satisfaction with a holiday and ultimately their happiness.

These relatively novel happiness satisfaction approaches are also interesting to tourism practitioners and managers. The interest sometimes comes from managers outside the museum and tourist attraction management fields. In a recent e-mail correspondence, David Hoare, retail director of a large chain of pubs and restaurants in the United Kingdom, made the following remarks: "I am actively exploring how to create the context for flow in the design of service style, restaurant and menu (D. Hoare, personal communication, October 10, 2007)." There are, however, many more examples of the industry's interest, as shown in the Introduction and the Literature review.

The following and last chapter of the thesis discusses ideas for future research into flow and positive psychology among other ideas. The conclusion also reports on the conceptual contribution of the three empirical studies from this chapter and chapters 3 and 4. It presents an exploratory picture of tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology, based on the studies' findings.

Chapter 6 Conclusions and Future Directions

Aims	The aim of this final chapter is to synthesise the knowledge contribution made in this thesis. A further aim is to outline the limitations of the PhD project and present ideas for future studies.
Chapter Structure	To meet these aims the chapter is divided into the following sections: the knowledge contribution, parameters of the contribution (the limitations), and the future studies section which presents both project related and topic related ideas for future research. The chapter ends with a closing statement which emphasises the value of exploring the relationships between travel and happiness.
Conclusions	It is found that the tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology is a product of travel motivations for relationships and belonging, safety and comfort, curiosity and mental stimulation and a motive for personal development. The tourists' happiness is also about on-site experiences characterised by time transformation, calm and tranquillity, discovery, mindfulness and personal connections. Finally, tourists' happiness consists of memorable experiences which are characterised by eudaimonia, intrinsically rewarding (autotelic) events and challenges and skills during those experiences. These findings come from chapters 3, 4 and 5. Future studies are needed to test the robustness of this exploratory picture.

Knowledge Contribution

The three main studies outlined in this thesis have established the travel motives for the group, identified the immediate conscious satisfaction themes of the student travellers and uncovered the reflective satisfaction themes from their memorable travel experiences. By ascertaining the travel motives in the anticipatory phase and by evaluating the immediate and post hoc satisfaction, an exploratory picture of the tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology has emerged. It is now possible to fill out the happiness table from the introductory chapter by placing some of the findings from the three main studies next to the three dimensions of happiness with illustrative quotes for some of the themes. Although exploratory, this picture forms the knowledge contribution of the thesis together with the results from the studies.

Table 6.1: Tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology

Happiness	Anticipation	On-site Experiences	Reflections
Positive Emotions **love, interest, joy, contentment**	***relationship/ belonging (love):*** *"My perfect day would be to enjoy a typical Spanish day, living as a local would in Santander…We would live by their typical timetable and enjoy a beautiful local meal."* ***safety/comfort (contentment):*** *"I would hopefully wake up in a clean, well furnished apartment."*	***time transformation/ calm/tranquillity (contentment)*** ***discovery (interest)*** *"I was standing outside and looking at the cathedral. Every time I'm there I see things that I haven't seen before. So I can look at something and I find things. I discover things there. One of my favourite aspects today was the fact that there was someone playing the organ and there were practicing their scales on the organ. We don't have that in Sydney, they were just practicing. It was like a normal thing."*	
Engagement	***curiosity/mental stimulation:*** "*An afternoon siesta would follow, then out again in the early afternoon to take in some local culture, perhaps a movie, play or theatre"*	***concentration/object focus:*** *"Because the stuff I was seeing was so intense and so visual, you didn't notice anything at all…A complete and utter focus on what I was seeing and what I was reading."* ***challenge-skill balance/mindfulness***	***challenge-skill balance:*** *"To be a foreigner in a foreign city is not always a pleasant experience yet my experience of integrating into my new home for the year, learning the language and meeting strangers and discovering the city's secrets was entirely a positive one".*
Meaning	***self-development:*** *"I love the idea of being independent in my daily activities such as shopping, cooking, etc. I have lived with my family all of my life…Although I am aware of possible culture shock, I hope to find ways of overcoming this"*	***personal experiences/autotelic experiences***	***eudaimonia; autotelic experiences:*** *"Within this very old and quiet place, I was able to relax and realise there is more to this world than the materialism we at times bind ourselves to in our daily life."*

- **Anticipation**

The motivation study identified four core travel motives for the student group: 1) relationship/belonging; 2) safety/comfort; 3) curiosity/mental stimulation and 4) self-development. These motives were uncovered through the descriptions of perfect days in Spain. This emic approach is used in positive psychology to evaluate human motivation. The value of the approach to understanding tourist motivation was strengthened. This was done through a control study which identified very similar travel motivations using a quantitative approach.

The following quotes demonstrate how the travel motives were expressed in the students' essays:

1) relationship/belonging

"*My perfect day would be to enjoy a typical Spanish day, living as a local would in Santander. I would like to spend the day with Spaniards and feel comfortable and confident speaking Spanish with them*. *We would live by their typical timetable and enjoy a beautiful local meal.*"

This motive resembles the positive emotion of love which is defined as experiencing interest, contentment and joy within close relationships. Interest refers to curiosity about new things in life and there is a clear curiosity about the Spanish way of life. Contentment refers to sitting back and savouring current circumstances and the notion of "living as a local" and having a "typical Spanish day" fits this feeling of contentment. Joy is about playing and savouring moments and the tourist clearly mentions the idea of enjoying a beautiful meal or enjoying a typical Spanish day. The fact that there is an urge to experience interest, contentment and joy within close relationships can be seen through yearning to be with Spaniards, to live by their timetable and to enjoy local meals together with them. The singular "I" thus changes to the plural "we". The travel motive of relationship and belonging therefore is similar to the positive emotion of love. In other words when the tourists wrote that they wanted to build relationships and belonging in Spain, they were actually expressing their love for the Spanish culture and for the people who facilitate them in loving this Spanish way of life.

