Subjective Well-Being of Tourists

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AFFIDAVIT

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ABSTRACT

Title: Subjective Well-Being of Tourists

Abstract:

For the last decades adaptations of the SERVQUAL model have been used to measure tourist satisfaction. However, recent articles about tourist happiness put these models into question. Some authors argue that tourist satisfaction can more accurately be measured by taking the tourists' well-being and happiness into account. Subjective Well-Being (SWB) represents the core of happiness research and is the scientific term for an individual's evaluation of his or her experienced positive and negative affect, happiness or satisfaction with life. This paper shows how the positive and negative affects schedule (PANAS) can be adapted and used for the measurement of tourist satisfaction and its development over the course of the holidays.

Keywords: Happiness, Subjective Well-Being, Tourist Satisfaction

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LIST OF ABBREVEATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
DRM	Day Reconstruction Method
ed./eds.	editor/editors
et al.	et alli / and others
etc.	et cetera / and other things
e.g.	exempli gratia / for example
EMS	Ecological Momentary Assessment
ESM	Experience Sampling Method
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
Iss.	Issue
NA	Negative Affect
No.	number
p./pp.	page/pages
PA	Positive Affect
PANAS	Positive and Negative Affect Scale
SD	Standard Deviation
SERVQUAL	Service Quality (Model)
SWB	Subjective Well-Being
SWLS	Satisfaction with Life Scale
REQUAL	Recreation Quality
Vol.	Volume
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

1 INTRODUCTION

"We all live with the objective of being happy;
our lives are all different and yet the same."

(Anne Frank)

Ever since mankind started thinking systematically, the question of what makes people happy has been of central concern but it is surprising how little most people know about their feelings. There are people who can't tell what makes them happy or even if they are ever happy.

Materialists argue that happiness can only be caused by external conditions like economic well-being. On the other hand the spiritual extreme claims that happiness is the result of a mental attitude. During the centuries happiness research became a topic of little interest to scientists, however the United States Declaration of Independence (1776) takes it as a self-evident truth that the "pursuit of happiness" is an "unalienable right", comparable to life and liberty.

In the last century psychologists have rediscovered happiness research. Subjective Well-Being (SWB) represents the core of it and is the scientific term for an individual's evaluation of his or her experienced positive and negative affect, happiness or satisfaction with life. Subjective well-being is not the same as happiness although the terms are often used synonymously. The two terms represent individual and clearly separable constructs. In this paper the exact terminology will be used whenever empirical research is cited. Otherwise the terms happiness, wellbeing, and life satisfaction are used interchangeably to facilitate understanding and avoid repetition of words.

Almost simultaneously with the developments in happiness research psychologists developed models to measure customer satisfaction in general, and tourist satisfaction in particular. However, recent articles about tourist happiness put these models into question. Some authors argue that tourist satisfaction can more accurately be measured by taking the tourists well-being and happiness into account. They argue that the subjective well-being during a

holiday is more meaningful than the evaluation of a tourists' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the tourism product provided within a destination.

The aim of this paper is to show how subjective well-being of tourists can be measured and how methods to measure subjective well-being and life satisfaction can be adapted to focus on a relatively short period like a holiday. It will also be shown how tourist well-being changes during a holiday and which factors have an influence on it.

Chapter two and three represent an introduction to the science of happiness and subjective well-being and summarize the theoretical constructs which are underlying the empirical study. These sections should point out where subjective well-being is connected with happiness and how it can be differentiated.

Chapter four gives a brief introduction into customer and tourist satisfaction models and their advantages and drawbacks. Furthermore, the importance of tourist well-being will be made clear and the opportunity to use the subjective well-being construct for tourist satisfaction measures will be pointed out.

2 FROM HAPPINESS TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

Nobody will ever doubt that happiness is important but ever since the Ancient Greeks started thinking about the concept it has been subject of continuous debate. This would not have been the case if people were to generally think it does not matter in their lives (van Hoorn, 2007). For philosophers the good life and the desirable society have for centuries been the object of interest by numerous schools of thought and ideological traditions.

Considerable resources have been dedicated by psychologists to the human happiness studies, the examination of experiencing pleasure and the determinants of subjective well-being. Moreover the force which impedes the individuals' pursuit and the experience during individual recreation have been examined (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

The quality of life and the well-being of individuals and societies has for a long time also been an important area of research throughout the social sciences and especially for sociologists, although at a comparatively more holistic perspective. The ultimate goal of this research tradition is to define what a good life is and how well the reality relates to this concept. A variety of social indicators and statistics were developed and used in order to measure the state and progress of the quality of life (Veenhoven, 1997). Sociologists have also, in a more direct sense, contributed valuable input to the interdisciplinary study of happiness by assessing the influencing societal variables and defining social phenomena such as cultural norms, globalisation and modernity on well-being (Veenhoven, 1997; Diener & Suh 1997).

2.1 Definition of Happiness

"It's good to be just plain happy. It's a little better to know that you're happy;
but to understand that you're happy and to know why and how
and still be happy - be happy in the being and the knowing -
well, that is beyond happiness, that is bliss."

(Henry Miller)

Happiness, as omnipresent as the concept may be in everyday life, has for a long time led to great debate about its meaning, its value, its origin and the essential requirements to achieve it. Recent decades have shown an ever growing interest in a range of scientific disciplines and in the pursuit and understanding of happiness, while such questions have traditionally been dealt with in the domain of psychology.

The various studies have led to a wide range of interpretations and definitions that try to grasp the concept of happiness in a manner that is conducive to the distinct scientific methods and research agendas in the various domains. However, every so often these definitions have contrasted with other accounts of the concept and have therefore weighed down joint efforts and collaboration between the disciplines in the study of happiness (Hayborn, 2000).

2.2 Happiness in philosophical perspective

The roots of the philosophical history of happiness lay in ancient Greece where numerous related ideas, concepts and definitions already existed. The ancient philosophical schools of Democritus, Epicurus, Aristotle and others have already known all four components of happiness, which are still included in the wider sense of the term nowadays: (1) luck and good fortune, (2) supreme enjoyment and bliss, (3) general life satisfaction and (4) ownership of supreme goods (Tatarkiewicz, 1976).

Through the ages, the evolution of the meaning and use of the term has been argued between two contrasting views, on the one hand, the idea of happiness as the perfection and goal in life, and on the other hand as an experience of pleasure and joy. The previous tradition is usually called the eudemonistic[1] view of happiness whereas the later view is referred to as the hedonistic[2] view.

[1] Eudemonia: happiness or well-being; the main universal goal, distinct from pleasure and derived from a life of activity governed by reason (Aristotle)
[2] Hedonism: pursuit of or devotion to pleasure, especially to the pleasures of the senses

2.3 Happiness in psychological perspective

In the area of this scientific discipline happiness or well-being has traditionally received relatively little attention. Modern psychology was long dominated by the themes of behaviourism and the successive cognitive revolution in which the study of feelings and emotions had either been rejected or was only of minor interest. Furthermore, for much of the last century the centre of attention in psychology was on negative aspects such as depression and anxiety and the main areas of research focused on the treatment of psychopathology.

A turnaround to put an individuals' happiness more in the centre of attention was fostered by the acceptance of the concept that absence of mental illness does not in itself fully comprise well-being. Consequently, from the 1960s onward, personal growth, well-being and the promotion of wellness became important areas of scientific examination and formed main areas of research for the newly developed branch of positive psychology.

This new subdivision in psychology research comes up with two distinct approaches to the definition of well-being. Based on the conceptual philosophical frameworks of Hedonism vs. Eudemonia psychologists developed two distinct paradigms which can take either a hedonistic view or an eudemonic perspective in relation to meta-theoretical, theoretical and methodological issues (Ryan & Deci 2001).

2.4 Happiness in sociological perspective

Terms like 'the good life', 'well-being' or 'quality of life' have often been used as synonyms for happiness. In the eudemonic view of happiness (discussed above), the expressions share a considerable amount of meaning. Social scientists have a very different view, for them these terms are quite different concepts which have to be defined and measured separately (Zyla, 2003). Arguably, quality of life is the broadest of the concepts and includes a wide range of notions that refer to individual well-being.

Veenhoven (2000) has anticipated the matrix in Figure 1 to categorize the different dimensions incorporated in the assessment of quality of life. Happiness, according to Venhovens' ordering scheme, can be allocated to different quadrants in the four qualities of life depending on the definition of happiness that is employed.

Veenhoven recommends applying the fourfold matrix in three ways: firstly to place connected notions and alternative classifications, secondly to explore substantive meanings in various measures for the quality of life and thirdly to find out whether it can be measured comprehensively (Veenhoven, 2000).

	Outer Qualities	Inner Qualities
Life Chances	Liveability of Environment	Life-ability of a person
Life Results	Utility of Life	Appreciation of Life

Figure 1: Four qualities of Life (Veenhoven, 2000)

The horizontal axis distinguishes outer and inner qualities. External qualities are affected by one's environment. Inner capacities are specially bound to the individual and therefore labelled as internal. The vertical axis distinguishes quality of life with respect to the outcomes realised and the opportunities of a good life (Veenhoven, 2000).

This method of distinguishing two dimensions for the categorization of qualities of life yields into four concepts that are seen as comprising complete conception of 'quality of life' in social sciences:

Liveability of the environment signifies the importance of good living conditions and describes the habitability or the level of living in the sense of the occurrence of good objective living circumstances. The living conditions can come from

different disciplines and include such measures as environmental settings, social indicators, economic measures and cultural aspects.

Life-Ability of the person is related to the potential the person is equipped with to engage in a meaningful life and how well she or he is able to cope with the difficulties of life. In a broader interpretation of the concept of life-ability of a person it reflects her or his skills and capability to do extremely well in life and includes one's ability of self-actualisation.

The importance of an individual's life for the environment in terms of functionality and its contributions to society is explained by the **Utility of Life** concept. However, it cannot be measured precisely and involves several random decisions about which criteria should be employed.

Appreciation of Life refers to the personal and subjective evaluation of life that is carried out by individuals through cognitive and affective reflections such as prevailing moods and feelings as well as satisfaction with life domains and overall appraisals of life. Subjective well-being as well as the purely hedonistic view of happiness can be assigned to this concept.

3 SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

Although there is considerable debate, as pointed out earlier, about the concept and definition of happiness, the concept of subjective well-being has been widely acknowledged. It is generally used to denote an individuals' self evaluated psychological well-being and refers to the "Human State of Happiness" (Cummins, 2000).

Since ancient times humans have wondered about what makes a good life. Scientists who study subjective well-being suppose that an essential ingredient of a good life is that the person herself likes her life (Diener et al., 2002).

3.1 Definition of Subjective Well-Being

Based on the above explained two philosophical frameworks of happiness (Hedonism vs. Eudemonia) Urry et al. (2004) classified two concepts of well-being: psychological (or eudemonic) well-being and subjective (or hedonic) well-being. The psychological well-being is explained as the respondents approved level of independence, environmental mastery, individual growth, positive associations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Subjective well-being is defined as the individual evaluation of the respondent's own affective and cognitive status (Urry et al., 2004).

As mentioned before, subjective well-being is often used interchangeably with happiness and life satisfaction. Consequently, Veenhoven (1997) defines happiness as "the degree to which a person evaluates the overall quality of life in his present life-as-a-whole positively".

Similarly, Diener and Biswas-Diener (2003) provided the following description of the subjective well-being construct, which will be used as the underlying definition for this paper:

> "Subjective well-being is defined as people's evaluation of their own lives. Such evaluations can be both cognitive judgements, such as life satisfaction, and emotional responses to events, such as feeling

> positive emotions. Subjective well-being is thus an umbrella term that refers to several separable components: life satisfaction and satisfaction with life domains such as marriage, work, income, housing and leisure; feeling positive affect (pleasant emotions and moods) most of the time; experiencing infrequent feelings of negative affect (such as depression, stress, and anger); and judging one's life to be fulfilling and meaningful." (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2003)

Overall, subjective well-being is a broad construct that involves the combination of three particular factors: (1) frequent and intense positive affective states by experiencing positive emotions, (2) the relative absence of anxiety and depression with a low level of negative moods, and (3) high global life satisfaction (Diener et al., 2002).

3.2 Affective and Cognitive Well-Being

As pointed out above subjective well-being, in its psychological sense, includes a broad range of concepts that have been identified as distinct and separable constructs and entail a different line of research and methodological approach (Zyla, 2003). The evaluation of subjective well-being is often expressed in affective terms; when asked about subjective well-being, participants will regularly say, "I feel good" (Schwartz & Strack, 1999), but subjective well-being has two components: affective well-being and cognitive well-being.

These two components of subjective well-being represent the dominant philosophical theories of happiness and well-being variables (Schimmack et al., 2008). Affective well-being is based on hedonistic theories of happiness (Sumner 1996) and is defined as the balance of enjoyment and displeasure in individual's lives. A number of authors have suggested that human affect is mostly determined by the rate of progress toward a goal (Carver & Scheier, 1998; Hsee & Abelson, 1991).

The cognitive component of subjective well-being is based on subjective evaluation theories of well-being (Sumner, 1996). Individuals evaluate their lives based on comparing a subjectively constructed ultimate with their actual every-day life.

Although affective well-being and cognitive well-being are empirically correlated, the constructs are not identical and are differently related to other variables (Schimmack et al., 2008).

