

Destination Emotions, Loneliness, and Reasons to Travel: Predictors and Moderators of Tourism Well-being

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Abstract

This study aims to determine predictors and moderators of tourism well-being among destination emotions (DES) (total, joy, love, and positive surprise), loneliness (UCLA) (total, affinities, and isolation) and reasons to travel. Regression and moderation analyses were carried out; factor analysis (exploratory and confirmatory) to validate the emotions destination scale were performed. Marital status, family as a reason to travel, love (DES), positive surprise (DES), and affinities (UCLA) explain tourism well-being variance. Of the motivations for traveling, only family and work proved to moderate the relationship between DES and its subscales and tourism well-being. Traveling in Portugal or abroad was a moderator in the relationship between DES and its subscales and tourism well-being. The relationship between destination emotions and tourism well-being is stronger when people do not travel for family or work; this relationship is also stronger when people travel within Portugal than when traveling outside Portugal.

Keywords: Affinities; destination emotion; tourism well-being

Introduction

Several authors found a connection between loneliness and tourism well-being (Illario, De Luca, Leonardini, Kucharczyk, Parent, Dantas, Jegundo, Van Staalduin, Ganzarain & Comisso, 2019; Sirgy, 2021), considering that tourism can act as a response to loneliness, thus promoting well-being; especially, social tourism experiences of older people that is an opportunity to provide participants escape, reminiscence, respite, and companionship (Morgan, Sie & Finniear, 2020). Besides, Khan, Bibi, Lyu, Babar, Alam and Hayat (2021) found that tourism development enhances economic growth and well-being. Tourism experience raises complex emotions (positive and negative) toward a specific destination. An example of positive emotion is when tourists find rich cultural resources, robust tourism infrastructure, and high standards for health, hygiene, and safety (Mussalam & Tajeddini, 2016). An example of negative emotions is what happens when tourists experience language difficulties and cultural differences, developing a negative emotion such as “anger that comes from a sense of loneliness or fear of dealing with local people” (Al-Msallam, 2020: 512). Also, visiting

concentration camps raises specific negative emotions (disgust, shock, and sadness); however, it also offers catharsis and self-development (Nawijn, Isaac, Gridnevskiy & Van Liempt, 2018). Besides, Wang, Hou and Chen (2021) proposed the concept of emodiversity (Quoidbach, Gruber, Mikolajczak, Kogan, Kotsou & Norton, 2014; diversity of emotions) to illustrate the diversity and complexity of emotions that tourists experience away from home. Lee and Hyun (2015) proposed a comprehensive hybrid model of the use of online travel communities for dealing with social and emotional loneliness (OTS-SEL), being that OTS-SEL is composed of three subdimensions (social loneliness, friend loneliness, and romantic loneliness).

Studies on emotions and tourism well-being found that tourists presented an increased sense of well-being before or after traveling compared with those who did not travel (Knobloch, Robertson & Aitken, 2017). They found a “peak” fluctuation of emotions during a trip, too (Lin, Kerstetter, Nawijn & Mitas, 2014). Also, tourists presented significantly higher perceptions of well-being after vacation than before, and those who used emotion regulation strategies presented a higher sense of well-being after vacation than those who did not use it (Gao, Kerstetter, Mowen & Hickerson, 2018). Yao, Jia, Lin and Huang (2020) considered that traveling as a family has positive aspects, improving the relationships between people in the family (Durko & Petrick, 2013), but it also has negative aspects as it can be a source of added stress. This may be related to the fact that people who perceive more affinities with others (than those who perceive more loneliness) tend to experience more well-being when traveling (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016), although there are more and more people traveling alone (Biernat & Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2012). Considering work-for-travel, Wheatley and Bickerton (2016) found four central factors of well-being impacts: (1) frequency of travel; (2) ability to plan travel; (3) productive use of travel time; and (4) reciprocal benefits of travel. Ye and Xu (2020) found that business travel functions as demand and resource, affecting tourist well-being in negative and positive ways; not only being professional utility counts, but also the emotional factor plays an important role. This study aims to determine predictors and moderators of tourism well-being among destination emotions (total, joy, love, and positive surprise), loneliness (total, affinities, and isolation) and reasons to travel. Our hypotheses predict that:

- (H1) Marital status, family as a reason to travel, love (DES), positive surprise (DES), and affinities (UCLA) will contribute to explaining the tourism well-being variance.
- (H2) Family and work as reasons to travel will moderate the relationship between DES and its subscales and tourism well-being.
- (H3) Traveling in Portugal or abroad will be a moderator in the relationship between DES (and its subscales) and tourism well-being.