2) safety/comfort

"*I'd have a room in a three bedroom share house and the area I live in would be the equivalent of Newtown/ Erskineville in Sydney*. *I would hopefully wake up in a clean, well furnished apartment."*

A link to the positive emotion of contentment can be drawn here. This positive emotion of savouring current circumstances has already been linked to idea of "living as a local" and having a "typical Spanish day" above. What is similar about this motive for status and comfort is the reference to living as in Sydney, that is, a reference to leading an everyday local life. So to be motivated by safety and comfort is similar to wanting to experience contentment on a holiday.

3) curiosity/mental stimulation

"*An afternoon siesta would follow, then out again in the early afternoon to take in some local culture, perhaps a movie, play or theatre"*

The notion of "taking in local culture" clearly resembles the motive for engagement or involvement with the Spanish culture. The theme of engagement is one of the three happiness dimensions.

4) self-development

"*I love the idea of being independent in my daily activities such as shopping, cooking, etc. I have lived with my family all of my life*...*Although I am aware of possible culture shock, I hope to find ways of overcoming this…*"

This final core motive is similar to the need for meaning. The yearning for fresh challenges (finding ways of overcoming culture shock) and "the idea of being independent" resembles the motive for self-development. These descriptions of self-development appropriately relate to a quest for a greater purpose in life, that is a quest for meaning.

- **On Site Experiences**

The happiness dimensions of positive emotions, engagement and meaning can also be linked to the on-site satisfaction themes. In the on-site experience phase of the students' travel experience, the following immediate conscious satisfaction themes were identified: challenge-skill balance, total concentration, autotelic experience and time transformation from the flow model and the related themes of mindfulness,

object focus, personal experience, calm/tranquillity and discovery. As the flow model is in essence an engagement model, this domain of happiness was most easily uncovered through the study. Engagement was characterised by 1) total concentration and object focus and 2) challenge-skill balance and mindfulness. This is an example of a quote describing total concentration and object focus:

“There were heaps of people there. It was hot there in this crappy little demountable cube thing, but because the stuff I was seeing was so intense and so visual, you didn’t notice anything at all…A complete and utter focus on what I was seeing and what I was reading.”

Clearly, there is a link to engagement with the stimulus. The tourist describes her experience as one of complete and utter focus on what she was reading and looking at. The uncomfortable heat did not distract her as she was committed to studying the visual stimulus and learning about it through reading. It is, however, also possible to tie the on-site experience themes to the other dimensions of happiness. For example, the positive emotion of interest is expressed through this student’s curiosity about discovering new things in a Cathedral:

"I was standing outside and looking at the cathedral. Every time I’m there I see things that I haven’t seen before. So I can look at something and I find things. I discover things there. One of my favourite aspects today was the fact that there was someone playing the organ and there were practicing their scales on the organ. We don’t have that in Sydney, they were just practicing. It was like a normal thing.”

In addition to the on-site satisfaction, the students’ general state of mind was evaluated. Many students were experiencing culture shock, in particular feelings of loneliness and language barriers, at the time of research. Yet these issues did not seem to affect the students’ perceptions of immediate conscious experiences. This is seen through Maria’s highly enriching experience at the cathedral in Salamanca despite the fact that she was in the midst of a culture shock and going through emotional hardship at the time of the interview.

- **Reflections**

The last study on the memorable experiences further uncovered aspects of happiness as can be seen in the table. A fitting example of a reference to happiness is the expression of eudaimonia by the participants. This is how one tourist explains

eudaimonia:

"Within this very old and quiet place, I was able to relax and realise there is more to this world than the materialism we at times bind ourselves to in our daily life."

For him, the realisation that there is more to the world than materialism he and others bind themselves to in their life suggests a highly meaningful experience at a personal level. There is an apparent link to the meaning happiness dimension.

A second major theme of the memorable experiences was challenge-skills balance. This flow dimension featured in 23 of the 37 stories (62%) and in at least one story for 16 out of the 20 students in this last PhD study. The dimension was roughly equally represented in the stories of both genders.

"To be a foreigner in a foreign city is not always a pleasant experience yet my experience of integrating into my new home for the year, learning the language and meeting strangers and discovering the city's secrets was entirely a positive one".

The notion of integrating, learning the language, meeting the people and discovering the city's secrets clearly suggests deep level of association with the destination, its culture and the people. Thus, while previously interest in a visual stimulus represented involvement with a site, this quote demonstrates Lisa's involvement with Spain and its people in more general terms. In both cases, however, the satisfaction themes powerfully resemble the happiness dimension of engagement.

These linkages therefore demonstrate that an exploratory picture of tourists' happiness can be created through analyses of travel motivation and satisfaction. Tourist motivation and satisfaction have not been previously investigated in this manner which makes this contribution to knowledge original. In addition to originality, the thesis adhered to other PhD quality criteria (see appendix 7).