The distinction between cognitive well-being and affective well-being has implications for the methodical study of subjective well-being and public policy decisions. Since affective well-being and cognitive well-being are distinct types of happiness and subjective well-being, individuals and policy makers have to weigh the importance of the two components in their decisions. Some individuals may intend to maximize affective well-being, whereas others may aim to maximize cognitive well-being.

3.3 Correlates and Determinants of Subjective Well-Being

Previous well-being research has emphasised the joint importance of personality, the social environment and external circumstances in determining levels of subjective well-being. Special attention has also been paid to the importance of goals and objectives of comparison groups, individual experiences, and habituation as joint determinants of how changes in circumstances will affect individual well-being (Helliwell, 2002).

Many social markers and indicators which are influencing subjective well-being would generally be classified as objective. Most of them are outcomes of the book- and recordkeeping of (governmental) institutions and agencies with particular interests and functions. Financial accounts, wages, prices, records of births and deaths, people-days of hospitalisation, absenteeism at work, levels of environmental pollution, and building construction permits are all statistics that are maintained. However, since it is commonly agreed that quality of life includes important perceptual and subjective elements, there is need for indicators that reflect these elements as well as for indicators that tap the more objective components (Andrews & Withey, 1976). It has therefore become common to divide social indicators into two groups - objective and subjective. However, this classification is not very clear (Andrews & Withey, 1976). Presumably objective indicators from time to time involve subjective judgements. Conversely, it can be

argued that subjective indicators (such as peoples evaluation of their living conditions) provide rather direct and objective dimensions of what they intend to measure.

3.3.1 Personality Factors

The strongest and most reliable predictor of subjective well-being is a persons' personality. Studies about character and heritability have signified that genetic predispositions to be able to experience happiness or unhappiness in a certain manner clearly exist. These factors explain as much as 50 to 80 per cent of variance in short and long term subjective well-being which has lead to the proposition of a top-down model of subjective well-being. Personality predispositions of individuals are assumed to influence people to certain affective reactions, however, external conditions also influence an individual's subjective well-being (Diener & Lucas, 1999).

The self assessment of well-being and an individuals' response to unfolding events is also influenced by these personality differences. The data available for large sample analysis has only limited power to identify personality types, therefore the estimated responses to particular events will inevitably be an average across people with diverse characters and different views. This is why the explanatory power of equations based on individual and subjective responses is likely to be small (Helliwell, 2002).

There are several studies which give examples how personality factors influence subjective well-being. There is, for example, empirical evidence that some happy individuals show low self-esteem (Lyubomirsky, 2001), and that a pleasant appearance and beauty fail to differentiate very happy individuals from their less happy peers (Diener & Seligman, 2002).

Even though various indices of interpersonal and social activity are strongly linked with subjective well-being (Myers & Diener, 1995), these behaviours appear to be preconditions and are not a ''sufficient condition for high happiness'' (Diener & Seligman, 2002).

3.3.2 Cultural & Social Factors

It is very likely that cultural and societal differences are important determinants of differences in subjective well-being across nations (Diener, 2000a). Suitable variables and degrees of freedom are limited; this is why there may remain international differences in subjective well-being which cannot be fully described by measures about cultural and societal differences affecting well-being on hand (Helliwell, 2002).

The social milieu affects humans in being proactive and engaged, instead of being passive and neurotic as these reactions are mainly a function of the environment in which they develop and function (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Several cross-national studies of subjective well-being showed that a wide range of average happiness levels exist. These differences have been found to strongly correlate with such factors as a nation's wealth and other interconnected social indicators (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002). However, in contrast to these findings between nations, subjective well-being has not significantly increased over time in many industrialized nations (see Chapter 3.3.7), despite the fact that economic wealth has risen extensively (see Frey & Stutzer, 2000; Easterlin, 1995). This leads to the theory that other factors that influence the level of well-being experienced by individuals in a nation at a given point in time must exist. Cultural aspects are often mentioned as an additional factor influencing societal differences in subjective well-being.

3.3.3 Contextual and Situational Factors

Contextual factors also influence the subjective well-being of the individual. In the case of tourists, fellow travellers, staff interactions in the resort or contacts with other travellers might have an influence on their well-being. A ski- or surf-instructor giving compliments on the performance of a person has a significant effect on this persons' or others group members' subjective well-being.

Social comparisons also matter a great deal. In experiments, people care about how they are treated compared to those who are like them (for example skiers in a group), and in the laboratory they will even pay to hurt others to restore what they see as fairness (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2005). For tourists it therefore matters how their holiday experience differs compared to other holidaymakers.

3.3.4 Demographic Factors

For many decades, demographic factors such as age, gender, health and family circumstances have been extensively studied by psychologists (Frey & Stutzer, 2000). However, it has soon become clear that the demographic factors only account for a comparatively small percentage; between 8 and 20 per cent of the variance in subjective well-being measures account for differences in demographic factors. Nonetheless these effects are significant, important and hold up after control variables have been added up (Zyla, 2003).

3.3.4.1 Age

The relationship between age and subjective well-being seems to be quite moderate and points a small increase with age (Diener et al., 1999). Traditional surveys of subjective well-being, such as Myers (1992), Diener et al. (1999) and Argyle (2001), argue that happiness is either flat or only very slightly increasing in age. However, more recent studies have found that life satisfaction and subjective well-being across age cohorts is slightly U-shaped, declining in the beginning to a minimum point after which it increases in later life (Helliwell, 2002; Argyle, 1999; Blanchflower & Oswald, 2005). Even after correcting for potential confusing influences, there is now thought to be a convex link between reported well-being and age. This implies people over 60 years are in general happier than people who are less than 30 years old (Frey & Stutzer, 2000).

However, there is major discussion about the conclusion that well-being is U-shaped in age. Easterlin (2006) pointed out that the effect of an age variable is likely to be contaminated by misleading, omitted cohort effects. He argues that

earlier generations may have been born in particularly good or bad times and therefore report different subjective well-being. Consequently the U-shape in age, uncovered now by various authors, could be an artefact in data (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2007).

As explained above younger people often report lower life satisfaction scores than old people. This could, on the one hand, mean that young people in fact experience lower well-being. On the other hand, it is also possible that age has an influence on how people react and respond to questions about their subjective well-being. An observed statistical relationship could in this case reflect only a spurious correlation (Frey & Stutzer, 2001).

There is more than a theoretical possibility of this spurious correlation which can be shown by the following examples. The suicide levels seem to differ across age cohorts (Stockard & O'Brien, 2002) which would lead to the conclusion that subjective well-being also differs between these cohorts. Moreover Blanchflower and Oswald (2000) find some evidence of a rising well-being level among young people. Furthermore, there is also support that the levels of depression and psychic distress, measured constantly and consistently across cohorts, have risen in countries such as Great Britain (Sacker & Wiggins 2002). Nevertheless, these matters are still the subject of debate (Murphy et al., 2000; Paykel 2000).

Recent work by Clark and Oswald (2007) argues that with British panel data on well-being it can be shown that the U-shape in age can be entirely explained by the longitudinal element of the data set. Nonetheless, such research is rare and does not allow cohort effects to be examined in detail, and it seems important to inquire into the fundamentals of the U-shape in other nations (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2007).

3.3.4.2 Gender

Recent global subjective well-being studies have not found significant differences in happiness between men and women which leads to the conclusion that men both gender are approximately equally in how they experience well-being. In

studies where differences were observed, it was found that woman report slightly higher subjective well-being than men (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2005), however, the small differences often fade away as soon as control variables are introduced (Diener et al., 1999). For example, women are often happier than men because being a housewife has a positive effect on reported well-being (Frey & Stutzer, 2000).

3.3.4.3 Marital Status

In general it has been found that couples are happier than singles, single parents and people living in collective households (Frey & Stutzer, 2000). Marriage has been found to have the strongest correlates with subjective well-being. Married people report on average greater happiness than those who have never married or are divorced, separated or widowed.

Figure 2: Average Life Satisfaction for a Sample of German Woman (Clark et al. 2003) Note: A star indicates that life satisfaction is significantly different from the baseline level.

Diener et al. (2003) argued that life events, such as marriage, have substantial long-run effects on happiness and life satisfaction, however, other authors show that these effects are mainly temporary. Figure 2, drawn from Clark et al. (2003), illustrates this point. The figure shows yearly reported average life satisfaction for

a sample of 235 women in Germany. Life satisfaction rises in the year prior to marriage, basically after the engagement, and in the first year of marriage, but returns to the previous level after a short honeymoon period. The short effect of changes in life circumstances on reported satisfaction has been called the hedonistic treadmill, meaning that the effects of substantial life changes on subjective wellbeing are temporary.

The causal direction of marriage and subjective well-being is still in debate. There is some evidence from analysis of panel data that happy people are more likely to marry. However, this effect does not seem to be very strong (Diener et al., 1999).

Among the people who are not married those who live with a partner are found to be significantly happier than those who live alone. These effects are still found after controlling for age, gender, income and other variables (Argyle, 1999).

3.3.4.4 Education

Education has been shown to have quite small but significant positive effects on subjective well-being, although there has been some contradictory evidence (Clark & Oswald 1994). The correlations seem to be higher for lower income individuals as well as in poor countries (Diener et al., 1999).

Since education is closely related to professional status and income, at least part of the effect of education on subjective well-being can be explained by the co-variation with these two factors. Once it is controlled for income and job status, the effect of education becomes very small or even disappears completely (Argyle, 1999).

Furthermore, the relationship between education and subjective well-being shows sizeable variability across nations. Work has shown that the effect of education is weak in most European countries as well as in the United States, Japan and Singapore, while education has more effect in Nigeria, Mexico or South Korea (Argyle, 1999).

Based on the dataset of the World Values Survey Helliwell (2002) concluded that "those who have stayed in full-time education until a later age are not systematically more satisfied with their lives, once account has been taken of their incomes, wider participation and better health that might have been facilitated by their education" (Helliwell, 2002).

3.3.4.5 Health

Health, as perceived by the individual, is strongly correlated with subjective well-being. Self-reported health is in many works the most significant of all explanatory variables. However, objective health ratings often fail to show a significant connection.

The relationship between objective health and subjective well-being therefore seems to be strongly mediated by the individual's perception of his or her own health, nevertheless, personality as well as emotions consecutively influence the perception of health. Additionally, cognitive strategies are often employed when individuals face adverse impacts of illness or disability.

The human affectivity of adaptation is quite remarkable. Severely ill patients and accident victims reported a high level of subjective well-being. However, there are still small, but significant, differences in well-being ratings between their reports and the self-reports by non-patients and individuals with a good objective health condition. This implies that objective health may negatively influence subjective well-being, if the handicap of chronic illness is severe (Diener et al., 1999).

3.3.5 Institutional Factors

> "By institutions we mean the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction and the way societies evolve through time. Institutions are made up of formal constraints (rules, laws, constitutions), informal constraints (norms of behavior, conventions and self-imposed codes of conduct), and their enforcement characteristics." (Folke et al., 1997)

The political system people live in constantly effects their level of subjective well-being. People living in constitutional democracies are happier because the politicians are more encouraged to rule according to the interest of the people in this country. If politicians do not take the wishes of the population into account, they will not be re-elected and lose their influential power. Democratic institutions, in particular the right to personally participate in elections and vote on issues, contribute to citizens' happiness. (Frey & Stutzer, 2001).

Research in 49 countries in the 1980s and 1990s proposes that there are substantial well-being paybacks from factors such as improved accountability, effectiveness and stability of government, the rule of law and the control of corruption. The data shows that the effects flowing directly from the quality of the democratic institutions are often much larger than those which flow through productivity and economic growth (Helliwell, 2001).

For a tourist these factors are also of importance. The political system in a country or in the holiday destination influences her or his subjective well-being. Spending holidays in a politically stable country should have, based on the research above, a positive influence on a tourists subjective well-being, while a political instability or a conflict causes a negative effect.

3.3.6 Environmental Factors

The physical environment is strongly linked to the experience of subjective well-being because pollution or enhancement of the environment influences a person's health status and thus overall well-being. Subsequently, human activities, such as driving to work, living in larger homes or flying on holiday, affect the quality of the environment.

Most people assume that the external circumstances of others are powerful determinants of other people's subjective well being, in spite of the fact that such conditions would have little effect on their own subjective well-being (Schkade & Kahneman, 1998).

3.3.7 Economic Factors

The relationship between money, or more precisely, income and happiness has by far received the most attention by economists and other social scientists in the field of subjective well-being research (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002).

Standard microeconomic theory would predict that increasing income and thus higher consumption should lead to greater utility of the individual. This in turn would mean that people should be more satisfied and happy as their level of absolute income increases. Furthermore, from a macro economical view, when economies reach higher levels of material wealth through economic growth, individuals show increasing income levels and consequently increased consumption possibilities. This, on average, should increase the level of global subjective well-being.

Surveys show that in wealthy countries individuals with higher income are more positive in their lives than those with lower incomes. In 24 out of 28 countries surveyed by Eurobarometer, material well-being is identified as the most important criterion for life satisfaction (The Economist, 2005). However, the extensive empirical research shows models in subjective well-being that are significantly in conflict with this view. The relationship between income and happiness has in fact proven to be paradoxical.