Literature review

Well-being

Well-being is the individual's positive life assessment, namely, satisfaction, positive emotion, engagement, and meaning (Diener & Seligman, 2004). However, the discussion of how the concept should be defined remains, giving rise to broad and imprecise definitions and often conflicting interpretations (Dodge, Daly, Huyton & Sanders, 2012; Hartwell, Fyall, Willis, Page, Ladkin & Hemingway, 2018). Throughout the literature, well-being, health, life satisfaction, and wellness are concepts often used interchangeably (Boorsma, 2020; Filep & Deery, 2010; Karn, Amarkantak & Swain, 2017; Konu, 2010; McCabe & Johnson, 2013; Pyke, Hartwell, Blake & Hemingway, 2016). Also, there is no explicit agreement regarding how those concepts interrelate (Camfield & Skevington, 2008). Different perspectives on well-being include the factors that make up the well-being construct (e.g., job satisfaction and health, life satisfaction, and levels of pleasure) and multidisciplinary research on well-being (e.g.,

psychology, economics, health studies) (Hartwell et al., 2018). In the literature, well-being is frequently described as an “objective” and “subjective” phenomenon. Objective well-being concerns the satisfaction of material demands and access to physical, environmental, and social resources; subjective well-being concerns self-assessment. The latter is much more challenging to measure as it involves reaching goals and expectations and engaging in meaningful relationships (Hartwell et al., 2018).

Research has focused on well-being as a proxy of happiness (e.g., McCabe & Johnson, 2013; Smith & Diekmann, 2017). The philosophical approach to well-being leads to two forms of happiness: subjective (hedonia) and psychological well-being (eudemonia) (Liu & Ma, 2018). Eudemonic well-being takes place when one experiences meaning and self-fulfilment in life, focusing on psychological well-being, overall relating to the wholly functional individual (Deci & Ryan, 2000); in contrast, hedonic well-being results from pursuing happiness (Pyke et al., 2016), associated with pleasure, positive affect, and enjoyment of one's moments (Knobloch et al., 2017). Ryff and Singer (2008) refer to hedonia as well-being subjective experiences (related to happiness, life satisfaction, and positive affect), and to eudaimonia as part of trait psychological well-being (associated with an individual in good health, functioning optimally, and being able to achieve success before life's numerous challenges) (de Chavez, Backett-Milburn, Parry & Platt, 2005; Henn, Hill & Jorgensen, 2016; Dewald Venter, 2014).

Diener, Heintzelman, Kushlev, Tay, Wirtz, Lutes and Oishi (2017) describe the individuals' lives and emotional experiences assessment as subjective well-being. This concept handles the degree to which life has meaning, at times mentioned as authentic living, living well, or the good life (Ryff, 1989). Fundamentally, subjective well-being tries to discern what makes people happy (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Subjective well-being embodies hedonic experiences and cognitive assessments of how well life is unfolding; the eudemonic perspective arose as complementary to subjective well-being (Jayawickreme, Forgeard & Seligman, 2012). In recent years, Positive Psychology is oriented to determine the factors that enable individuals, communities, and societies to flourish (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), having evolved towards well-being (Garcês, Pocinho, Jesus & Rieber, 2018). Within that scope, Seligman introduced the Authentic happiness model, comprising Pleasure, Engagement, and Meaning – factors that would explain what well-being is and how those factors add to life satisfaction (Jayawickreme et al., 2012). In 2011, Seligman added another two elements, Positive Relationships and Accomplishment, positing that well-being consists of pursuing one or more of the elements above (known as PERMA) (Jayawickreme et al., 2012).

Tourism well-being

Tourism studies have become increasingly focused on well-being in recent years (Garcês, Pocinho, Jesus, et al., 2018; Hanna, Wijesinghe, Paliatsos, Walker, Adams & Kimbu, 2019; Hartwell et al., 2018; Smith & Diekmann, 2017), through terms such as quality of life and life satisfaction, happiness, and wellness (Magano, Vidal, Dinis & Leite, 2021; Smith & Diekmann, 2017). In fact, wellness and well-being tourism have become important subjects in tourism research (Konu, 2010). Following conceptualizations derived from the authentic happiness theory have been proposed, namely, Filep's approach to explaining tourist happiness (2014). The connection between positive psychology (through well-being) and tourism originates positive mindsets, which increase happiness and lead people to engage in their destination (Filep, 2012). Research in positive psychology has steered the importance of happy and meaningful experiences (Huta & Ryan, 2010) and discovered connections between tourist experiences and eudemonia (Filep, 2014). There has been a growing demand for health, wellness, and well-being tourism (Lim, Kim & Lee, 2016). Recent studies that explore the

connections between tourism and tourists' well-being (e.g., Eusébio & Carneiro, 2014; Filep, 2014; McCabe & Johnson, 2013) see tourism as contributing positively to psychological and social well-being (Hartwell et al., 2018). However, studies correlating tourism with well-being are still uncommon, and most focus on residents' happiness or take an economic perspective (Garcês, Pocinho & Jesus, 2018). Also, research concerning tourists' well-being solely from their own view is still scarce (Zhang, 2013).