Parameters of the Contribution

The thesis has a number of limitations which can also be conceived as parameters of the tourist happiness knowledge contribution. There are four core limitations of the PhD project. Firstly, the picture of tourists' happiness is exploratory. Further work can therefore be done to test the robustness of the findings through quantitative approaches. Although the travel motivations and the satisfaction themes were

triangulated or cross validated for congruence, the results are based on qualitative studies with a sample of 20 travellers and 60 units of data. The supportive study with the 200 backpackers in chapter 3 helped to strengthen the value of the approach used in the motivation study and to extend the motives of the UTS group to a broader context of youth travellers. Similar quantitative studies may however be needed to extend the generalisability of the findings from the satisfaction studies. The value of this thesis therefore is not in adhering to the traditional positivist criterion of data reliability (Phillimore and Goodson, 2004). Instead, its value is in presenting new ways of conceptualising and evaluating tourist motivation and satisfaction through qualitative, positive psychology approaches, such as perfect day descriptions and flow questions. These conceptualisations and evaluations allowed the exploratory picture of tourists' happiness to emerge.

The issue of reliability or generalisability is linked to the second limitation - the PhD research work was culturally and context specific. As such, the thesis describes an evaluation of the tourist experience from a psychological as opposed to a sociological, anthropological or other perspective. Data collection and interpretation challenges were avoided by choosing to conduct the studies with a group of Australian university students of similar age and cultural background as the researcher. The complexities of conducting research in cross-cultural contexts (Reisinger and Turner, 1998) were deliberately avoided. Future studies that are focused on the issue of reliability could replicate the studies with different cultural groups and perhaps approach the issue of motivation, satisfaction and happiness from a non-psychological perspective. Due to the distinctly individual focus, these studies are analogous to clinical evaluations (Pocock, 2004) where the purpose is to understand how people think and feel while or after they experience something. In the on-site experience study, for example, the immediate conscious themes identified are cognitive and affective individual processes (mindfulness, discovery, and time transformation, among others). The social interaction that may have occurred at the sites or the cultural value of the heritage places were not investigated.

Thirdly, the gender differences were not explored in detail. This is potentially an important limitation of the PhD project. Literature on female tourist experiences (Small, 2003, 2005; Wilson, 2004; Wilson and Harris, 2006; Wilson and Little, 2008) suggests that solo women travellers experience socio-cultural, personal, practical and spatial constraints during their holidays but that they commonly negotiate these constraints successfully. This literature is grounded in works from leisure, sociology,

gender studies and feminist geography. The presence of the constraints and the ability of women to overcome them resembles the happiness theme of challenge-skills balance. In the on-site experience and reflective satisfaction study, the notion of challenge-skills balance strongly featured. Future studies would need to ascertain whether this dominant flow and happiness theme is more prevalent in female travel experiences than in tourist experiences of males.

The fourth and the last main limitation of the thesis relates to subtle issues of interpretation and application. In particular, it relates to the issue of moralisation. To be moral is to be "concerned with goodness or badness of character" (Butcher, 2003, p.5). A somewhat uneasy perception might be formed that the tourist experience was moralised. By linking travel experience to the happiness dimensions, it was implied that happiness is worth pursuing through travel – that this is the good thing to do. It was further argued that travel can be a powerful vehicle for generating good qualities such as positive emotions, engagement and meaning for tourists. Butcher (2003) skilfully attacks such attempts at moralisation. He argues that a mass tourist is unfairly portrayed in a negative light compared to a so called moral traveller, such as a long term study abroad student in search of self actualisation and eudaimonia.

While acknowledging the inherent risk of moralisation in tourist happiness research (especially when dealing with non-mass tourists), it may also be appropriate to consider the potential merits of this risky academic advocacy. Tribe argues that "the totality of tourism studies has now developed beyond the narrow boundaries of an applied business field and has the characteristics of a fledging post-modern field of research" (2005, p.1). Similar comments were recently made by Jafari (2005). In his recent commentary he presents a powerful argument to link tourism problems and issues to human concerns well outside the immediate realms of the global tourism industry. Happiness is potentially one such human concern. He therefore calls tourism academia and the industry to work towards transforming vacation to lifestyle. Jafari states:

"In the minds of many, within and outside the field, tourism means simply a break from the demands of everyday life: a vacation or holiday. Even so, it is sometimes acknowledged that it actually provides more than a break, as its re-creative properties nurture both mind and body (2005, p.4)." Butcher would imply that such re-creative, non entirely hedonic holiday conceptualisations are moralising travel and are therefore inherently negative endeavours.

Yet, Jafari's and Tribe's comments resemble the rhetoric of the growing, critical tourism research community which has flourished in the last 5 years (Ateljevic, in press; Tribe, 2008; Ateljevic *et al,* 2007). The works of this group of scholars have been referred to throughout the thesis. Their works provide reasons why the moralisation of tourism, such as the exploration of the linkages between travel and happiness could be a positive endeavour. It is simply a good thing to do so. As one of these critical scholars points out: "Tourism in itself is as scientific as a glass of Piña Colada is. It needs to be theorised into a research field through multiple research and knowledge strategies" (Veijola, 2007, p.22). One way of embellishing tourism could be to therefore introduce it to the knowledge strategies from positive psychology and happiness.