3.3.7.1 Income

Individuals belonging to the upper income groups report higher subjective well-being than persons with low income. However, the augmentation in per capita income in recent decades has not raised the happiness in general as the indicators for subjective well-being have remained virtually constant over time (Frey & Stutzer, 2000). The increase in well-being over time generally shows a flat time-series. In the post war periods, for example, where per capita income increases considerably there is almost no increase in happiness detected (Easterlin, 1974).

Income increases the experience of happiness only once basic needs are met. When basic needs like hunger and housing are satisfied and people do have enough income so that absolute poverty has been eliminated, income almost does not matter any more for happiness (Veenhoven, 1991). It is supposed that once people in wealthy countries have satisfied their basic needs, additional income buys little if any extra happiness. Di Tella and MacCulloch (2008) also found that once basic needs have been satisfied, there is full adaptation to further economic growth, although that process may take a long period of time.

Easterlin (1995), for example, found that the average self-reported happiness level in Japan did not rise between 1958 and 1987, although real income increased by the factor five. Figure 3 presents related results for China, based on a sample of 15,000 individuals interviewed by the Gallup Organization. China experienced outstanding economic growth from 1994 to 2005, with real income per capita increasing by a factor of 2.5. This growth had considerable consequences for material well-being: ownership of colour television sets increased from 40 percent of the households in 1994 to 82 percent in 2005, and the fraction of the population with a telephone jumped from 10 per cent to 63 percent. Yet Figure 3 indicates no increase in reported life satisfaction from 1994 to 2005; in fact, the percentage of dissatisfied people increased, and the percentage of satisfied Chinese has decreased at the same time.

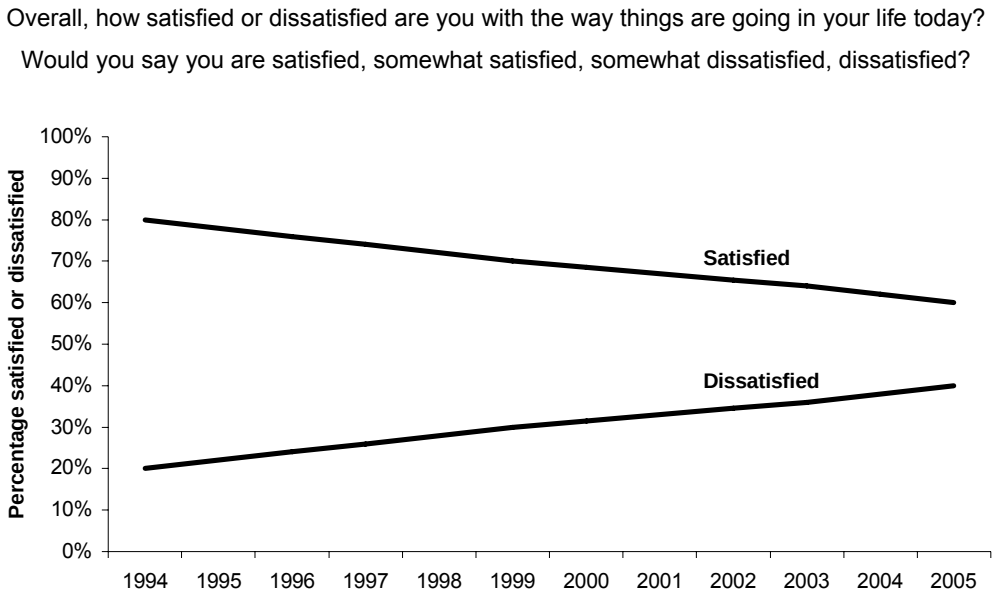

Figure 3: Life Satisfaction in China as Real Income Rises (Easterlin, 1995)

Easterlin (1995) recognizes that people with higher income are on average happier, but increasing everybody's income does not raise everybody's happiness. Compared to others income has not improved but stayed at the same level and global subjective well-being does not therefore increase. This interpretation of the data is supported by laboratory findings showing the importance of relative judgements and comparisons for happiness (Frey & Stutzer, 2001).

In contrast to these longitudinal findings for single nations, per capita income levels and happiness are more strongly positively related across nations (Frey & Stutzer, 2000). The Economist (2005) reported that the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita explains more than 50 percent of the inter-country differences in well-being with a relationship which is estimated to be linear.

3.3.7.2 Unemployment and Inflation

The influence of two other major economic variables, unemployment and inflation, is clear cut. Unemployment leads to significant unhappiness. Clark and Oswald (1994) and Oswald (1997) find that individual's rate the subjective cost of unemployment much higher than the consequent loss of money. As the income level is kept constant, the influence is not due to lower income but to non-pecuniary stress. In terms of substitution, the result suggests that a much higher income would be required to reimburse individuals for being out of work (Frey & Stutzer, 2000).

Individuals also strongly dislike inflation, represented in lower happiness levels in times of high inflation. However, even though inflation and unemployment are both found to be costly, relative to the well-being effects of higher incomes, the trade-off estimated from the well-being data attaches a much higher relative weight to unemployment than to inflation. This trade-off was implicit in the often used misery index[3].

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[3] Misery Index: the sum of the percentage unemployment rate and the current annual rate of inflation

3.4 Studies on Subjective Well-Being

Since the works of Andrews and Withey (1976) and Cantril (1965), the scientific study of happiness has become a popular topic in the social sciences (Diener et al., 1999; Frey & Stutzer, 2002; Kahneman, 1999; Michalos, 1985; Veenhoven, 1994). In a seminal work, Diener (1984) proposed subjective well-being as a more precise scientific concept for the broad and ambiguous concept of happiness.

There has been much work on well-being over the years, and over 300 articles surveyed by Diener et al. (1999) show that there has been an increase in interest during the last decades.

The foundation of most of the recent work is the earlier survey by Wilson (1967). He examined the evidence on the constituents of happiness which were much more limited in the 1960s. The list of attributes of the typical happy person Wilson proposed has notable similarities to the ones found by Aristotle in ancient Greece. He attributes happiness to the “young, healthy, well-educated, job morale, modest aspirations, of either gender and a wide range of intelligence.” (Wilson, 1967).

Outside the psychological literature, there has been work using measures of well-being in the analysis of economic and social policies (Helliwell, 2002). For example Di Tella et al. (2000) have used examined measures of subjective well-being to evaluate the short-term welfare trade-off between inflation and unemployment.

The survey instruments which were used in early work usually posed a single question about people’s happiness or life satisfaction. Andrews and Withey (1976), for example, found that a single universal question about people’s overall evaluation of their lives yielded scores that converge well with each another and that such simple measures acquire a certain degree of validity. As subjective well-being research matured, more multi-item scales were developed, with greater reliability and validity than single-item instruments. Multi-item life satisfaction, pleasant affect and unpleasant affect scales were examined by

Lucas, Diener and Suh (1996) who demonstrated factors which were separable from each other in addition to other psychological constructs like self-esteem. A huge number of happiness, affect, and life satisfaction measures are now available (Andrews & Robinson, 1992).

3.5 Measurement of Subjective Well-Being

The measurement of subjective well-being has been studied by social scientists and psychologists for several decades. Many measurement tools used today to compute subjective well-being are based on revolutionary research by Cantril (1965), Wilson (1967), Bradburn (1969), Andrews and Whitey (1976) and others.

The subjective nature of the well-being concept obviously requires an interaction between the investigator and the individual being evaluated. Traditionally this has been done through personal interviews, such as clinical interviews in hospitals or life-review questionnaires. Steadily more and more longitudinal and panel data, that includes information about the respondents subjective well-being over time is now becoming accessible. This now available data on subjective well-being has been used by economists to examine both macro-economic and micro-economic questions (Diener et al., 2002).

In recent studies traditional measurements have been complimented by contemporary methods such as experience sampling techniques, scoring qualitative descriptions of peoples' lives, measuring reactions to emotionally ambiguous stimuli and recording people's memories for good and bad (Diener et al., 1999). Ongoing research, further explanation and key findings in the field of psychology, biochemistry and especially neurobiology should expand the scope of research considerably, opening up a whole new level of methods (Kahnemann et al., 1999).

Using experiments, data samples and more complex statistical analysis to study partial effects, causal pathways and non-linearities plenty of new results could be gathered during the last decades. Pleasant affect, unpleasant affect, and life satisfaction could be identified as separable constructs by these experiments

(Diener et al., 1999). Positive and negative affect showed to be more responsive to short-term influences therefore much of the well-being literature has focused on the more long-term life satisfaction measurements (Helliwell, 2002). However, for the purpose of investigating short-term subjective well-being of tourists positive and negative affects are more useful.

3.5.1 Self-report instruments

If direct reports of subjective well-being can be done in a reliable way with little if any bias they have a useful role in the measurement of consumer satisfaction and social welfare. According to a tabulation of EconLit more than 100 papers were written between 2001 and 2005, analyzing data on self reported life satisfaction or happiness, up from just four from 1991 to 1995 (Kahnemann & Krüger, 2006).

3.5.2 Global Reports of Subjective Well-Being

As pointed out above the characteristic of subjective well-being instruments is that they generally include a personal contact between the researcher and the respondent and most commonly a single global question is posed: people are asked to evaluate their lives as a whole or some aspect of it in traditional questionnaires. The questions can be relatively simple and general and serve as a global report of the individuals' subjective well-being. A quite common and frequently used example is: 'Taking all things together, would you say you are …: very happy, quite happy, not very happy or not at all happy' (van Hoorn, 2007).

The World Values Survey investigates subjective well-being in 81 countries by asking, 'All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?' The General Social Survey similarly asks Americans, 'Taken all together, how would you say things are these days? Would you say that you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?' The questions are straightforward and easy to understand; therefore respondents have little trouble answering these questions. Less than one percent of the respondents in the 1998 General

Social Survey, for example, refused to provide an answer at all or answered ‘don’t know’; by contrast, in the same study 17 percent of respondents refused to provide their income (Kahnemann & Krüger, 2006).

Compared to online reports, global reports of subjective well-being are also valuable, because they offer an insight into the fascinating psychological process of how individuals construct global judgements about their lives. A person has to evaluate his or her life as a whole in global subjective well-being reports. This synopsis may only be moderately correlated with on-line reports (Diener et al., 2002). If subjective well-being is valued in a country the individuals are more likely to give more weight to their most positive areas in calculating a global well-being and life satisfaction judgement while people in cultures where happiness is not a central value are more likely to give weight to their most negative domains in calculating a life satisfaction judgement (Diener, 2000b).

More elaborate measurements use multiple items to target a specific part of subjective well-being and consequently render more reliable results than single-item measures do, because people know which specific area they should rate.

3.5.3 Multi-Item Scales to Measure Subjective Well-Being

When multiple-item scales are used, generally higher correlations are generated. Using a five-item life satisfaction measure, for example, Lucas et al. (1996) reported a test-retest correlation of 0.77 over four weeks. In contrast studies where the respondents were re-evaluated and self-reported levels of education or earnings had to be indicated a second time typically found correlations around 0.90. Kahnemann and Krüger (2006) suggest that due to the lower but significant correlation of the repeated measures of life satisfaction “the data may be reliable enough for many purposes, but that current mood and context cause fluctuations in people’s answers from day to day“ (Kahnemann & Krüger, 2006).

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson et al. (1988) and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) by Diener et al., (1985) are two of the most commonly used multi-item scales. The SWLS is based on

measuring the cognitive well-being of the individual while positive affect and negative affect measures comprise the PANAS.

3.5.3.1 The Satisfaction with Life Scale

For the assessment of cognitive well-being typically scales with one or more life satisfaction items are used (Andrews & Whitey, 1976). The judgements derived from these results are likely to be based on heuristics, however, a lot of empirical research has shown that life satisfaction judgments are highly correlated with more comprehensive assessments of satisfaction in important life domains (Andrews & Whitey 1976; Schimmack & Oishi, 2005), and show convergent validity with informant ratings (Schimmack & Diener, 2003; Schimmack et al., 2004).

For the Satisfaction With Life Scale (see Appendix A), developed by Diener et al. (1985), life satisfaction assessment is distinguished from affective appraisal in that it is more cognitively than emotionally driven. In the SWLS individuals are asked about the extent to which they agree or disagree with certain statements (van Hoorn, 2007).

Life satisfaction can be assessed specific to a particular domain of life or globally. The SWLS is a global measure of overall life satisfaction and therefore not used for defined periods (e.g. holidays) of life. The SWLS is narrowly focused to assess global life satisfaction and does not tap related constructs such as positive affect or loneliness.

The SWLS is well known for having high internal consistency, high temporal reliability and favourable psychometric properties. Diener et al (1985) argue that “scores on the SWLS correlate moderately to highly with other measures of subjective well-being, and correlate predictably with specific personality characteristics” (Diener et al., 1985). The authors also noted that the SWLS is suited for use with different age groups.

3.5.3.2 The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

Positive and negative affect have constantly emerged as two dominant and relatively independent dimensions when studying affect. To measure the two affect factors various mood scales have been developed. Many of these existing measures are, however, inadequate, showing low reliability or poor convergent or discriminant validity (Watson et al., 1988).

Watson et al. (1988) developed in the 1980's two 10-item mood scales that comprise the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) to satisfy the need for more reliable and valid positive affect and negative affect scales (see Appendix B). The scales are brief and easy to administer for the researcher. Each of the twenty items is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 'very slightly or not at all' to 'extremely' (Brief et al., 1988) and respondents are asked to indicate the degree to which they felt this way during a given period. Watson et al. (1988) have used the scale to measure affect at a specific moment, today, the past few days, the past week, the past few weeks, the past year, and generally (on average), therefore the scale is also useful and applicable for the measurement of a holiday.