The connections between tourism and well-being cover the health benefits of frequenting tourist destinations, a wellness product focus, and keeping good health. Travelling to take care of one's health is known as health tourism; well-being tourism diverges from healthcare tourism regarding travelling motives: in healthcare tourism, the main travelling motive is to heal, while in well-being tourism, it is to prevent illness or keep one's health and well-being (Konu, 2010). The several types of tourism can affect the emotional, cognitive, psychological, and spiritual dimensions of well-being for tourists and destination communities (Hartwell et al., 2018). Garcês, Pocinho, Jesus, et al. (2018) found out that tourism can improve tourists and residents' well-being. As explained by Eusébio and Carneiro (2014), tourism can impact people's lives, generating good feelings, positive emotions, and interactions tourists consider productive and positive. In a study about the tourism impact among the Hungarian population, Michalkó, Kiss, Kovacs and Sulyok (2009) concluded that travellers are happier than non-travellers and that well-being is influenced significantly by education, age, income level, and participation in tourism. Tourism products can arouse hedonic or eudemonic well-being, offer consumers short-term pleasure hedonic experiences and long-term life satisfaction and positive functioning (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Notably, the inclination to associate tourists' happiness with pleasure and ignore meaningful experiences is questionable (Filep, 2012). Both elements conceivably characterize an accomplishing tourist experience, not simply associated with pleasure but with a personally meaningful experience (Hartwell et al., 2018).

Destination emotion

“Emotion is any mental experience with high intensity and high hedonic content (pleasure/displeasure)” (Cabanac, 2002: 69). Emotion is emerging as a central concept in tourism research (Moyle, Moyle, Bec & Scott, 2019) as emotions have a pervasive influence on various aspects of tourist experiences (Hosany, Prayag, Deesilatham, Caušević & Odeh, 2015): at the pre-travel stage, emotions play a decisive role in tourist motivation and choice decision; at the post-travel stage, emotions impact on tourist satisfaction, trust, commitment and behavioural intentions (Hosany et al., 2015). Positive and negative emotions are significant determinants of place attachment, especially negative emotions (Hosany, Prayag, Van Der Veen, Huang & Deesilatham, 2017). Emotional reactions to the tourism experience impact satisfaction, intention to recommend, attitude judgments, and choice (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). However, satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between emotions (joy, love, positive surprise, and unpleasantness) and behavioural intentions (Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013).

Hosany and Prayag (2013) performed a cluster analysis and found distinct emotional response patterns among tourists: delighted, unemotional, negative, mixed, and passionate. The delighted cluster scores the highest satisfaction levels and the highest propensity to recommend; negatives score the lowest satisfaction and intention to recommend (Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Tourists describe their emotional experience towards destinations in terms of positive emotions rather than negative words (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016). “The destination attributes hospitality, infrastructure, environment, unethical business practices, and unexpected incidents significantly influence agonistic emotions, whereas safety, hospitality, and unethical business practices affect retreat emotions” (Kim, Guo & Wang, 2021: 1). Thus, emotions are

the most relevant component of the tourism industry's influence and of the holiday experience (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016).

Loneliness

Loneliness describes both an experience and a feeling or emotion in a specific (immediate experience) and general (a state more or less durable) way (Rubinstein, 1986). “Loneliness not only disrupts social relationships, it also leads to increased depressive symptomatology and increases organismic wear and tear” (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2009: 227). The Evolutionary Theory of Loneliness (ETL) is based on the assumption that “an organism's perception of being socially isolated (...) signals an environment in which the likelihood is low of encountering social behaviours categorized in terms of evolutionary fitness as mutual benefit or altruism” (Cacioppo & Cacioppo, 2018: 127). Concerning antecedents of loneliness, personal characteristics (e.g., gender, marital status, socioeconomic status), environments, community/safety, design of the built environment, community and neighbourhood design, civic spaces, transportation, community-engagement opportunities, and access to activities and amenities within the local have been identified (Prohaska, Burholt, Burns, Golden, Hawkley, Lawlor, Leavey, Lubben, O'Sullivan & Perissinotto, 2020). Concerning consequences, there is evidence linking social isolation and loneliness to worse cardiovascular and mental health outcomes (Leigh-Hunt, Bagguley, Bash, Turner, Turnbull, Valtorta & Caan, 2017); also, health behaviours (e.g., physical activity), stress, sleep, cognition, and premature mortality are some of the resulting factors of loneliness (Prohaska et al., 2020).

Methods

All procedures were based on the Helsinki Declaration. Authorization was requested from the UTAD Ethics Committee, and the investigation protocol included informed consent where confidentiality and anonymity of the data were guaranteed. The research protocol was disseminated through social networks, and the inclusion criteria consisted of being over 18 years old and Portuguese. The sociodemographic questionnaire included the variables gender (0 – male; 1 – female), age, marital status (0 – no relation; 1 – in a relation), children (0 – no, 1 – yes), education (0 – without university studies, 1 – with university studies) and professional status (0 – inactive; 1 – active). The tourism questionnaire included the variables “have you ever travelled?” (0 – no; 1 – yes); “on average, how many times a year do you travel?”; “motives to travel: leisure, family, work, health, religion, other”; “do you travel more in Portugal than outside Portugal?” (0 – no; 1 – yes); “would you like to travel more?” (0 – no; 1 – yes). The TWS (Garcês, Pocinho & Jesus, 2018) is a self-assessment measure that evaluates tourism well-being in each destination. The TWS was developed based on the Human Optimal Psychological Experience (HOPE) model (Garcês, Pocinho & Jesus, 2017). In turn, the HOPE model was developed based on Positive Psychology, above all in the PERMA model (Positive emotion; Engagement; Relationships; Meaning; Accomplishments) (Seligman, 2011). The HOPE model presupposes that tourists' creativity, optimism, and spirituality influence their well-being; the activities carried out in the destination also influence these variables. The TWB was originally composed of 30 items and eight theoretical factors: a) Positive Emotions; b) Engagement; c) Relationships; d) Meaning, e) Accomplishment; f) Creativity; g) Spirituality; and h) Optimism. Responses followed a Likert scale from 1, Totally Disagree, to 7, Totally Agree. Total scores ranged from 30 to 210 points in the 30-item form (Garcês, Pocinho & Jesus, 2018). Also, Cronbach's alpha for the total was 0.97. However, Garcês and colleagues (2020) proposed a short unifactorial version with 8 items ranging from 8 to 56 points, being that a higher score means greater tourism well-being. The authors proposed that low well-being