Future Studies

The four limitations present opportunities for future research. Further studies that are directly linked to the PhD thesis as well as those that broadly relate to the topic of positive psychology in tourism can be conducted.

- **Project related studies**

Challenge-skill balance study

The first future PhD related study could explore the concepts of challenges and skills in greater depth. The challenge-skills balance dimension has typically been regarded as the dominant flow dimension (Csikzentmihalyi, 1975, 1990, Jackson and Eklund, 2004). As this PhD shows, the balance is an important characteristic of on-site satisfaction and post hoc satisfaction. In visual visitor settings, the dimension refers to an active cognitive involvement with a visual stimulus and a subsequent feeling of exhilaration from the viewer's ability to understand, interpret or decode the stimulus. Skills and challenges, however, can also be understood in non-visual terms, such as knowing how to act or respond to challenging cross-cultural situations in unfamiliar environments or having the skills to converse in a challenging foreign language (Pearce, 2005). Although skills, abilities and challenges have been analysed in the leisure literature (Bammel and Bammel, 1992; Mannell and Kleiber, 1997), their analysis in tourist behaviour is sparse. Yet, as seen in the literature on marginalised tourist groups (Waitt and Markwell, 2006; Lino-Herrera, 2003; Small, 2005, 2003; Darcy, 2002, 2003), the presence of constraints and challenges and abilities to deal with the challenges can be central to tourist satisfaction. These marginalised groups

include women travellers, gay and lesbian tourists and travellers with disabilities among many others. For women travellers, satisfaction with a holiday commonly depends on their ability to overcome the challenge of obtaining freedom from unpaid gender roles as carers of house, pets, husband and children (Small, 2005; Crawford, Kippax, Onyx, Gault and Benton, 1992; Aitchison, MacLeod and Shaw, 2000). In a study of 40-year-old women's holiday experiences, Small remarks:

"An overwhelming theme of holidays at age 40 was freedom from responsibility for others, in particular children. The women desired a space of their own in which to relax, away from the demands of the psychological and routine physical chore of caring for others (2005, p.143)."

Constraints and barriers to an enjoyable tourist experience have also been identified for gay and lesbian travellers. While acknowledging the fact that the "gay population is very diverse in terms of race, age, levels of income, tastes and preferences" (Lino Herrera, 2003, p.108), Lino-Herrera notes a number of constraints. These are: lack of affirming gathering places at destinations (e.g. gay clubs), social exclusion due to homophobia, harassment and other barriers. Satisfaction with a holiday would largely depend on the abilities of these travellers to negotiate the constraints and meet the challenges (Johnson, 1999).

For people with disabilities, having a satisfying and enjoyable holiday is also a challenging task. The disabilities of these tourists include hearing, vision, mobility, intellectual and psychiatric disorders (Yau, McKercher and Packer, 2004). In an older but comprehensive assessment of barriers or obstacles to participation in tourism, Smith (1987) identified three core types of barriers: environmental (the architecture and design of tourism facilities); interactive barriers (communication barriers) and intrinsic barriers (such as feelings of incompetence in tourism activities). Of these, intrinsic barriers are considered the greatest obstacle for an enjoyable holiday (McGuire, 1984; Murray and Sproats, 1990 and Smith, 1987). As with the female travellers, successfully overcoming these barriers or constraints presents a challenge but not one that is unsurmountable.

With a few exceptions (Wilson, 2004; Lino Herrera, 2003) tourism literature has either focused on identifying the barriers to travel of these marginalised tourists or suggested ways of overcoming them from the supply side (Darcy, 2003). Few studies

have looked at the skills that are needed by the tourists themselves to successfully meet their challenges and overcome the barriers (Pearce, 2005).

A future study on tourist skills could therefore have an aim of ascertaining how the challenges are met by the individual skills of the tourists. A potential sample could consist of tourists with disabilities, female solo travellers and gay and lesbian travellers. The study could involve a quantitative analysis to ascertain what specific skills are needed by these travellers for a satisfying holiday; a qualitative analysis through in-depth interviews could then follow. In this qualitative part, the aim could be to understand how the tourists meet their challenges by using their skills to negotiate physical and psychological constraints. Following detailed transcriptions, coding and cross verifications for congruence, a summary table with key findings would emerge for the 3 groups of marginalised travellers. Differences and similarities can be discussed. The findings would complement the body of knowledge on tourist happiness by further interrogating the challenge-skill balance theme. The results would also add to the relatively sparse literature on tourist experiences of marginalised travellers. Practical implications for the way the industry responds to the needs of these tourists could emerge from such a study.

Positive emotions and meaning studies

A second suggestion for a future project-related study is to use the positive psychology methods to further evaluate personal meaning and positive emotions derived from tourist experiences. In the PhD thesis, the flow model was used. This model could only partially uncover the tourists' positive emotions and travel meaning as it is commonly considered an engagement model (Jackson and Eklund, 2004). Additional studies which can be developed in this area are identified below.

Positive emotions

Initially, further motivation studies could be set up and analysed in a similar manner to this PhD project. Once the motivation based information is collected, however, the new data set can be used to directly code for positive emotions in a similar way as outlined in the Anticipation section of this chapter. As with the motivations, independent cross validation of the themes with at least two researchers would strengthen the congruence of the findings from the motivation essays (Lyons *et al*, 2007).