The PANAS is very flexible because it does not specify particular feelings and emotions which have to be used. Many different combinations are possible and can be adapted to the needs of the study at hand. Possible items are interested, distressed, excited, upset, strong, guilty, etc. (van Hoorn, 2007).

3.5.4 Methods to Measure Subjective Well-Being

The method through which subjective well-being studies is gained is a critical aspect of measuring subjective well-being. Commonly used measurement approaches are the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) or Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA) and the Day Reconstruction Method (DRM; van Hoorn, 2007).

3.5.4.1 Experience Sampling Method or Ecological Momentary Assessment

In a real life setting it is not very practical to ask respondents to take calls or fill in questionnaires to indicate their feelings and emotions at selected moments of the day. To facilitate the data collection in real time in natural settings for the researcher and respondent the ESM was developed to collect information (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Stone & Shiffman, 1994).

New technologies like handheld computers and smart phones have facilitated the data collection in experience sampling. The researcher can prompt the respondent at any given time of the day and ask them to indicate their feelings and emotions. The respondents get different menus where they have to indicate what they are doing right now, where they are and with whom. Furthermore they are asked to indicate the extent to which they experience the presence or absence of various feelings and emotions, such as being annoyed, cheerful, tired and impatient (Kahnemann & Krüger,2006). Easy to understand software applications ensure that a single 'interruption' does not take longer than a few minutes.

Experience Sampling Method or Ecological Momentary Assessment allows the researcher to gather and solicit frequent and immediate reports from individuals in their natural surrounding which provides important advantages compared to self-appraisals (see Stone et al., 1999). The reports are completed in a non-experimental setting and are therefore not distorted by extraordinary circumstances such as being in a laboratory, it can be said that the method has high 'ecological validity'.
Furthermore, ESM and EMA are not limited to self-reports, they can also be drawn by randomly-timed reports on the details of an individual's (momentary) environment. In following analysis, environmental conditions can easily be related to the persons' affective measurement (van Hoorn, 2007).

Retrospective biases can be substantial in analysis, one of the major advantages of ESM and EMA is that the retrospective distortion can be avoided with momentary appraisals. Finally, high-frequency evaluations can increase the reliability and validity of subjective well-being measures and improve its empirical

analysis. However, the ESM and EMA method is expensive as expensive technology is needed and it is difficult to implement the method in large samples (Krüger & Schkade, 2007).

ESM and EMA are also very flexible in the way in which measurement method is used. The SWLS, a PANAS scale, a physiological test (for instance blood pressure or brain activity measurements) or even a combination of the different measures can be used. Furthermore it is not predefined how the actual data sampling has to be carried out, although the measures have to be practical. Modern information- and communication technologies offer various interesting possibilities: respondents fill in questionnaires on their devices, responses are immediately sent to a database and calculations can be carried out within a very short time period.

3.5.4.2 Day Reconstruction Method

Experience sampling methods are difficult to implement for large samples, therefore an alternative which is also not strongly biased by retrospective distortion was developed (Kahnemann & Krüger, 2006). The Day Reconstruction Method (DRM) shares most of the advantages of ESM/EMA but appears overall to be more practical because devices to report emotions immediately are not needed. Participants in the study are asked to fill out a daily report summarizing episodes that occurred in the preceding 24 hours. Next they describe each episode in detail and indicate:

- when the episode took place (beginning and end),
- choose an activity from a provided list,
- report their geographic location, and
- give detailed information about people they interacted with

To determine their feelings and emotions during each episode, respondents are asked to report the intensity of their feelings along different categories on a six-point scale from ‘Not at all’ to “Very Much”. The anchor ‘Not at all’ is a natural zero point that is likely to have a common meaning across respondents for the

descriptors which are usually adjectives which describe affective dimension, for example happy, angry, etc.

The DRM is also flexible in which instrument is used to measure subjective well-being. Kahneman et al. (2004) used a simple global question in their research; however, the DRM can be carried out with any other subjective well-being scale as well.

The DRM evidently involves reminding events and situations, but its special design increases the accuracy of emotional recall by inducing retrieval of the specifics of successive episodes (Robinson & Clore, 2002; Belli, 1998). The major advantage is that the DRM provides data on time-use, a valuable source of information in its own right, which has rarely been combined with the study of SWB (Krüger & Schkade, 2007).

3.5.5 Reliability and Validity of Subjective Well-Being Measurements

Continually refining the subjective well-being measures is a major goal of researchers. Earlier research has proven, that conservative and straightforward single-item measures of happiness are robust, but the measures are prone to cultural bias (Diener & Suh, 2000) and a reliable global comparison of subjective well-being is not possible. However, for perfect measurements the results should be comparable across cultures (Veenhoven, 2006).

Conservative measures of subjective well-being typically use a scale with abstract or hypothetical values ranging from very positive values to very negative values. Typical scales range from ‘delighted’ to ‘terrible’, the ‘best’ or ‘worst possible’, or ‘very satisfied’ to ‘very dissatisfied’ (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Cantril, 1965). However, it is known that, for example, Westerners and Asians understand and use such scales very differently (Diener & Suh, 2000; Lau et al., 2005) because respondents do often not associate the same degree of subjective experience with a certain score on the scale. However, there is a lot of indirect evidence that interpersonal comparability is much less of a problem practically than theoretically.

The validity of self-reported subjective well-being measurement instruments is another major concern of researchers in this field (Diener et al., 2002). Similar to biases from social acceptance, individuals might report that they are happy but in reality do not truly experience high subjective well-being. However, Sandvik, Diener and Seidlitz (1993) found out that other types of assessments like specialist evaluations based on interviews with respondents, ESM, participants' recall of positive and negative events in their lives, the reports of family and friends, and smile measurement are comparable with self-report measures. Despite the positive psychometric qualities of global subjective well-being measures, many authors recommend a multi-method series to assess subjective well-being.

Kahnemann (1999) suggested that data collected with the ESM offer the most accurate approximation of subjective well-being because they are the least biased by artefacts and distortions.

The factors of subjective well-being are usually investigated under the assumption that subjective well-being is measurable and comparable between individuals. Economists are not convinced about these claims and to avoid problems with the interpretation of subjective well-being variables, the subjective data is often treated qualitatively in economic analysis (Frey & Stutzer, 2000).

Nevertheless, measures of subjective well-being are in general of high consistency, reliability and validity. Moreover, the measures of subjective well-being are very stable over time and are not systematically biased with regard to social desirability (Frey & Stutzer, 2000).

4 SATISFACTION & SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING OF TOURISTS

In the tourism and hospitality industry customer satisfaction is one of the most examined topics because it is very important for the survival of any tourism products (Gursoy et al., 2003, 2007) because tourist satisfaction has been considered as a tool for increasing destination competitiveness (Konstantinos et al., 2008).

4.1 The Tourism Product

The product on offer in the tourism industry has to be understood to be the destination with its environment, social interactions and economic activities. The main product is composed of many sub-products including transportation to and from the destination, food, drinks, participation in sports activities, purchases in sports and cloths shops, souvenirs and many other. All these sub-products comprise together the product bought by tourists, the vacation package (Pizam et al., 1978).

Echtner and Ritchie (1993) define the tourism product by its tangibility. According to these authors a destination consists of a combination of tangible and intangible elements. Yuksel and Yuksel (2001) argue that “various positive and negative experiences may occur as a result of interactions with these components [attributes], and it is the cumulative effect that will ultimately determine the tourists' overall evaluation of the experience”.

Thus, a destination is “the location of a cluster of attractions and related tourist facilities and services which a tourist or tour group selects to visit or which providers choose to promote” (McIntyre, 1993).

Because of the many different sub-products it is important to measure tourists’ satisfaction with individual destination characteristic as well as tourists’ overall satisfaction with the holiday destination. Assessing individual attributes will make it easier to detect areas of strengths or shortfalls within the destination.

4.2 Tourist Satisfaction

> "Customer satisfaction is a psychological concept that involves the feeling of well-being and pleasure that results from obtaining what one hopes for and expects from an appealing product and/or service." (WTO, 1985)

Tourist satisfaction is, based on the definition, a post-consumption evaluation (Tse and Wilton, 1988) of the product received. According to Kozak and Rimmington (2000) tourist satisfaction greatly influences the tourist's choice of holiday destination, the way of consuming products and services, and the decision to re-visit the destination in the future.

However, satisfaction is experienced very individually because customers have different needs, objectives and past experiences that influence their expectations and not everyone gets the same satisfaction out of the same holiday experience. Each individual tourist undergoes a distinct holiday experience which causes a certain level of well-being. This subjective well-being can serve as an indirect measurement of the resorts ability to offer an individual holiday and recreation experience, and consequently, to deliver a tourist site attractiveness (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2005).

Researchers have proposed several approaches to examine customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, the expectancy-confirmation-disconfirmation theory proposed by Oliver (1980) and the Service Quality (SERVQUAL) approach by Parasuraman et al. (1988) are most widely used.

4.2.1 Expectancy-Confirmation-Disconfirmation Theory

According to the expectancy-confirmation-disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980; Pizam & Elis, 1999) customers purchase goods and services like holidays with pre-purchase expectations about the performance. Once the product or service has been purchased and used, results are compared against the expected product. When the outcome matches expectations, confirmation occurs.

If there is a gap between expectations and outcomes disconfirmation occurs. Negative disconfirmation occurs when product/service performance is less than expected. Positive disconfirmation occurs when product/service performance is better than expected. Satisfaction is caused by confirmation or positive disconfirmation of consumer expectations, and dissatisfaction is caused by negative disconfirmation of consumer expectations.

According to the definition of customer satisfaction by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1985) tourists experience well-being when they are satisfied with the holiday product they experience and confirmation or positive disconfirmation occurs.

4.2.2 The SERVQUAL model

The SERVQUAL model was developed to assist service providers by identifying their strengths and weaknesses. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) developed the model which is an analytical instrument including 22 items to evaluate five key service factors which are described in detail in figure 4: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. The authors found that the five-dimensional set-up of SERVQUAL allows researchers to assess the level of service quality along each dimension, as well as overall. The SERVQUAL model serves as a method to identify areas of weaknesses and strengths in the quality of service a company/destination delivers.

tangibles	Appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials
reliability	Ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately
responsiveness	Willingness to help customers and provide prompt service
assurance	Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence
empathy	Represents provision of caring, individualized attention to customers

Figure 4: Five Dimensions of SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, 1988)

The SERVQUAL instrument has been introduced in modified variations as a suitable instrument to measure perceived service quality within a wide range of service offers including the tourism and travel industry (Fick & Ritchie, 1991). However, the model only provides a rough structure or skeleton and thus has had to be modified and tailored to assess specific services in the tourism and hospitality industry. This has led to numerous tourism specific SERVQUAL models, for example the REQUAL model developed by MacKay and Crompton (1988).

4.2.3 Drawbacks of Tourist Satisfaction Models

The Expectancy-Confirmation-Disconfirmation and SERVQUAL model have offered a model for measuring service quality for over 20 years. However, some researchers have recommended that specifically for providers of tourism services individual measurement scales are necessary. It is considered that scales which are meant to evaluate the five SERVQUAL dimensions may not correctly reflect tourists' satisfaction levels (Teas, 1993). Fick and Ritchie (1991) suggested that qualitative methods are needed to examine service quality in the tourism industry accurately and in more detail.

Furthermore, there is major discussion about the focus on expectations when measuring tourist satisfaction. Tourist expectations may change (Ryan, 1995), they may be unclear or vague (Crompton & Love, 1995) or tourists may not have any expectations and may be driven by an element of surprise (Pearce, 2005).

The psychological well-being or long-term satisfaction commonly labelled eudemonia (Pearce, 2007) also received very limited attention by tourist satisfaction researchers (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004).

The tourist's actual experience which is based on interactions and contacts between individuals is probably the best indicator of service quality in the tourism and hospitality industry. As a result, future studies of tourism service

quality should evaluate the tourist's experience, instead of the gap between expectations and performance, as Otto and Ritchie (1996) stated.

The subjective well-being approach in this empirical study is not based on expectations but on the tourists' actual experience. Expectations can be modify very easily or be unclear (Ryan, 1995) and vacationers may inflate their expectations (Babakus & Boller, 1992) without any evidence. The psychological methods to measure happiness and subjective well-being can be used to evaluate satisfaction with the tourism experience without being biased by expectations. Both cognitive and affective dimensions of satisfaction can be assessed via the happiness methods.

4.3 Tourist Well-Being

The concept of tourist well-being is multidimensional and signifies what the holiday has been or represented for the tourist: total leisure experience, mental escape and relaxation, pleasure in unique experiences, physical well-being, et cetera (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2005).

If the territory is analysed as if it were a company, then we can hypothesize that a tourist resort should be able to manage its resources efficiently and effectively. A destination will be effective when it can maximize the tourist well-being level compared to its key competitors with its given resources and inputs (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2005).

Not only the destination influences tourist well-being, also 'stressors'[4] caused by taking the risk of travelling to a destination have major influence on a tourist's subjective well-being.