score ranges from 8 to 38 points; average well-being from 39 to 44 points, and high well-being from 45 to 56 points. Cronbach's alpha for the total is 0.87.

The DES was developed by Hosany and Gilbert (2010) to evaluate the full range of tourists' emotional experiences concerning the destination. The author carried out a rigorous scale development procedure, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, and identified three salient dimensions to represent the DES, joy, love, and positive surprise (each dimension includes 5 items). The scale includes 15 items, and respondents rated several emotion statements (e.g., "I felt a sense of pleasure") on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = not at all to 7 = very much). The authors found Cronbach's alpha values between 0.78 and 0.86 (Hosany et al., 2015).

The revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau & Cutrona, 1980) is a revised version of the original UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau & Ferguson, 1978). The purpose for this revision was to generate 10 out of the 20 original items reverse scored. In addition, this scale has been revised to simplify the wording. This is a 20-item scale conceived to measure loneliness subjective and social isolation feelings. Participants evaluate each item on a scale from 1 (never) to 4 (often). This measure is extremely reliable, in terms of internal consistency (coefficient α ranging from .89 to .94) and test-retest reliability over a 1-year period ($r = .73$). Convergent validity for the scale was shown by significant correlations with other measures of loneliness. The Portuguese version of this instrument was carried out by Neto (1989; 1992) who found Cronbach's alpha of 0.82.

Descriptive analysis indicators were used to characterize the sample. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (maximum likelihood) with principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted for the 15 items of the DES by running an orthogonal (i.e., Varimax) rotated analysis to achieve a factor structure for these variables. Sample adequacy was evaluated using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value (Kaiser, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Field, 2013). Factors were assessed using Eigenvalues greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1970) and a minimum of 3 items per factor (Carpenter, 2018). Items were removed based on communalities (< 0.30), factor loadings (< 0.40), matrix correlation (< 0.30) and if Cronbach's alpha increased if item deleted.

CFA with robust maximum likelihood estimation was conducted with the Satorra and Bentler (2001) corrected chi-square ($\chi^2 < 2$) being applied, using AMOS 27 (Arbuckle, 2020). Comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used to evaluate overall global model fit. Higher values for CFI and TLI and lower values for RMSEA indicated a better fit. CFI and TLI $\geq .90$ and RMSEA $\leq .08$ were criteria for adequate model fit, whereas CFI and TLI $\geq .95$ and RMSEA $\leq .06$ were criteria for well-fitting models (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Browne and Cudeck (1992) employed the definition of "close fit", being that PCLOSE gives a test of close fit ($\geq .05$). Standardized Root Mean Square (SRMR) permits to evaluate the average magnitude of the inconsistencies between observed and expected correlations as an absolute measure of (model) fit criterion, and it should present < 0.08 value (Kline, 2015).

Reliability was assessed by Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha > 0.700$) (Salkind, 2015). Convergent validity was calculated by composite reliability (CR > 0.700) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and average variance extracted (AVE > 0.500) values (Ping, 2009). Discriminant validity was assessed by the square roots of the AVE values that should be higher than the correlation of the specific construct with any of the other constructs (Ping, 2009). To assess the relationship between emotion destination and tourism well-being, Pearson correlation analyses were performed. Based on significant correlations, variables were selected to be included in a hierarchical multiple regression analysis (MRA) (enter method) to find which variables contributed to tourism well-being.



Finally, to analyse moderating roles of different variables, the moderation assumptions were tested, and since they were fulfilled, the Macro Process for SPSS, version 3.5, was used. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Sample

Most of the sample is female, is in an affective relationship, and has no children; the majority has university studies and is professionally active. The mean age of the sample is about 34 years old. The overwhelming majority of the sample has already travelled, on average, about three times. Most of the sample travels on vacation and not because of work, family, religion, or health. Most respondents travel more in Portugal than abroad and prefer to travel more than usual (Table 1).