As a further way of triangulating data, cognitive mapping can be used. Cognitive maps are a method used to structure and store spatial knowledge, allowing the participant to visualise images in order to enhance recall and learning of information (Kitchin, 1994). This method has been successfully applied in tourism research. In a study of beach images, tourists were asked to draw their ideal beach (Falco-Mammone, 2007). The value of cognitive mapping is that unarticulated feelings of joy, interest, contentment and love could be drawn. The particular advantage therefore of the mapping approach is to access the data through another "language", that of visual images. Tourists could be asked to draw a happy holiday. It is a deceptively simple request and could provide novel insights into respondents' world views and values. The word happy is commonly interpreted as only having positive emotions - not meaning and engagement (University of East London, 2007). So the task of drawing a happy holiday would be an appropriate one. An image of a tourist gazing at a heritage site could, for example, point to the positive emotion of interest. Triangulation of images with essays could then follow. As with the essays, the images should not be exclusively interpreted by the principal researcher to minimise bias. Instead, the main researcher could discuss the images with the respondents and with one or two research assistants until a mutually agreeable interpretation is uncovered.

Meaning

The meaning dimension could also be further interrogated. The reflective study from this PhD could be replaced with a study of meaning. Meaning could be investigated through an essay asking the tourists to consider their previous travel experiences as part of an autobiography. They could divide this autobiography into chapters and would describe significant travel events and periods of struggle during their holidays (Noy, 2004). By using this Seligman's (2002) formula, personal meaning derived from holiday experiences can be investigated through descriptions of self-actualisation, personal growth and eudaimonia in the narratives. The themes would be cross validated and analyses procedures could again adhere to the IPA guidelines (Lyons *et al*, 2007). The essays could be complemented with an analysis of photographs or instructions to include key images from past holidays. The photographs could be used by the respondents to help them describe their meaningful experiences and trigger their tourist memories (Garrod, 2008).

Varied cohorts of respondents could expand the present work. The positive emotions and the meaning studies could be conducted with a sample of mature age travellers (55+ years of age) and those with a non-Western cultural background. By not replicating the studies with youth travellers, the happiness model can hence be tested in a cross cultural context and with travellers from a different age group. The older respondents might be able to reflect on their travel meaning in a more articulate manner than the study-abroad students. As they are likely to be more experienced travellers (Pearce, 2005) the mature tourists would be able to reflect on a few decades of their travel experiences and hence eloquently express the meaning of their travels.

The further results on positive emotions and meaning would complement the findings from this PhD project. New linkages between the motivations and the positive emotions could emerge and a more thorough scrutiny of travel meaning would ensure the current gaps in the happiness table can be completed. Following these mostly qualitative project related studies, a quantitative analysis could follow. Questionnaires can be constructed to analyse travel motivation and satisfaction by integrating the items on meaning, positive emotions and engagement with more standard motivation and satisfaction scales.

- **Topic related studies**

Future research studies related to the broad topic of positive psychology in tourism can also be conducted. Two core topic related opportunities are apparent. The first is an opportunity for innovative research in tourism education; the second is a potential future study of benefits of travel to tourists' health.

Education study

In 2006, a need was identified for significant changes in the content of tourism education programs. This need lead to a formation of Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI) (Sheldon, 2008).The vision of TEFI is to provide knowledge and framework for tourism education programs and promote global citizenship and optimism for a better world. Following two TEFI Summits, a set of values were identified as key to this vision. These values are:

- Stewardship: sustainability, responsibility and service to the community
- Knowledge: critical thinking, innovation, creativity, networking
- Professionalism: leadership, practicality, services, relevance, timeliness, reflexivity, teamwork and partnerships
- Ethics: honesty, transparency, authenticity, authentic self
- Mutual respect: diversity, inclusion, equity, humility, collaboration

A third TEFI Summit will take place in Switzerland in 2009. Its goal will be to "complete the work and the White Paper on a Future Curriculum for Tourism Education. This White Paper will be released by the end of 2009" (Sheldon *et al,* 2008).

Positive psychology literature frequently covers many of the themes represented by the TEFI values. Seligman (2002) writes about authenticity and authentic self in the context of happiness and the work on flow has been linked to creativity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). In the seminal introductory paper to positive psychology (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) the values of humility and equity are mentioned among others. The challenge of measuring these values in the tourism field remains and future research is thus needed. A future study could consist of a large literature review of the common positive psychology topics (see for example Snyder and Lopez, 2002). The review would focus on reviewing the measurement of positive psychology themes such as creativity, leadership, honesty, respect and other concepts. The measures that relate to the TEFI set can then be summarised. Following this review and the summary, a quantitative study can be conducted. The measures could be employed in a questionnaire with a group of tourism university students. The results could be statistically analysed. The study could be replicated with the same group of students after a period of time. This replication will enable the researcher to ascertain if improvements in the education delivery are necessary. If, for instance, the results of the first set of questionnaires showed that the students lacked teamwork skills, a second set of questionnaires would determine if the students' teamwork skills were still poor. The results would therefore have practical benefit for curriculum design and the monitoring process would facilitate students' self development and growth.

Health study

Research on the benefits of tourism to tourists' health could be another fruitful future endeavour. In the introductory chapter, it was shown that qualities like optimism, resilience and positive emotions are strongly correlated with better mental and physical health. The relationship between tourism and health is in its infancy (BEST, 2008).There are therefore opportunities for various studies in this area. Exploratory studies can be conducted not just on tourist health but also on the health and well being of tourism workers, tourism managers and communities affected by tourism.