While recreational tourism is motivated, in part, by the need to escape stress, holiday can be a generator of stressful circumstances. The sources of stress are

[4] Stressors are situations that are experienced as a perceived threat to one's wellbeing. The challenge of dealing with these situations exceeds the person's perceived available resources.

potentially many for the holiday-maker in a foreign country with a different culture, a language which the holiday-maker may not speak, and customs which are unfamiliar. Stress can be defined as levels of arousal which are so high as to induce feelings of anxiety, and where further arousal begins to induce lower levels of effective performance (Ryan, 1995).

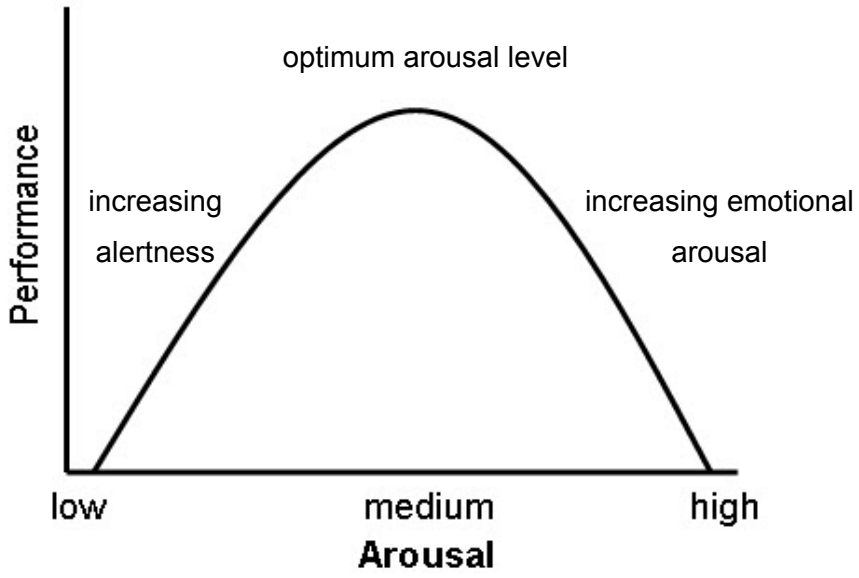

Figure 5: The Yerkes-Dodson Law (adapted from Yerkes & Dodson, 1908)

The Yerkes-Dodson law describes the empirical connection between arousal and performance. The law has originally been developed by the two psychologists Robert M. Yerkes and John D. Dodson (1908).

The ‘law’ argues for an inverted U-shape relationship between performance and levels of arousal (see figure 5). A certain amount of arousal is necessary in order to perform at your best. Too little arousal causes weak performance - perhaps because of the orientation and attention aspects of arousal. Negative effects of arousal begin to kick in when the person experiences too much arousal. Stress can be the results. This may be particularly true for the less experienced foreign traveller.

Gray (1987) proposes a categorisation of four components of stress that is applicable to recreation and tourism. The ‘stressors’ are:

- **Intensity**: The demand of the task and self-assessment of ability to cope with those demands. A skiing holiday can, for example, be very stressful for a person because the activity is not familiar and too demanding, arousal is too high.

- **Social Interaction**: The relationships incurred in being part of a group. Going on holiday with family and friends can be relaxing for some people while others experience a high level arousal and stress by being part a social group.

- **Novelty**: The creation of concern by being in a new and unfamiliar environment. Tourists need some time to get familiar with the destination and its facilities.

- **Specific Situations**: The development of perceived stress that is caused within a specific set of circumstances.

Each of these reasons for stress might be seen as possessing the nature of a continuum. Intensity may be associated with concepts of challenge which can be overcome, social interaction poses opportunities as well as threats and novelty of environment has long been regarded as a motivation for travel, while specific situations might well pose opportunities for significant satisfactory experiences. It has also been recognised that stress is a facilitator of performance under certain situations (Ryan, 1995).

Subjective Well-being is thus the consequence of needs satisfaction and the avoidance of stressors of individual tourists.

4.4 The Importance of Flow Experiences in Tourism

It can be pointed out while tourists may return to their favourite resort, the holiday experience is never entirely duplicated. Prior knowledge of an area changes search activity, different tourists staying at the resort generate new patterns of inter-tourist interaction while some familiarity of the place might change tourist-

host relationship. Activities may be the same within the same place, but past experience changes the satisfaction to be derived from those actions. Past experience also changes expectations of the place. The theory of 'flow' and arousal (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988) helps the researcher to distinguish between those actions that generate positive satisfaction and those that cause boredom.

4.4.1 Definition of Flow

Flow research has yielded an answer to what constitutes a good life or in our case a good holiday, providing an understanding of experiences during which individuals are fully involved in the present moment. Viewed through the experiential lens of flow, a good life is one that is characterized by complete absorption in what one does (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

Csikszentmihalyi (1975; 2000; 1996; 1997a) has suggested that happiness or well-being depends on whether a person is able to derive flow from whatever he or she does:

> "You lose your sense of time, you're completely enraptured, you are completely caught up in what you're doing, and you are sort of swayed by the possibilities you see in this work. If that becomes too powerful, then you get up, because the excitement is too great…The idea is to be so, so saturated with it that there's no future or past, it's just an extended present in which you are…making meaning. And dismantling meaning, and remaking it." (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996, p. 121)

Studying the creative process in the 1960s (Getzels & Csikszentmihalyi, 1976) Csikszentmihalyi was stuck by the fact that when work on a painting was going on well, the artist seemed to be single-minded and capable of ignoring hunger, tiredness or discomfort. However, he or she rapidly lost interest in the artistic creation once it had been completed. The flow theory has its origin in an aspiration to understand this phenomenon of intrinsically motivated, or autotelic,

activity[5], quite apart from its end product or any extrinsic good that might result from the activity.

4.4.2 Experiencing Flow

Csikszentmihalyi (1975; 2000) interviewed sportsman, rock climbers, dancers and others who emphasize enjoyment as the main reason for pursuing an activity. As a result of these interviews he formulated the two conditions of flow:

- **Perceived challenges**: actions that stretch but not overmatch or underutilize existing skills; challenges that are appropriate to one's level of capacities

- **Clear goals and immediate feedback**

Being in flow is "the way that some interviewees described the subjective experience of engaging just-manageable challenges by tackling a series of goals, continuously processing feedback about progress, and adjusting action based on this feedback" (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Under these conditions, experience unfolds from instant to instant, and one enters a subjective state with the following characteristics:

- Intense and focused concentration on what one is doing in the moment
- Merging of action and awareness
- Loss of reflective self-consciousness
- A feeling that one can control one's actions; that is, a sense that one can in principle deal with the situation because one knows how to respond to whatever happens next
- Distortion of temporal experience
- Experience of the activity as intrinsically rewarding, such that often the end result is just an excuse for the process but not the main goal

[5] An autotelic activity is rewarding in and of itself, the person is having a purpose in and not apart from itself.

Attention plays an important role in entering and staying in flow. How interests have been focused in the past and how they are focused in the present by the individual influences the entering of flow. Attention and interest developed towards an activity in the past will direct attention to specific challenges (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

The phenomenology of flow reflects processes of attention and inattention. Focused, deep concentration, perhaps the defining quality of flow, describes how attention is completely absorbed by the present exchange. Action and awareness become one and there is no spare attention that might allow interruptions beyond the immediate interaction to enter the individuals' awareness. The passage of time, a basic parameter of experience, becomes distorted because attention is so fully focused on the activity.

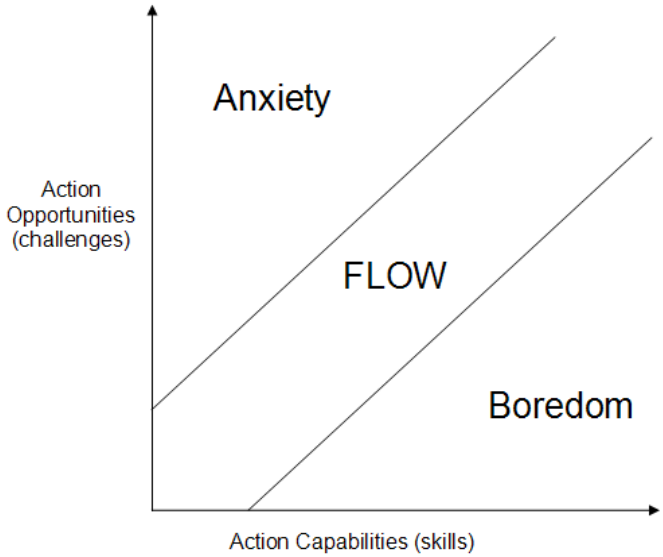

Figure 6: The Model of the Flow State (adapted from Csikszentmihalyi, 2000)

Staying in flow requires that attention can be held up by the narrow stimulus field. Apathy, boredom, and anxiety, like flow, are largely functions of how attention is focused at a given time. Figure 6 makes clear that in boredom, and even more so in apathy, the low level of challenge relative to skills allows attention to shift. In anxiety, perceived challenges exceed capacities, so the attention of the individual

shifts. Particularly in contexts of extrinsic motivation, attention drifts to the self and its shortcomings, creating self-consciousness that impedes engagement of the challenges (Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

4.4.3 Flow and Subjective Well-Being of Tourists

For Csikszentmihalyi the concept of flow was very important in understanding "the strivings of the self and the quality of individual well-being" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988), and thus essential in the creation of humans. Holidays are a reward for work, they are a period of recreation which is imperative to enable people to continue work and furthermore, a commoditisation of the periods of rest, leisure and recreation. Csikszentmihalyi's concept of flow has important implications for any overall assessment of the holiday experience.

The relationship between flow and subjective well-being is not entirely self-evident. When we are in flow, we do not usually feel happy, because in flow we feel only what is relevant to the activity. Happiness is a distraction and it is only after we get out of flow, at the end of the autotelic activity, that we might be able to feel happy. When the work is completed the rush of well-being, of satisfaction comes and in the long run, the more flow we experience in daily life, the more likely we are able to feel happy overall (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997b). Autotelic persons, those who are often in flow, are likely to also report more positive feelings and emotions overall and to experience higher subjective well-being and life satisfaction (Adlai-Gail, 1994; Hektner, 1996).

Csikszentmihalyi (1999) shows with the phenomenon of flow that it is possible to achieve states of subjective well-being by so many different routes: either by material wealth and social power or by relinquishing them; by cherishing either loneliness or close interpersonal relations; through ambition or disinterest; through the pursuit of objective sciences or through religious practice (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999).

People are happy and confident not because of what they do, but because of the way they do it. If they can experience flow working on the assembly line, chances

are they will be happy, whereas if they don't have flow while lounging at a luxury resort, they are not going to be happy. Therefore it is very important for tourists to experience flow during a holiday (e.g. while skiing, horse riding or eating dinner) in order to feel well and happy during their stay.

Nevertheless, flow alone does not guarantee a happy life and a happy holiday. It is also necessary to find flow in activities that are complex, namely, activities that provide a potential for growth over an entire holiday, allow for the emergence of new opportunities for action, and stimulate the development of new skills. A person who never learns to enjoy the company of others and who finds few opportunities within a meaningful social context is unlikely to achieve inner harmony (Csikszentmihalyi, 1993; Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1998; Inghilleri, 1999), but when flow comes from active physical, mental, or emotional involvement - from work, sports, hobbies, meditation, and interpersonal relationships - then the chances for a complex time that leads to happiness improve (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999).

4.4.4 Boredom during Holidays

When an individual experiences flow he or she operates at full personal capacity (de Charms, 1968; Deci, 1975). To enter flow the individual has to establish an intrinsically fragile balance between perceived action capacities and perceived action opportunities (see Figure 6). If skills are not developed enough to handle the challenge the individual first becomes vigilant and then anxious; if skills begin to exceed challenges, the individual first relaxes and than becomes bored. Experiencing anxiety or boredom forces a person to adjust his or her level of skills and/or challenge in order to escape the aversive state and enter flow again (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002).

It is considered with the Yerkes-Dodson law as well as with the components of flow, that in sufficient levels, stimulation can generate boredom. The level of a person’s arousal therefore allows distinction between relaxation, which is a major motivator for going on holiday, and boredom. For a tourist it is important to

experience a level of arousal that is sufficient for relaxation, but is not as low as to induce boredom (Ryan, 1997).

Iso-Ahola and Weissenegger (1990) define boredom within the area of leisure in terms of available recreation time. According to the authors too much time for the task at hand generates boredom, as can too little time. Connected to this is the nature of the task and its ability to challenge the individual given the skill of the participant. Research indicates that factors linked with boredom include skill, challenge, habituation and familiarity, novelty and available time (Hill & Perkins, 1985; Iso-Ahola & Weissenegger, 1990; Voelkl & Ellis, 1990; Patrick, 1982) Boredom is described as being a sense of dissatisfaction, disinclination to action, longing with an inability to designate what is longed for, a passive expectant attitude, a sense that time hangs heavy or stands still, and a sense of emotional bankruptcy.

Hill and Perkins (1985) even associate boredom with frustration, noting that frustration occurs when a restriction of either time or challenge exists, thereby limiting the availability of an optimally satisfying behaviour. It can be argued that frustration is associated with higher levels of arousal, and with a sense of helplessness arising from an inability to exercise control, which may be a stage that precedes apathy whereby the inability to influence events leads to a lapse of action. Within the holiday industry it can be suggested that this mode of behaviour is exhibited in the delay of aircraft, particularly in the case of returning home from a package holiday where the tourist is in a foreign milieu (Ryan, 1995).