Table 1: Sample frequencies

Sociodemographic variables		N (%)
Sample		1,356 (100.0)
Gender	Female	752 (55.5)
	Male	604 (44.5)
Marital status	No relation	469 (34.6)
	In a relation	887 (65.4)
Children	No	842 (62.1)
	Yes	514 (37.9)
Education	Without university studies	503 (37.1)
	With university studies	853 (62.9)
Professional status	Inactive	128 (9.4)
	Active	1,228 (90.6)
Age	<i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i> ; Min-Max	33.84±13.23;16-85
Tourism variables		N (%)
Ever travelled	No	45 (3.3)
	Yes	1311 (96.7)
How often	<i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i> ; Min-Max	3.08±7.13;0-99
Reasons to travel		
Leisure	No	136 (10.0)
	Yes	1,220 (90.0)
Work	No	1118 (82.4)
	Yes	238 (17.6)
Family	No	935 (69.0)
	Yes	421 (31.0)
Religion	No	1,339 (98.7)
	Yes	17 (1.3)
Health	No	1,334 (98.4)
	Yes	22 (1.6)
Other	No	1,329 (98.0)
	Yes	27 (2.0)
Travel more in Portugal	No	285 (11.0)
	Yes	1,071 (79.0)
Prefer to travel more	No	49 (3.6)
	Yes	1307 (96.4)

N =frequencies; % =percentage; *M* =mean; *SD* = standard deviation; Min =minimum; Max =Maximum.

Exploratory factor analysis

The exploratory factorial analysis (Table 2), found a structure in which the 15 items were distributed by three factors, explaining 73.40% of the total variance. However, item 11 was not discriminatory, as they saturated very closely in three factors. Thus, it was decided to exclude item 11.

Table 2: Destination Emotion Scale: Exploratory Factorial Analysis

(N = 1,356) (15 items)				
	<i>h</i> ²	<i>LD1</i>	<i>LD2</i>	<i>LD3</i>
1. I feel cheerful	0.745	0.323	0.770	0.219
2. I feel a sense of delight	0.509	0.122	0.693	0.118
3. I feel a sense of enthusiasm	0.787	0.211	0.805	0.308
4. I feel a sense of joy	0.818	0.286	0.811	0.280
5. I feel a sense of pleasure	0.765	0.384	0.719	0.317
6. I feel a sense of tenderness	0.747	0.770	0.347	0.182
7. I feel a sense of love	0.795	0.821	0.294	0.185
8. I feel a sense of caring	0.645	0.759	0.106	0.240
9. I feel a sense of affection	0.843	0.864	0.220	0.222
10. I feel a sense of warm-hearted	0.736	0.737	0.307	0.313
11. I feel a sense of amazement	0.689	0.485	0.427	0.522
12. I feel a sense of astonishment	0.733	0.168	0.190	0.818
13. I feel fascinated	0.781	0.228	0.384	0.763
14. I feel a sense of inspiration	0.656	0.339	0.267	0.685
15. I feel a sense of surprise	0.761	0.225	0.172	0.825
Eigenvalues		8.32	1.44	1.25
Variance explained (%)		55.47	9.57	8.36
Correlation matrix range [0.30-0.90]	0.30-0.76			
Determinant score [above 0.00001]	1.15E-005			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (<i>df</i>); <i>p</i> < 0.05	15,346.83 (105); <0.001			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) (above 0.50)	0.95			
Diagonal element anti-correlation matrix (above 0.50)	0.92-0.97			

*h*² = Extracted Communality Coefficients; LD = Structure coefficients

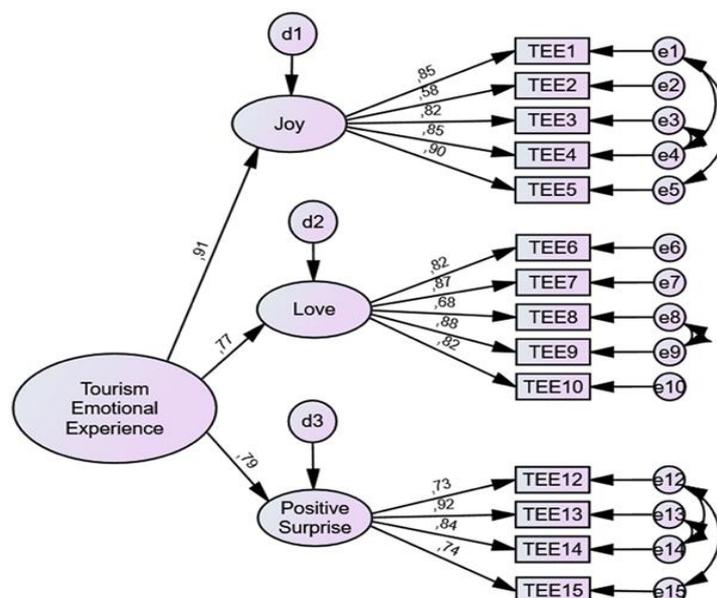


Figure 1: Destination emotion scale model



Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

A confirmatory factorial analysis of the 14 items and three factors was carried out to confirm the model found in the exploratory factorial analysis. It was found that the CFA of the Destination Emotion Scale presented a good model adjustment [$\chi^2(69) = 4.33$; $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.98; TLI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.05; PCLOSE = 0.53; SRMR = 0.03], despite modification indices having suggested correlations between some errors, which were tolerated as they appeared all within one factor (Figure 1).