If tourists are the focus, a useful introductory study would be to thoroughly review the literature on potential benefits of travel to tourists' health. This review could include analyses of literature on spa and wellness tourism, medical tourism, spirituality, diseases caused by tourist activities (such as skin cancer and AIDS) and other themes. An additional review can be conducted of the positive psychology literature on mental and physical health (King and Pennebaker, 1998; Fredrickson, 2001; Frederickson and Branigan, 2005; Hershberger, 2005; Norrish and Vella-Brodick, 2007).

Following these literature analyses, primary studies could be conducted. One of these could aim to ascertain which types of tourism (for example backpacking, spa travel, ecotourism, cultural tourism) generate the positive qualities related to health (optimism, resilience, positive emotions). There may not be any differences or some types of tourism might have more potential to generate health outcomes than other types. The results would arguably be controversial. Prudent methodological triangulation (the use of qualitative and quantitative research techniques) and involvement of several researchers in instrument design and data analyses might improve reliability and validity of the findings.

Substantial sample of male and female tourists from several countries and of similar age could be asked to identify types of tourism in which they participate. A summary of the most common types of tourism activities would emerge for the two groups. Gender differences can be noted. A large proportion of these respondents could then be asked to complete satisfaction questionnaires on their popular types of tourism activities. The scales would be based on positive emotions, meaning and engagement items. Additional numbers of tourists could also be asked to describe which type of holiday they found most enjoyable and why? If the happiness and

health themes (such as resilience, positive emotions, optimism) are more present in one type of tourism activity than the other, it could be implied some types of travel are more conducive to tourists' health. The findings might be controversial. It may be revealed, for example, that backpacking generates more resilience than mass travel.

It is clear however, that both topic related studies are concerned with investigating non-economic benefits of tourism. The first is concerned with personal growth and development of tertiary students through tourism education; the second with tourists' mental and physical health. Some time ago, Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake noted that:

"The big problem with applied research is that it usually fails to add anything substantial or significant to the body of knowledge...This is because the problem is too company or sector specific and relatively limited in its score, i.e. it is usually concrete and operationally oriented rather than abstract or conceptual in its nature…And therefore, frequently does not progress the body of knowledge"(1994, p.126).

These two non-economic and non-company specific, yet non-abstract studies might help alleviate this ongoing problem. While applied and practical in nature, the studies on education and health may also progress the theoretical body of knowledge in tourism studies. This theoretical progression would happen through further integration of the academic theories from positive psychology with existing tourism concepts on education and health. The argument that applied tourism research is focused on economic imperatives (Tribe, 1997; Ateljevic *et al*, 2007) and that theoretical academic tourism research is abstract and seemingly esoteric is therefore challenged. The two can co-exist. The research on health and personal development through education is arguably more practical and "real world" (Tribe 1997, 2008) than the research concerned with private business interests, yet its value may not be assessable in monetary terms and is not adequately recognised. The theoretical body of knowledge on health and education would also embellish the current theoretical schemes and models of tourism.

Closing Statement

Approximately 2,500 years of philosophic inquiry and scientific research has not resolved the complex riddle of human happiness. This tourism based social science research thesis is only a small part of the growing attempt to better understand people's positive emotions, engagement in activities and the meaning they derive from life (Seligman, 2002; Snyder and Lopez, 2002; Ben-Shahar, 2007; Diener and Biswas-Diener, 2008). The fields of positive psychology and tourism enrich each other and jointly provide novel insights on happiness. As de Botton points out, "if our lives are dominated by a search for happiness, then perhaps few activities reveal as much about the dynamics of this quest than our travels" (2003, p.9). One way of providing these insights on happiness through travel is by further using the positive psychology ideas to evaluate the phases of the travel experience, as outlined and applied in this thesis. Travel motivation and satisfaction are crucial components of any travel experience. It is by studying these two themes of tourist behaviour that a preliminary picture of tourists' happiness through the lens of positive psychology was created. From this time onwards, it may be important to further study this dynamic relationship as:

"there is no duty we so much underrate as the duty of being happy."

--Robert Louis Stevenson (cited in The Happiness Project, 2009).

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APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Why did you decide to do the International Studies course and come to Spain?

2. How have you found the period of time since your arrival in Spain?

3. Which aspect of your In-Country study experience do you currently find most rewarding and most satisfying? Why?

Now let's turn to the cultural heritage site experience:

1. Could you describe your experience at the site today? You may wish to tell me about your thoughts and feelings while at the site and perhaps you could describe the general atmosphere at the site.

2. Have you had a similar experience anywhere before? Could you briefly describe that experience, e.g. where did it take place, was the experience in a tourist setting?

3. Do you want to return to the today's site? If yes, do you want to have the same experience when you visit it next time?

4. Here is the essay you wrote in the first study. Take a few minutes to read it. You have described your perfect day in your Spanish study town. How is your site experience similar or different from this description?

5. Could you take a few moments to read this quote?

   "My mind isn't wandering, I am not thinking of something else. I am totally involved in what I am doing. My body feels great. I don't seem to hear anything. The world seems to be cut off from me. I am less aware of myself and my problems (Csikszentmihalyi, 1982, p.23)."

   Could you now describe an experience that closely matches the description from the quote.