5 ANALYSIS OF SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING OF TOURISTS

If any of the destinations' attributes has poor performance, dissatisfaction can be expressed. As explained by Pizam et al. (1978) a 'halo effect' may occur, wherein satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one of the components leads to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the total tourism product. It is very important to identify and measure tourist well-being with each of the components. Consequently several questions evaluating the tourists' satisfaction and subjective well-being with the specific tourism product and services of the hotel and the destination are included in this study.

5.1 Method

5.1.1 Participants

Data was collected from 117 tourists (66 females, 51 males) in two four star hotels in Austrian ski resorts. Tourists who stay 7 days were recruited on the basis of their German language skills. The mean age of the sample was 54 years (SD = 12) with a range of 13 to 76 years.

The sample was composed of 97 tourists from Germany, eleven people from Belgium, six Dutch tourists and three Austrian visitors. Of these tourists two were unemployed, 73 were employed, 29 were retired, seven were self-employed, five respondents took care of the household and one tourist was a full time student.

The majority of the respondents travelled with their partner (102), 28 respondents were accompanied by their children. Other fellow travellers were mothers (9), fathers (8), other family members (9) or friends (23).

Usually the winter holiday (although the respondents all stayed for a full week) is not perceived as the main holiday. 91 respondents classify this holiday as not being the main holiday, while 26 respondents do indicate that this is their major holiday this year.

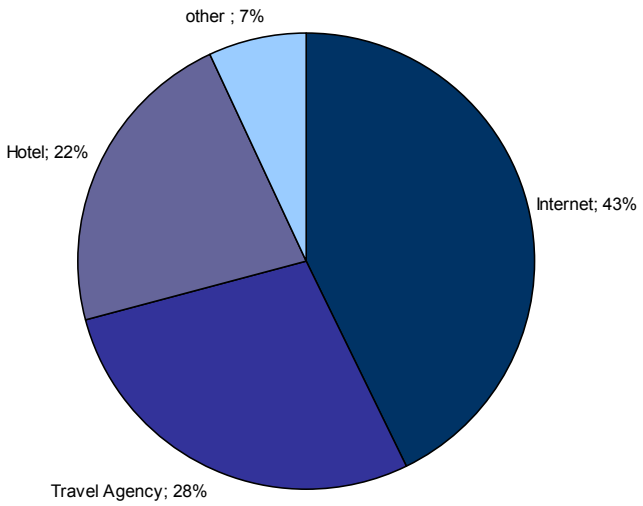

Figure 7: Forms of Booking

As shown in Figure 7 the majority of the respondents booked the holiday in the Internet (43%), almost one third (28%) booked via a travel agency and 22 % chose to book directly at the hotel.

5.1.2 Materials

Each potential participant received an introductory letter on the first day, a PANAS form for the first 24 hours, and a form for recording demographic variables. On each of the following 5 days a PANAS form was distributed to the participants. At the end of the last day the tourists received a PANAS form together with a form to record satisfaction with the hotel, destination, weather, health condition during the holiday, and work related activities like mobile phone calls and computer use (see Appendix C).

Participants completed forms during dinner and the questionnaires were immediately collected by the researcher or left on the table. Due to the very long observation period the drop-out rate was approximately 20%.

5.1.3 The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

The original PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) consists of two 10-item mood scales and was developed to provide brief measures of PA and NA (see Appendix B). For this study the items of the original German version of the PANAS (Krohne et al., 1996) were adapted to match the positive and negative emotions a tourist could experience within 24 hours.

Respondents are asked to rate the extent to which they have experienced each particular emotion within a specified time period, with reference to a 5-point scale. The scale points are: 1 ‘very slightly or not at all’, 2 ‘a little’, 3 ‘moderately’, 4 ‘quite a bit’ and 5 ‘very much’. A number of different time-frames have been used with the PANAS, but in this current study the time-frame adopted was ‘during the past day (24 hours)’.

The original PANAS scale developed by Watson et al. (1988) showed acceptably high correlations and internal consistency ranging from 0.86 to 0.90 for the positive affect scale and 0.84 to 0.87 for the negative affect scale. The adapted Tourism PANAS shows a Cronbach’s Alpha for the positive affect scale of 0.96 and 0.91 for the negative scale.

5.2 Subjective Well-Being in the course of a Holiday

The lapse of subjective well-being in the course of a holiday is individual in the same way that every holiday experience is unique and depends on the persons’ own feelings and emotions. However, the average lapse of subjective well-being will be shown by calculating the estimated marginal means.

A post-hoc multivariate ANOVA comparison with repeated measurements was applied to test the within-subject effects. The average positive and negative affect for each day was calculated by summarizing the means of the items of the positive and negative affect scale. For each day (beginning with day 2) the difference in positive and negative affect to the day before was calculated. Figure 7 to Figure 10 show the results of the comparison for different tourist groups. To

show the significance of group differences a test of between subject effects with repeated measures was applied.

5.2.1 Positive Affect Scale

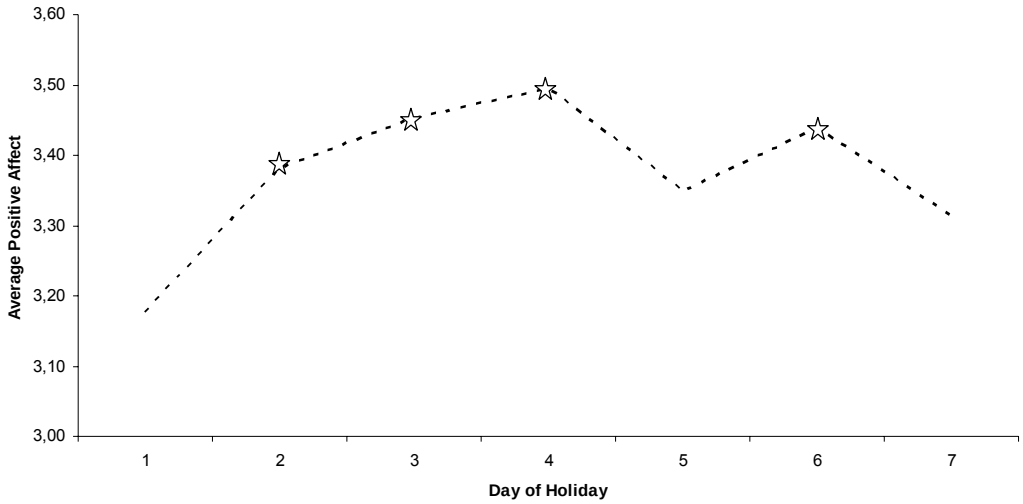

Figure 8: The Run of Positive Affect in the Course of the Holiday. Note: A star indicates that positive affect is significantly different from the previous day.

Figure 8 shows that positive emotions increase at the beginning of the holiday, becoming almost stable during the stay and decrease at the end of the holiday. However, there is a change in the U-shape between the fourth and the sixth day. The contrast in estimated marginal means is significant between the second and the first day, between the third and second, the fourth and the third, the sixth and the fifth.

5.2.2 Negative Affect Scale

The negative affect scale in Figure 9 shows an inverse U-shape in the lapse of the seven days of holiday.

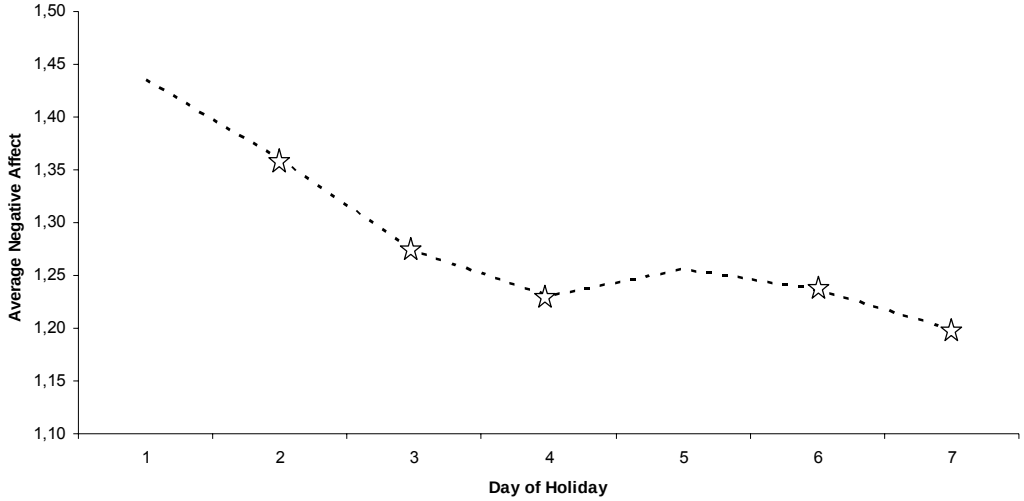

Figure 9: The Run of Negative Affect in the Course of the Holiday. Note: A star indicates that negative affect is significantly different from the previous day.

A comparison of the two scales shows that negative feelings and emotions decrease more than positive affect increases within the same holiday period and negative affect does not show an increase at the end of the stay. This indicates that holidays seem to significantly decrease negative emotion and negative affect stays low at the end of the holiday while positive emotions decrease again at the end of the stay to the start-level.

5.2.3 Differences between Men and Women

The two curves of positive and negative affect show similar slopes for men and women and do not have significant differences with p-values of .439 for the positive and .163 for the negative affect scale. However, men report on average higher positive emotions during the lapse of the holiday, but also higher negative affect.

5.2.4 Influence of knowledge of the destination

Surprisingly, people who return to a known destination (n=61 who have already stayed at the destination for at least one night) are less positive, however, the difference in the positive affect scale is not significant (p=.423). As shown in Figure 10 the return travellers already arrive with a slightly lower level of positive affect than people who stay at the destination for the first time (n=48). During the stay the gap increases. At the end of the last day of the holiday the level of positive affect decreases to the same level.

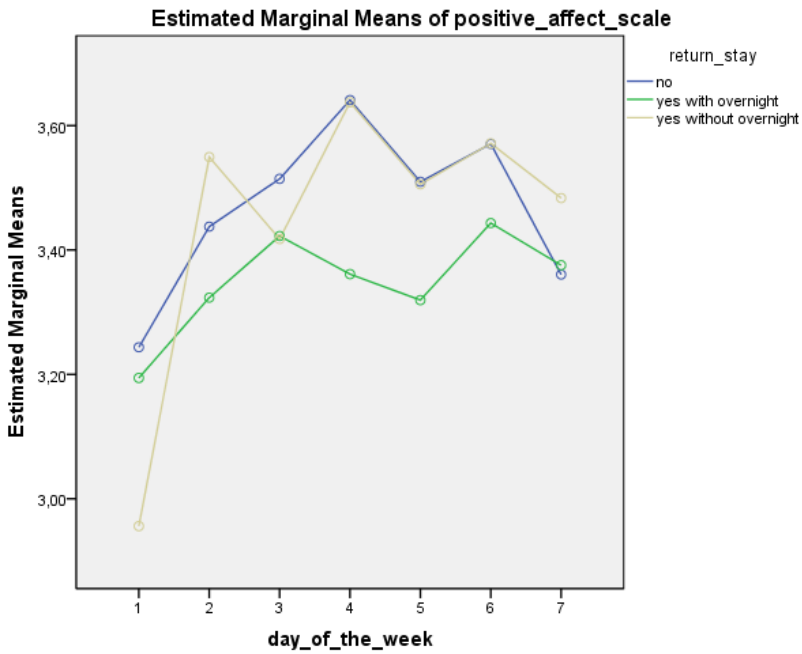

Figure 10: The Run of Positive Affect - Return vs. First Time Travellers.

5.2.5 Main holiday vs. normal holiday

Individuals who spend their main holiday at the destination are on average more critical. On one hand they tend to report slightly less, but not significantly less, positive effect (p=.558) but on the other hand significantly (p=.036) more negative emotions (see Figure 11). This shows that for these travellers the holiday is more important and the fact that it is their main holiday is a stressor which affects their subjective well-being in a negative way.

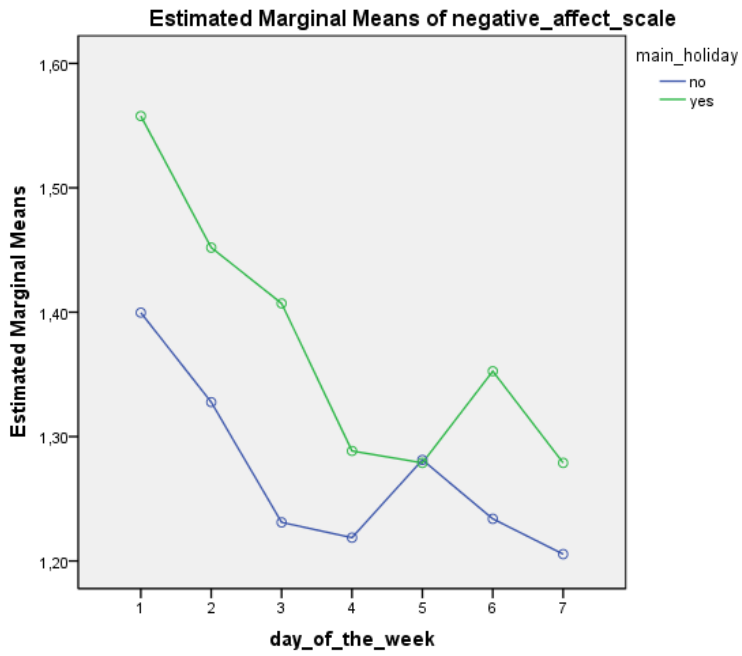

Figure 11: The Run of Negative Affect – Main Holiday vs. Holiday

5.2.6 Influence of Professional Activities on Subjective Well-Being

Only seven per cent of the respondents dealt with business matters during their holidays, however one fifth of the tourists at least once thought about a business related topic. As shown in Figure 12, the business mobile phone is used by more than half of the respondents during the holiday.