Convergent and divergent validity

Reliability was assessed by Cronbach's alpha presenting values above the recommended. Convergent validity was assessed by composite reliability (CR) (which values were above the reference ones) and average variance extracted (AVE) values (which values were over 0.500) (Ping, 2009). Finally, discriminant validity was assessed by the square roots of the AVE values (Table 3); all these values were higher than the correlation values of each construct, except for the DES total.

Table 3: Correlations, AVE, AVE square roots, CR, mean, standard deviation and Cronbach's alpha of Destinations Emotion Scale total and subscales

	1	2	3	4	AVE	CR	M	SD	α
1 Destination Emotion Total	0.776				0.602	0.955	5.47	1.09	0.94
2 Joy	0.869**	0.934			0.579	0.873	5.72	1.15	0.90
3 Love	0.880**	0.638**	0.792		0.627	0.893	5.43	1.33	0.92
4 Positive surprise	0.851**	0.641**	0.603**	0.775	0.600	0.857	5.13	1.36	0.88

** $p < 0.001$ of Pearson correlation; AVE = average variance extracted; **bold** = AVE square roots; CR = composite reliability; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; α = Cronbach's alpha

Correlations

In Table 4, correlations between tourism well-being and DES and its subscales, loneliness, affinities, and isolation can be found. All dimensions correlate significantly and positively with tourism well-being, except isolation that correlates significantly and negatively with tourism well-being. The lowest correlations occur between loneliness total (UCLA) and tourism well-being and between isolation (UCLA) and tourism well-being. The highest correlation occurs between DES total and tourism well-being.

Table 4: Correlation between loneliness, affinities, isolation, and DES and tourism well-being

	Tourism well-being
1 Destination Emotion Total	0.458**
2 Joy	0.376**
3 Love	0.416**
4 Positive surprise	0.408**
5 Loneliness	0.157**
6 Affinities	0.381**
7 Isolation	-0.245**

** the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level



(H1) Marital status, family as a reason to travel, love (DES), positive surprise (DES), and affinities (UCLA) will contribute to explain the tourism well-being variance.

Regression analysis

Marital status, family as a reason to travel, love (DES), positive surprise (DES), and affinities (UCLA) explain, all together, 28% of the tourism well-being variance (Table 5). Love (DES), positive surprise (DES) and affinities (UCLA) present the strongest contribution to explain tourism well-being. Thus, having no romantic relationship, travel because of the family, experience more love and positive surprise destination, and feeling more affinities explain tourism well-being.

Table 5: Multiple linear regression for travel well-being

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	RMSE	<i>R</i> ² Change	<i>F</i> Change	df1	df2	<i>p</i>
1	0.53	0.28	0.28	0.77	0.28	142.75	2	110	< 0.001
95% CI									
Model				<i>B</i>	<i>SD</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower Upper
1	(Intercept)			2.196	.171		12.840	<0.001	1.861 2.532
	Marital status			-0.185	0.049	-0.096	-3.740	<0.001	-0.281 -0.088
	Reason to travel - family			0.106	0.050	0.054	2.124	0.034	0.008 0.203
	Love (DES)			0.151	0.023	0.222	6.720	<0.001	0.107 0.195
	Positive Surprise (DES)			0.154	0.021	0.232	7.280	<0.001	0.113 0.196
	Affinities (UCLA)			0.401	0.043	0.246	9.239	<0.001	0.316 0.486

R = correlation; *R*² = *R**100 = % of explained variance; RMSE = root mean square error; *F* = Snedecor's *F* distribution; df = default freedom; *p* = *p*-value; *B* = shared variance between variables; β = regression coefficient; *t* = Student's *t*-test; CI = confidence interval

Moderations

Moderation analysis was carried out. The outcome variable (the dependent one) was tourism well-being; the predictive variables (the independent ones) were DES total, joy (DES), love (DES), and positive surprise (DES); and the moderator variables were dichotomous variables related to reasons for traveling, with the exception of those whose differences between the two response modalities were less than 10% of the sample (religious, health and other motives and preference to travel more); another moderator variable was traveling more inside or outside country. Of the motivations for traveling, only family and work proved to moderate the relationship between DES and its subscales and tourism well-being.

(H2) Family and work as reasons to travel will moderate the relationship between DES and its subscales and tourism well-being.

To travel or not because of the family is a moderator in the relationship between love (DES) and tourism well-being. The interaction between love and traveling or not because of the family was found to be statistically significant [$\beta = -0.097$; 95% CI (-0.173, -0.021), $t = -2.519$, $p = 0.012$]. The conditional effect of love (DES) on tourism well-being showed corresponding results: when traveling because of the family (high), love = 1.334, the conditional effect =

0.215, 95% CI (0.153, 0.278), $t = 6.759$, $p < 0.001$; when not travelling because of the family (low), love = -1.334, the conditional effect = 0.312, 95% CI (0.270, 0.355), $t = 14.400$, $p < 0.001$. These results identify traveling because of the family (or not) as a significant moderator of the positive relationship between love (DES) and tourism well-being; this relationship is stronger when one does not travel because of the family.