6. Could you name five key sections within the area of the site you visited today?

7. Which of those five sections did you like most?

8. How was your favourite section of the site different from other parts of the site which you observed?

9. Which specific physical attribute of the site did you like most? Please describe the attribute and estimate the amount of time you spent observing it.

10. Have you noticed any signage for further information about the site?

APPENDIX 2: MODIFIED FLOW STATE SCALES

Modified Event Experience Scale (MFSS - 2)

Please answer the following questions in relation to your cultural sightseeing activity you have just completed. These questions relate to the thoughts and feelings you may have experienced while taking part. There are no right or wrong answers. Think about how you felt during the activity and answer the questions using the rating scale below. For each question circle the number that best matches your experience.

Rating Scale:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Please circle your answer

During sightseeing at the cultural heritage site:

1. I had total concentration when I visited the site.

1	2	3	4	5

2. I moved around the site and looked where I wanted without thinking too much.

1	2	3	4	5

3. I knew clearly what I wanted to do at the site.

1	2	3	4	5

4. It was really clear to me how my sightseeing activity was going.

1	2	3	4	5

5. My attention was focused entirely on what I was doing.

1	2	3	4	5

6. I had a sense of control over what I was doing.

1	2	3	4	5

7. I was not concerned with what others may have been thinking of me.

1	2	3	4	5

8. Time seemed to alter (either slowed down or speeded up).

1	2	3	4	5

9. I really enjoyed the experience.

1	2	3	4	5

10. My abilities to interpret the site matched the high challenges of the situation.

1	2	3	4	5

11. Things just seemed to be happening automatically.

1	2	3	4	5

12. I had a strong sense of what I wanted to do at the site.

1	2	3	4	5

13. I was aware of how well I was observing the site.

1	2	3	4	5

14. It was no effort to keep my mind on what was happening.

1	2	3	4	5

15. I felt like I was in control of my sightseeing activity.

1	2	3	4	5

16. I was not concerned about other visitors.

1	2	3	4	5

17. The way time passed seemed to be different from normal.

1	2	3	4	5

18. I loved sightseeing at the site and want to have a similar experience again.

1	2	3	4	5

19. I felt I was competent enough to meet the high demands of the situation.

1	2	3	4	5

20. I engaged in sightseeing automatically, without thinking too much.

1	2	3	4	5

21. I knew what I wanted to achieve by visiting the cultural heritage site.

1	2	3	4	5

22. I had a good idea about how well I was observing the site.

1	2	3	4	5

23. I was challenged by the characteristics of the site, but I believed my sightseeing skills would allow me to meet the challenge.

1	2	3	4	5

24. I had a feeling of total control.

1	2	3	4	5

25. I was not concerned with how I was presenting myself in front of other visitors.

1	2	3	4	5

26. It felt like time went by quickly.

1	2	3	4	5

27. The experience left me feeling great.

1	2	3	4	5

28. The challenges of understanding the site and my skills in interpreting it were at an equally high level.

1	2	3	4	5

29. I did things at the site spontaneously and automatically without having to think.

1	2	3	4	5

30. My sightseeing goals were clearly defined.

1	2	3	4	5

31. I could tell by the way I was observing and moving around whether I was managing to understand the site.

1	2	3	4	5

32. I was completely focused on my sightseeing task.

1	2	3	4	5

33. I felt in total control of my body.

1	2	3	4	5

34. I was not worried about what others may have been thinking of me.

1	2	3	4	5

35. I lost my normal awareness of time.

1	2	3	4	5

36. I found the experience extremely rewarding.

1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX 3: ENDORSEMENT BY THE SCALE FOUNDERS

Date: Mon, 03 Sep 2007 20:10:03 +1000
From: "Sue Jackson" <sjackson@hms.uq.edu.au>
Subject: RE: Ideas for FSS-2 and DFS-2
To: "Sebastian Filep" <sebastian.filep@jcu.edu.au>
Cc: "Robert C. Eklund PhD" <eklund@mail.coe.fsu.edu>

Hi Sebastian,

Your application of flow research to tourism is interesting to hear about. Thank you for letting me know of your plans to assess a modified version of the Flow Scales. Thank you also for letting me know that you will be acknowledging the original source. I would recommend that in an appropriate place on the scales, you include the copyright information--see Appendix A & B of the Flow Scales Manual (i.e., copyright Jackson, 2001); Jackson & Eklund (2004) is also the appropriate reference for the scales.

Please let me know how your research progresses, and what your findings are. I am always interested in seeing the latest developments with the scales, and with flow research.

Kind regards,

Sue

APPENDIX 4: OBSERVATION TEMPLATE

The Site Experience

Name of the Site:

Area Observed:

Date:

Start Time:

Finish Time:

Travel Party Composition in the Area Observed

Type	Numbers
Single adult	
Couple	
Small group, no children	
Adults and children	
Single adult and children	

Observable Demographics in the Area Observed

Age Group	Gender	
	Males	Females
18-30		
31-50		
more than 50		

Posture and Walking Speed
(18-30 Age Group)

Instructions: Tick if generally applicable for the age group

Posture		Walking Speed	
Tense and Constrained		Fast pace	
Relaxed		Slow pace	
Absolved		Average leisurely pace	
Frozen		With a tour guide	

Holding Power of the
Five Sections of the Site
(18-30 Age Group)

Instructions: Name the section and write down the pause times for the age group

Name of the Section	Approximate Pause Time
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

APPENDIX 5: E-MAIL TO CSIKSZENTMIHALYI

Date: Mon, 21 Nov 2005 10:06:58 +1000
From: Sebastian Filep <sebastian.filep@jcu.edu.au>
Subject: 'Flow' and Tourist On-site Experiences
To: miska@cgu.edu

Professor Csikszentmihalyi,

My name is Sebastian Filep and I am a PhD student in Tourism studies at James Cook University. The reason why I have decided to contact you is because I am using 'flow' theory in my PhD thesis.