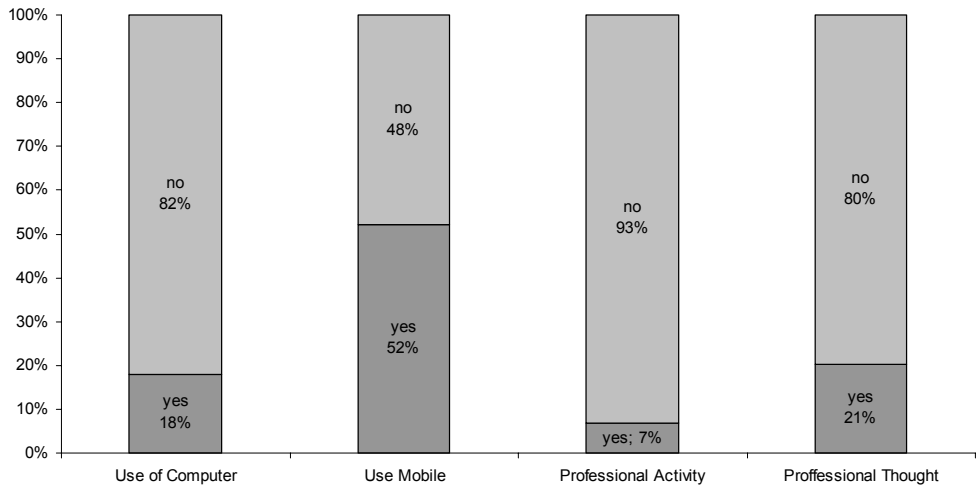

Figure 12: Business Stressors Influencing the Holiday

Tourists who deal with business or job problems (n=6) during their holiday report on average less positive and less negative emotions. These tourists also report more negative emotions at the beginning of their holiday. The explanation might be the higher stress because of a job problem in their mind. It takes longer for the tourist to experience the state of flow if he or she is ever able to experience it during the holiday week.

There is no reported difference in the negative affect scale for people who think about business matters (n=21) during their holiday and people who do not think about their job (p=.976), however these respondents report lower positive well-being. The two groups show the same run of positive affect but at different levels as shown in Figure 13. Tourists who do not think about or deal with business matters show significantly higher positive affect (p=.002).

Half of the respondents had a company mobile with them. However, there seems to be no difference in positive affect due to the use of the company mobile phone (p=.803). People seem to be used to their mobile phones and their subjective well-being is not affected.

A regression analysis of the positive affect scale (see table 1) indicates that professional thoughts have a significant negative correlation (p=.038) with the positive affect scale which shows that professional thoughts correspond with a decrease in the positive emotions experienced by the tourist.

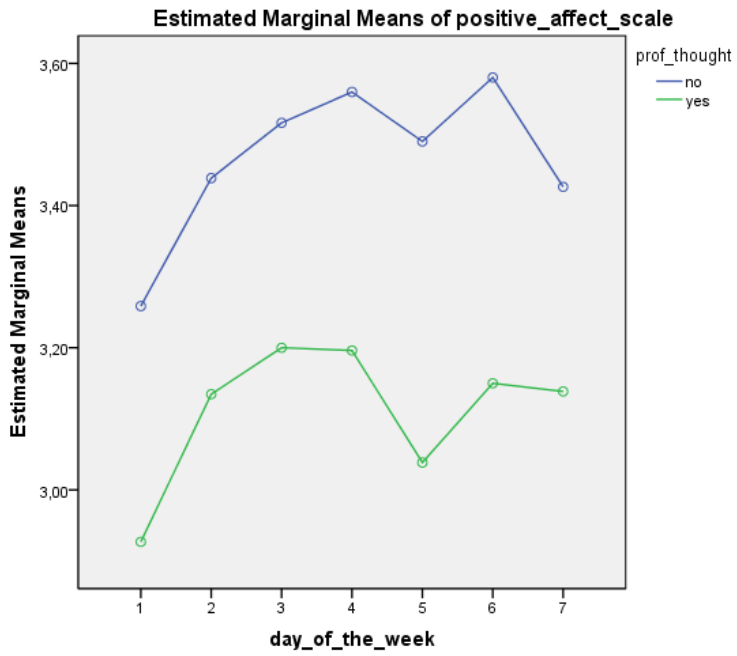

Figure 13: Differences in Positive Affect – The Influence of Worrying about Business

5.3 Tourist Satisfaction

On the last day tourists were asked about their general satisfaction with factors related to the hotel and the resort. The scale ranges from 1 (very satisfied) to 3 (not satisfied).

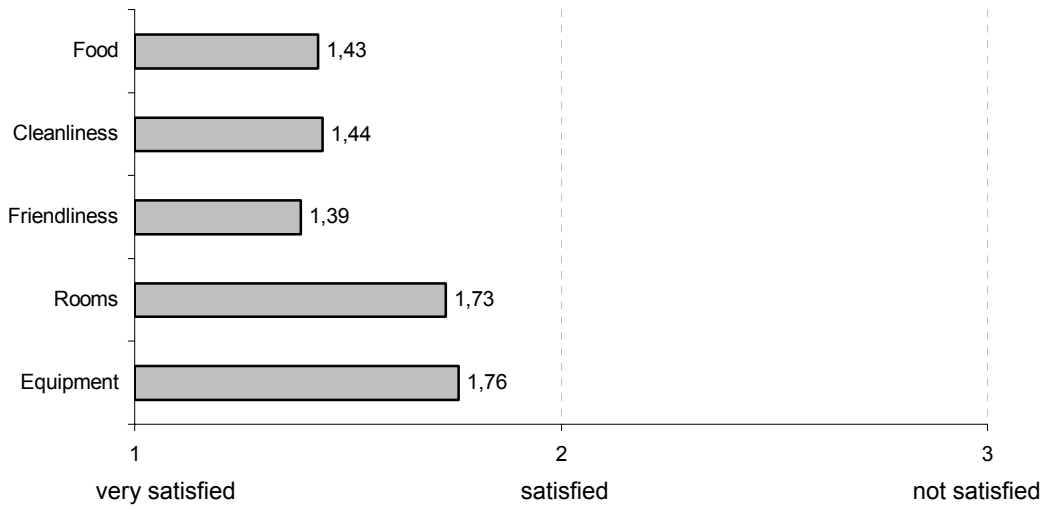

Figure 14: Average Satisfaction of Tourists with Hotel Facilities

Figure 14 and Figure 15 show that on average tourists are more than satisfied with the hotel's and the destination's facilities. The highest average scores for the satisfaction with the hotel are achieved by the friendliness of the staff in the participating hotels, the quality of the food and cleanliness of rooms and hotel facilities.

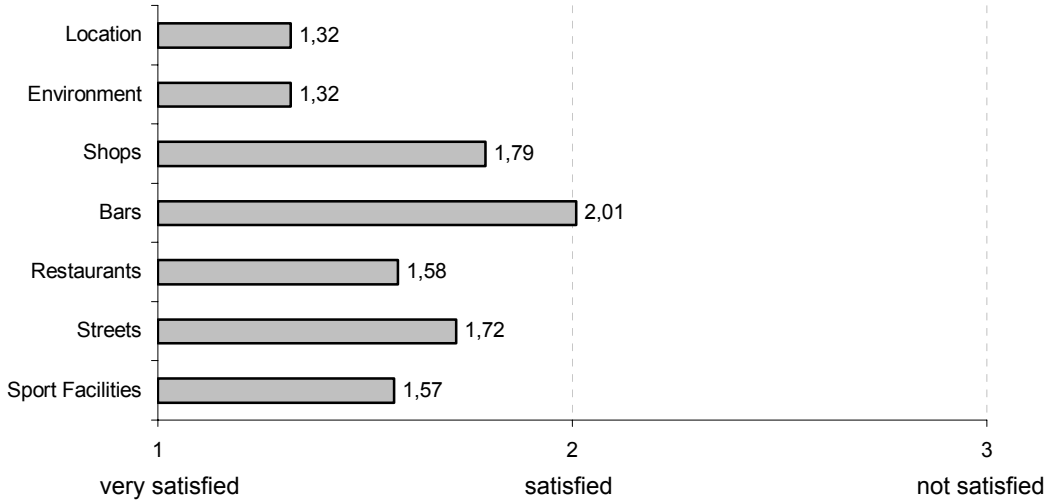

Figure 15: Average Satisfaction of Tourists with Resort Infrastructure and Location

The location and the environment of the resorts show the highest average satisfaction scores. Both participating hotels are located in rather small resorts which obviously strongly benefit from their natural environment in the Austrian Alps. Bars and night clubs received the lowest average scores. This result is strongly influenced by the absence of bars and night clubs within walking distance of one of the hotels.

A regression analysis (see Table 1 and Table 2) shows a negative correlation between the satisfaction with food and the positive affect scale (p=.046) but almost no correlation with the negative emotion (p=.606). This shows that a certain food quality is expected but lower food quality seems not to have an effect on negative emotions while outstanding food quality can increase the average subjective well-being.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,774	,485		7,780	,000
	age	,003	,004	,068	,655	,514
	expectations	-,032	,136	-,023	-,234	,816
	gender	,083	,093	,087	,890	,376
	health	-,153	,085	-,189	-1,813	,073
	health_others	-,269	,130	-,212	-2,058	,043
	hotel_cleanliness	-,031	,118	-,033	-,261	,795
	hotel_equipment	-,063	,147	-,063	-,431	,668
	hotel_food	-,244	,120	-,273	-2,027	,046
	hotel_friendliness	,129	,116	,142	1,104	,273
	hotel_rooms	,100	,138	,101	,724	,471
	main_holiday	,072	,106	,064	,681	,498
	prof_activity	-,175	,232	-,083	-,754	,453
	prof_thought	-,287	,136	-,231	-2,108	,038
	resort_bars	,098	,140	,064	,697	,488
	resort_environment	,147	,150	,144	,980	,330
	resort_location	-,049	,153	-,048	-,320	,749
	resort_restaurants	,126	,102	,140	1,231	,222
	resort_shops	-,364	,123	-,314	-2,962	,004
	resort_sport	,132	,095	,143	1,394	,167
	resort_streets	-,107	,112	-,101	-,960	,339
	return_stay	-,012	,088	-,015	-,136	,892
	use_computer	,114	,090	,137	1,269	,208
	use_mobile	-,044	,065	-,068	-,670	,505
	weather	,009	,092	,010	,096	,924

Table 1: Regression Analysis Positive Affect Scale (R^2=0.180)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,824	,235		3,511	,001
	age	-,001	,002	-,067	-,620	,537
	expectations	,072	,066	,114	1,090	,278
	gender	,074	,045	,168	1,666	,099
	health	,006	,040	,017	,158	,875
	health_others	,144	,063	,244	2,292	,024
	hotel_cleanliness	,078	,057	,183	1,370	,174
	hotel_equipment	-,109	,068	-,233	-1,602	,113
	hotel_food	,030	,057	,071	,517	,606
	hotel_friendliness	-,031	,056	-,074	-,554	,581
	hotel_rooms	,029	,063	,064	,458	,648
	main_holiday	,059	,051	,112	1,150	,253
	prof_activity	-,099	,112	-,101	-,891	,375
	prof_thought	,010	,065	,017	,153	,879
	resort_bars	,058	,068	,082	,856	,394
	resort_environment	-,074	,072	-,158	-1,023	,309
	resort_location	-,001	,074	-,002	-,014	,989
	resort_restaurants	,018	,049	,044	,371	,712
	resort_shops	,007	,060	,013	,121	,904
	resort_sport	,040	,046	,093	,866	,389
	resort_streets	,037	,053	,077	,702	,484
	return_stay	-,073	,042	-,202	-1,751	,083
	use_computer	,026	,043	,066	,592	,555
	use_mobile	,008	,032	,026	,246	,806
	weather	,073	,045	,185	1,638	,105

Table 2: Regression Analysis Negative Affect Scale (R^2=0.101)

The satisfaction with shops also indicates a significantly negative correlation with the positive affect scale (p=.004). Shopping is a major part of the holiday experience and a destination needs to make sure this need is satisfied

sufficiently. If there is not an adequate quantity of shops with a satisfying quality of goods in a destination the average positive emotions of the holiday maker may decrease. A lack of shops and/or quality of shops does, however, not influence the negative affect of the person (p=.904).