To travel or not because of the family is a moderator in the relationship between positive surprise (DES) and tourism well-being. The interaction between positive surprise and traveling or not because of the family was found to be statistically significant [$\beta = -0.082$; 95% CI (-0.157, -0.006), $t = -2.121$, $p = 0.034$]. The conditional effect of positive surprise (DES) on tourism well-being showed that when traveling because of the family, positive surprise = 1.361, the conditional effect = 0.216, 95% CI (0.154, 0.278), $t = 6.784$, $p < 0.001$; when not travelling because of the family, positive surprise = -1.361, the conditional effect = 0.298, 95% CI (0.255, 0.340), $t = 13.780$, $p < 0.001$. These results identify traveling (or not) because of the family as a significant moderator of the relationship between positive surprise (DES) and tourism well-being, being stronger when travelling did not happen because of the family. These results show that traveling because of the family (or not) is a significant moderator of the positive relationship between positive surprise (DES) and tourism well-being, being that this relationship is stronger when one does not travel because of the family.

Also, to travel (or not) because of work is a moderator in the relationship between love (DES) and tourism well-being. The interaction between love and traveling or not because of the work was found to be statistically significant [$\beta = 0.143$; 95% CI (0.049, 0.238), $t = 2.980$, $p = 0.029$]. The conditional effect of love (DES) on tourism well-being showed that when traveling because of the work, love = 1.334, the conditional effect = 0.401, 95% CI (0.315, 0.487), $t = 9.118$, $p < 0.001$; when not travelling because of the work, love = -1.334, the conditional effect = 0.257, 95% CI (0.219, 0.296), $t = 13.124$, $p < 0.001$. These results identify traveling or not because of the work as a significant moderator of the relationship between love (DES) and tourism well-being, being stronger when traveling did not happen because of the work.

Again, to travel (or not) because of work is a moderator in the relationship between total DES and tourism well-being. The interaction between total DES and traveling or not because of the work was found to be statistically significant [$\beta = 0.149$; 95% CI (0.033, 0.266), $t = 2.527$, $p = 0.012$]. The conditional effect of total DES on tourism well-being showed that when travelling because of the work, total DES = 1.094, the conditional effect = 0.501, 95% CI (0.395, 0.606), $t = 9.305$, $p < 0.001$; when not travelling because of the work, total DES = -1.094, the conditional effect = 0.351, 95% CI (0.303, 0.399), $t = 14.295$, $p < 0.001$. These results identify traveling or not because of the work as a significant moderator of the relationship between total DES and tourism well-being, being stronger when traveling did not happen because of the work.

(H3) Traveling in Portugal or abroad will be a moderator in the relationship between DES (and its subscales) and tourism well-being.

Traveling in Portugal or abroad is a moderator of the relationship between total DES and tourism well-being [$\beta = 0.135$; 95% CI (-0.238, -0.031), $t = -2.545$, $p = 0.011$], joy (DES) and tourism well-being [$\beta = 0.137$; 95% CI (-0.239, -0.035), $t = -2.627$, $p = 0.009$], and love (DES) and tourism well-being [$\beta = -0.115$; 95% CI (-0.200, -0.030), $t = -2.643$, $p = 0.008$]. These relationships are stronger when traveling more in Portugal than abroad. The conditional effect of total DES on tourism well-being showed that when travelling more in Portugal, total DES = 1.094, the conditional effect = 0.346, 95% CI (0.295, 0.396), $t = 13.532$, $p < 0.001$; when

travelling more aboard, total DES = -1.094, the conditional effect = 0.480, 95% CI (0.389, 0.571), $t = 10.369$, $p < 0.001$. The conditional effect of joy (DES) on tourism well-being showed that when travelling more in Portugal, joy (DES) = 1.284, the conditional effect = 0.272, 95% CI (0.224, 0.320), $t = 11.093$, $p < 0.001$; when travelling more aboard, joy (DES) = -1.316, the conditional effect = 0.409, 95% CI (0.318, 0.499), $t = 8.872$, $p < 0.001$. The conditional effect of love (DES) on tourism well-being showed that when travelling more in Portugal, love (DES) = 1.569, the conditional effect = 0.257, 95% CI (0.217, 0.296), $t = 12.361$, $p < 0.001$; when travelling more aboard, love (DES) = -1.316, the conditional effect = 0.371, 95% CI (0.296, 0.446), $t = 9.678$, $p < 0.001$.

Discussion

This study aimed to determine predictors and moderators of tourism well-being among destination emotions (total, joy, love, and positive surprise), loneliness (total, affinities, and isolation), and reasons to travel. For such purpose, a non-probabilistic convenience sample of 1,356 Portuguese participants over 18 years of age was used. An investigation protocol was applied including sociodemographic and touristic behaviour questions, the Tourism Well-being Scale (TWS), the Destination Emotion Scale (DES), and the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale. TWS and Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale were already validated for the Portuguese population by Garcês, Pocinho and Jesus (2018) and by Neto (1989; 1992), respectively, but this was not the case with DES. Thus, an exploratory factorial analysis of DES (that found a structure in which the 15 items were distributed by three factors, explaining 73.40% of the total variance) was carried out. However, item 11 was not discriminatory and was excluded. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis of the 14 items and three factors was performed, confirming the model found in the exploratory factor analysis. Reliability, convergent and divergent validity were found concerning DES, showing that this instrument presents good psychometric qualities.