I am interested in 'flow' in tourism and leisure contexts, but primarily in non-physical activity settings, such as sightseeing. I have recently received a copy of the "Art of Seeing - An Interpretation of the Aesthetic Encounter " and have spent some time going over the positive psychology literature and the theory of optimal experience.

One of my studies is to examine immediate conscious tourist experiences of a group of Australian study-abroad students at cultural heritage sites in Spain. I would like to ascertain the perceived ability of the immediate conscious tourist experience at the sites to satisfy the students' travel motives (which will be identified in a separate study).

At this stage, I am thinking about using Jackson and Eklund's (2004) Flow State Scale-2 (FSS-2) and Dispositional Flow Scale -2 (DFS-2), perhaps combining the scales with a few slightly adjusted questions from "The Art of Seeing", conducting in-depth interviews about the site experience and conducting some observational work. I am hesitant about using self-initiated tape recording or ESM techniques due to possible alterations of experience or compliance issues (e.g. Stewart and Hull, 1996) as well as costs. However, I would also like to hear your opinion about the exclusion of ESM as this may then become an investigation of 'almost' immediate conscious tourist on-site experiences. I will urge the students not to go to the sites before the study is conducted so that their immediate experience may be better investigated. I also know that both FSS-2 and DFS-2 have not been validated in non-physical activity settings, so I'll have to keep this in mind.

In the last study of my PhD I will ask the students to write an essay about their real or imagined peak study-abroad experience. I would like to identify some elements of this peak study -abroad experience and then compare those characteristics or elements with the students' cultural heritage site experiences. In essence, I want to ascertain the importance of the heritage site experience in the context

of the total tourist experience.

The on-site experience study is to be conducted sometime in June 2006 and I am planning to attend the European Positive Psychology conference in Braga, Portugal in July. I hope to have an opportunity to meet you at the conference and have a chat about my topic.

Anyway, I apologise for such a long e-mail. Professor, at this stage I have two crucial questions:

- Are you aware of any previous studies that have linked ‘flow’ with immediate conscious experiences at cultural heritage sites?

- Do you feel that I am on the right track with the methods that I am planning to employ?

Hope to hear from you soon.

Best regards,

Sebastian Filep

APPENDIX 6: RESPONSE FROM CSIKSZENTMIHALYI

Date: Sat, 21 Jan 2006 13:22:39 -0800
From: Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi <miska@cgu.edu>
Subject: Re: 'Flow' and Tourist On-site Experiences
To: Sebastian Filep <sebastian.filep@jcu.edu.au>

Anyway, I apologise for such a long e-mail. Professor, at this stage I have two crucial questions:

Are you aware of any previous studies that have linked 'flow' with immediate conscious experiences at cultural heritage sites?

No -- although there are some PhD papers written about leisure experiences, mostly outdoors or adventure settings.

Do you feel that I am on the right track with the methods that I am planning to employ?

They seem appropriate and informative.
Best wishes with an interesting project.

Mike

APPENDIX 7: PHD IN TOURISM QUALITY CRITERIA

An original contribution is only the first out of the nine criteria for a successful PhD thesis in Tourism as identified by Pearce (2004). A sound PhD thesis in tourism must also:

- Demonstrate that the candidate has the capacity to produce independent research
- Be clearly, accurately, cogently written and properly referenced
- Demonstrate a balance and integration of a theme in the thesis
- Relate research to broader framework of knowledge
- Demonstrate knowledge of techniques and their application
- Conform to set guidelines in terms of length of thesis
- Follow rules and procedures concerning the inclusion of published material
- Deal with and respond to examiners' recommendations.

Pearce suggests that there is sufficient overlap and similarity in the phrases describing the successful PhD criteria in the Commonwealth countries. So the above criteria apply to a Tourism PhD thesis from Australia, such as this one.

The ability to deal with and respond to examiners' recommendations is to be diligently addressed at a later date. Every effort was made to adhere to the other seven points. The three main studies and the supportive study (chapter 3) were designed and conducted independently. The thesis chapters were organised through introductory tables that described each chapter's aims, structure, methodology (if applicable) and conclusions. Effort was made to write clearly, accurately and cogently and to reference according to the James Cook University (JCU) guidelines. The core theme of happiness was integrated with the secondary themes of travel motivation and satisfaction. The research results relate to the broader framework of knowledge on tourist behaviour and happiness through travel. Knowledge and application of both qualitative and quantitative techniques were demonstrated in chapters 3, 4 and 5. With around 60,000 words (excluding the references, the appendices and the pages that precede chapter 1) the thesis sits well within the JCU's recommended PhD thesis length range (50,000-70,000 words). Lastly, the JCU rules and procedures concerning the inclusion of published material were strictly followed. Under such rules, inclusion of a publication is encouraged but the article

must be tied in with the rest of the thesis. A Visitor Studies article formed part of chapter 5. The paper was preceded by a context statement and followed by a final statement assuring that it neatly tied in with the rest of the document.