The health of fellow travellers has a significant negative correlation with the positive affect scale (p=.043) and a significant positive correlation with the negative affect (p=.024). The health of the people who are on holiday with a person obviously highly influences the tourists' mood. If fellow travellers become ill or get injured the travellers' happiness decreases while at the same time the negative feelings increase. On the other side, the own health condition only shows a negative tendency with positive affect (p=.073). Own injuries or poor health condition therefore tend to only slightly effect the average happiness during a holiday.

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
mean_aktiv_1_7	,487	,001	-,038	,000	,202	,677
mean_angeregt_1_7	,731	-,037	,134	-,050	-,001	-,259
mean_angespannt_1_7	,073	,620	,043	,111	,062	-,045
mean_ängstlich_1_7	,011	,705	-,072	-,008	-,120	-,330
mean_aufmerksam_1_7	,819	,036	,181	,146	-,091	,131
mean_begeistert_1_7	,749	,072	,258	-,339	-,086	,016
mean_besorgt_1_7	-,022	,710	-,018	,169	-,068	,279
mean_durcheinander_1_7	-,046	,774	-,065	,054	,345	,097
mean_entschlossen_1_7	,870	-,074	,047	,044	-,157	,016
mean_entspannt_1_7	,268	-,322	,707	,161	,016	,070
mean_erschrocken_1_7	,187	,513	-,088	,477	,167	-,292
mean_feindselig_1_7	-,111	,164	,280	,623	,430	-,001
mean_freudig_1_7	,738	,166	,307	-,157	,163	,064
mean_gereizt_1_7	-,386	,521	,331	,272	-,024	,371
mean_glücklich_1_7	,390	,039	,771	-,043	,090	-,064
mean_interessiert_1_7	,770	-,089	-,051	-,070	,155	,153
mean_nervös_1_7	-,103	,718	,030	,017	,386	,188
mean_schuldig_1_7	,098	,524	-,253	,197	,482	-,111
mean_stark_1_7	,712	,133	,307	,122	-,062	,292
mean_stolz_1_7	,541	,196	,282	,094	-,211	,265
mean_traurig_1_7	,014	,609	-,212	,460	,042	-,014
mean_verärgert_1_7	,048	,383	-,157	,730	,047	,129
mean_verlegen_1_7	-,035	,184	,088	,136	,740	,098
mean_wach_1_7	,745	-,247	,162	,245	,107	-,189
mean_zufrieden_1_7	,410	-,062	,737	-,273	-,011	,009

Table 3: Factor Loadings of the Indicators Describing Subjective Well-Being

5.4 Factors explaining the Subjective Well-Being of Tourists

The main factors explaining the subjective well-being of tourists are calculated by a factor analysis. The results in Table 3 show that the two main factors are basically the positive and negative affect scales. The third factor includes the positive affect items ‘relaxed’, ‘happy’ and ‘satisfied’ which can be explained as ‘positive tourism related affect’.

The fourth factor is the ‘annoyance factor’ consisting of the two items ‘angry’ and ‘hostile’. The two items ‘ashamed’ and ‘active’ represent individual factors and can, surprisingly, not be included in one of the other factors.

The scree plot in Figure 16, shows in descending order of magnitude the eigenvalues calculated by the factor analysis. It visualizes the relative importance of the individual factors. The sharp drop in the plot signals that subsequent factors are ignorable.

For the calculations above Watson’s PANAS with a positive and a negative affect indicator variable was selected to explain subjective well-being of tourists. However, the factor analysis shows that some variables in this study do not load as predicted. Future analysis and research could analyse the exact variables which more ideally describe tourist subjective well-being.

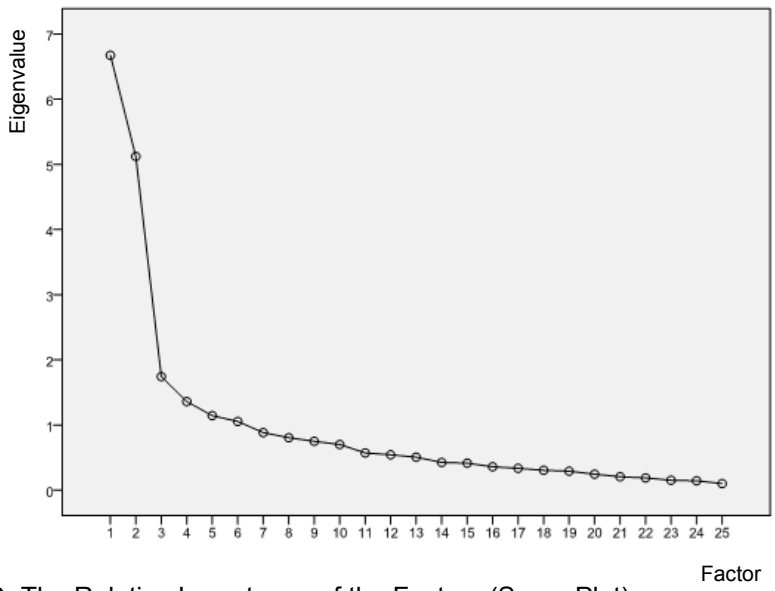

Figure 16: The Relative Importance of the Factors (Scree Plot)

6 CONCLUSION

The tourism industry consists of different sectors including the travel, hospitality and visitor services sector. Within each of these sectors there are a number of individual enterprises that provide a range of services to tourists who stay away from their home environment.

To measure a tourist's satisfaction with sectors and enterprises commonly the travellers expectations and the actual performance of the service have been compared. However, in recent papers these measurements have received much criticism. One major concern is the lack of an affective dimension in the satisfaction scales.

This paper takes on a new approach to measure tourist satisfaction based on the theory of subjective well-being. The major difference to more traditional satisfaction scales is the disregarding of expectations and the focus on cognitive and affective dimensions of happiness and well-being.

The subjective well-being research in tourism is still at a very early stage and there are plenty of areas which should be considered. The theories of happiness, satisfaction with life and well-being provide many general concepts which can be adapted for tourism research.

Tourist satisfaction is, for example, strongly linked to the concept of flow (see Chapter 4.4), therefore sampling methods like the experience sampling method or in-depth interviews could help to investigate tourist well being with flow state methods.

In the underlying study the relationship between health and subjective well-being is investigated. However, there would be the possibility to take physical health of the individual as an objective indicator of well-being. This could help to eliminate the bias of subjective reports and make the results more reliable.

A very interesting area for further research is the shape of the positive and negative affect scales. The U-shape and inverse U-shape of the negative and

positive scale with a peak on the third day lead to interesting assumptions about the ideal length of a holiday which should be analysed in future research.

At this early stage, it seems that the well-being and happiness theory is a feasible alternative to traditional service quality models, like the SERVQUAL Model, and that it has potential to expand and enhance tourist satisfaction approaches. The analysis shows that it is legitimate to consider consumer satisfaction within the construct of well-being.

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APPENDIX A: SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE

DIRECTIONS:

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number in the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly Disagree
4 = Neither Agree or Disagree
5 = Slightly Agree
6 = Agree
7 = Strongly Agree

..... 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
..... 2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
..... 3. I am satisfied with life.
..... 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
..... 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Source: Diener et al. (1985)

APPENDIX B: POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AFFECTS SCHEDULE

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate intensity in the scale next to that word.

Please indicate how you have felt during the last x days/weeks/month/years.

	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Interested	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Distressed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Excited	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Upset	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strong	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Guilty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Scared	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hostile	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Enthusiastic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Proud	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Irritable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alert	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ashamed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Inspired	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Nervous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Determined	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Attentive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jittery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Active	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Afraid	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Source: Watson et al. (1988)

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

Umfrage zum Wohlbefinden von Urlaubern

Vielen Dank, dass Sie sich zur Teilnahme an dieser Untersuchung bereiterklärt haben. Diese wissenschaftliche Studie wird an der Modul University Vienna durchgeführt und soll einen Einblick in das Wohlbefinden von Urlauberinnen und Urlaubern während Ihres Aufenthaltes geben.

Sie werden täglich am Abend einen kurzen Fragebogen mit 25 Fragen zum Ankreuzen erhalten, damit aussagekräftige Ergebnisse erzielt werden können ist es notwendig, dass alle Fragebögen vollständig ausgefüllt werden. Als Dank für Ihre Teilnahme möchten wir Ihnen bei Ihrer Abreise ein kleines Dankeschön überreichen.

Ihre Daten werden selbstverständlich vertraulich behandelt. Sie werden unter keinen Umständen namentlich in irgendeiner Form in der Auswertung oder Studie genannt, ihr Name dient lediglich der eindeutigen Zuordnung der Fragebögen und Präsente.

Name: .....
(bitte verwenden Sie diesen Namen für alle Fragebögen, damit diese eindeutig zugeordnet werden können)

Herkunftsland: .....

Geburtsjahr: .....

Geschlecht: □ männlich □ weiblich

Beruf: .....

Mit wem werden Sie diesen Aufenthalt verbringen? (bitte alle zutreffenden ankreuzen)

□ Partnerin/Partner □ Kinder – Anzahl: .....
□ Vater □ sonst. Familienmitglieder – Anzahl:.....
□ Mutter □ Freunde/Bekannte – Anzahl:.....

Waren Sie bereits in diesem Urlaubsort?

□ ja, mit Übernachtung □ nein
□ ja, ohne Übernachtung (z.B. auf der Durchreise)

Handelt es sich bei diesem Aufenthalt um Ihren Haupturlaub? □ ja □ nein

Wie haben Sie diesen Urlaub gebucht?

□ im Internet (Buchungsplattform) □ direkt über das Hotel
□ im Reisebüro
□ sonstiges: .....

Mit welchem Haupt-Verkehrsmittel sind Sie angereist?

□ Auto □ Bus
□ Zug □ sonstiges: .....
□ Flugzeug

Datum/Wochentag: □ So □ Mo □ Di □ Mi □ Do □ Fr □ Sa

Dieser Fragebogen enthält eine Reihe von Wörtern, die unterschiedliche Gefühle und Empfindungen beschreiben. Lesen Sie bitte jedes Wort und tragen dann in die Skala neben jedem Wort die Intensität ein.

Geben Sie bitte an, wie Sie sich gesamt gesehen im Verlauf der letzten 24 Stunden gefühlt haben:

	gar nicht oder ganz wenig	**ein bisschen**	**einigermaßen**	**erheblich**	**äußerst**
aktiv	□	□	□	□	□
traurig	□	□	□	□	□
interessiert	□	□	□	□	□
freudig erregt	□	□	□	□	□
verärgert	□	□	□	□	□
stark	□	□	□	□	□
schuldig	□	□	□	□	□
erschrocken	□	□	□	□	□
feindselig	□	□	□	□	□
angeregt	□	□	□	□	□
stolz	□	□	□	□	□
gereizt	□	□	□	□	□
begeistert	□	□	□	□	□
peinlich berührt / verlegen	□	□	□	□	□
wach	□	□	□	□	□
nervös	□	□	□	□	□
entschlossen	□	□	□	□	□
aufmerksam	□	□	□	□	□
durcheinander	□	□	□	□	□
ängstlich	□	□	□	□	□
entspannt	□	□	□	□	□
besorgt	□	□	□	□	□
zufrieden	□	□	□	□	□
angespannt	□	□	□	□	□
glücklich	□	□	□	□	□

Hat es im Laufe der vergangenen 24 Stunden ein Ereignis gegeben, an das Sie sich besonders erinnern? Können Sie diese Situation bitte kurz beschreiben? Wie haben Sie sich dabei gefühlt?

.....

.....

Haben Sie während Ihres Aufenthaltes eines der folgenden Geräte dienstlich/schulisch verwendet oder für berufliche Notfälle bei sich gehabt?

Computer □ verwendet □ dabei gehabt □ Nein

Wenn ja, wann? □ So □ Mo □ Di □ Mi □ Do □ Fr □ Sa

(Mobil-) Telefon □ verwendet □ dabei gehabt □ Nein

Wenn ja, wann? □ So □ Mo □ Di □ Mi □ Do □ Fr □ Sa

Gab es berufliche/schulische Aufgaben, die Sie während Ihres Aufenthaltes bearbeitet haben? □ ja □ nein

Wenn ja, wann? □ So □ Mo □ Di □ Mi □ Do □ Fr □ Sa

Haben Sie sich während Ihres Aufenthaltes über ein berufliches/schulisches Thema Gedanken gemacht? □ ja □ nein

Wenn ja, wann? □ So □ Mo □ Di □ Mi □ Do □ Fr □ Sa

Wie ging es Ihnen gesundheitlich während Ihres Aufenthaltes?

□ sehr gut □ wie immer □ krank/verletzt

Gab es bei Ihren Mitreisenden Erkrankungen/Verletzungen? □ ja □ nein

Waren Sie mit dem Wetter während Ihres Aufenthaltes zufrieden?

□ sehr zufrieden □ zufrieden □ nicht zufrieden

Wie zufrieden waren Sie mit folgenden Bereichen des Hotels?

Einrichtungen	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Zimmer	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Freundlichkeit	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Sauberkeit	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Essen/Trinken	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden

Wie zufrieden waren Sie mit folgenden Bereichen des Urlaubsortes?

Sportanlagen	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Straßen/Gehwege	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Restaurants/Cafés	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Bars/Discos	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Geschäfte	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Umgebung	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden
Lage	□ sehr zufrieden	□ zufrieden	□ nicht zufrieden

Wurden Ihre Erwartungen an diesen Urlaub… □ übertroffen □ erfüllt □ nicht erfüllt