Total DES and its subscales correlate significantly and positively with tourism well-being, except isolation that correlates significantly and negatively with tourism well-being. The strongest correlation occurs between DES total and tourism well-being. These results corroborate those of Gao et al. (2018), i.e., that tourists presented significantly higher perceptions of well-being after vacation and when they used emotion regulation strategies to deal with emodiversity. Also, Hartwell et al. (2018) found that several types of tourism can affect the emotional, cognitive, psychological, and spiritual dimensions of well-being for tourists and destination communities. Total UCLA and its subscales (affinities and isolation) also correlate, positively and negatively, respectively, with tourism well-being, corroborating Illario et al. (2019) and Sirgy (2021), who found a connection between loneliness and tourism well-being by considering that tourism is a response to loneliness, promoting well-being.

Having no romantic relationship (i.e., being single, separated, divorced, or widow), not traveling because of the family, experiencing more love and positive surprise destination, and feeling more affinities explain 28% of the tourism well-being variance. People who are not in a relationship and who travel alone can devote more attention to the trip itself (e.g., destination, time, learning) and therefore enjoy the trip more, hence the perception of more well-being. Besides, due to this socio-demographic trend, an increasing number of single households, and the decline of social bonds, there is an increasing demand for products and services developed for single persons (Biernat & Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2012). Furthermore, family travel positively impacts the quality of family life and family functioning, namely, communication and togetherness, shared exploration, escape and relaxation, and experiential learning for children (Lehto, Fu, Li & Zhou, 2017; D Venter & Kruger, 2017). Therefore, many families choose to do so. Also, Durko and Petrick (2013) found that travel is a way to use some family time to

improve communications, reduce the divorce possibility, strengthen lifelong family bonds, and increase well-being in adults and children. Emotions have a pervasive influence on various aspects of tourism (Hosany et al., 2015), and these emotions are related to tourism well-being, especially positive emotions, as tourists tend to describe their emotional experience towards destinations in terms of positive emotions rather than negative words (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016). People who feel more affinities with other people also tend to feel more tourism well-being; in fact, Goulias, Ravulaparthi, Polydoropoulou and Yoon (2013) found that travel as a passenger is almost ever a pleasant activity, but traveling alone is associated with both positive and negative feelings. Thus, our first hypothesis has been confirmed.

Traveling because of the family (or not) moderates the positive relationship between love (DES) and tourism well-being; this relationship is stronger when one does not travel because of the family. Also, traveling because of the family (or not) moderates the positive relationship between positive surprise (DES) and tourism well-being; this relationship is stronger when one does not travel because of the family. These results may suggest that when one travels because of the family, the destination emotions have a less important role in achieving well-being than when one does not travel because of the family. Besides, although “family holiday is a demonstration of togetherness, it is also imbued with disagreements” (Yao et al., 2020: 727), which might reduce the well-being.

Traveling because of the work (or not) is a moderator of the relationship between love (DES) and tourism well-being, being stronger when traveling did not happen because of the work. Also, traveling because of the work (or not) is a moderator of the relationship between total DES and tourism well-being, being stronger when traveling did not happen because of the work. Again, these results may suggest that one travels because of the work, the destination emotions have a less important role in achieving well-being than when one does not travel because of the work. Ye and Xu (2020) found that business travel functions as demand and resource, affecting tourist well-being in negative and positive ways; not only professional utility counts but also the emotional factor. Wheatley and Bickerton (2016) found four central factors of well-being impacts related to work-for travel: frequency of travel; ability to plan travel; productive use of travel time; and reciprocal benefits of travel (the more the better impact on well-being). Our second hypothesis has been confirmed.

Traveling in Portugal or abroad moderates the relationship between total DES and tourism well-being, joy (DES) and tourism well-being and love (DES) and tourism well-being. These relationships are stronger when traveling more in Portugal than abroad. These results may be explained because of the emotional connection that Portuguese participants have to their country. Positive and negative emotions are significant determinants of place attachment (Hosany et al., 2017), contributing (or not) to tourism well-being. Finally, our third hypothesis has been also confirmed.

Conclusion

The relationship between destination emotions and tourism well-being is stronger when people do not travel for family or work; this relationship is also stronger when people travel within Portugal than when traveling outside Portugal. These results suggest a specific role for emotions in tourism well-being that should be considered when considering itineraries for different marital situations, work, or trip types. This study presents some limitations that should be acknowledged, namely, that the sample is a convenience sample and that it is a cross-sectional rather than longitudinal study, which would allow one to analyse the stability of results over time. Future studies should focus more on the contribution of family and work to tourism well-being and the role of emotions in this contribution.

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