



TOURIST TYPES AND HAPPINESS A COMPARATIVE STUDY IN MAREMMA, ITALY

Salvatore Bimonte, Valeria Faralla
University of Siena, Italy

Abstract: Combining two lines of investigation—into alternative forms of tourism and the economics of happiness—this study addresses two intriguing issues from the specific viewpoint of an economist. It investigates whether and to what extent the attitudes and behaviors of alternative tourists, in this case park visitors, differ with respect to other more mass types of tourists, in our case beach tourists. Then, it seeks to understand whether a relationship exists between self-reported happiness and the type of tourist one belongs to. Ultimately, considering the standard definition, it investigates whether alternative forms of tourism may be considered beneficial for both hosts and guests. Results are discussed in an attempt to stimulate more in-depth research in this field. **Keywords:** happiness, economic growth, nature-based tourist, self or others-oriented motivation. © 2012 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

INTRODUCTION

Happiness is a multi-faceted and much-debated issue. Typically studied by philosophers and psychologists, it has only recently attracted the attention of economists, since empirical and experimental evidence has shown that: individuals are not always or completely rational and selfish when taking decisions; their choices are not autonomous and independent, as contextual aspects, such as comparison, may affect individuals' utility; aspects other than income or tangible goods may impact individuals' welfare (see Deleire & Kalil, 2010; Frey & Stutzer, 2002a, 2002b; and Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999; Powdthavee, 2007; Rojas, 2011); finally, people do not appreciate things *per se*, but rather for their capacity to allow them to pursue happiness. The now famous Easterlin paradox highlighted that economic growth does not necessarily translate into increased happiness (Easterlin, 1974), or does not do so in a linear way (Helliwell, 2003), at least in countries with a level of income sufficient to meet basic needs.

Salvatore Bimonte is Associate Professor of Economics at the University of Siena (Department of Political Economy, Piazza S. Francesco, 7, 53100 Siena, Italy. Email <bimonte@unisi.it>). His main research interests are in the field of Environmental Economics, Sustainable Tourism, Nature Tourism. Valeria Faralla is Research Assistant at the Department of Political Economy, University of Siena, Siena, Italy. Her main interests are in the field of Cognitive Economics, as applied to human decision-making.

Numerous studies have sought for determinants of happiness other than income and tested for correlations between economic (unemployment, inflation, income distribution), socio-demographic, institutional and contextual (e.g. social capital, trust, quality of the public sector) conditions and subjective life satisfaction (Blanchflower, 1996; Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; Di Tella, MacCulloch, & Oswald, 2001; Easterlin, 2001; Frey & Stutzer, 2000; Helliwell, 2003; Veenhoven, 2000). These studies have highlighted the impact of non-economic variables on self-reported satisfaction. Choices and preferences, like life satisfaction, cannot be explained by socio-demographic and geographic descriptors alone. They are also influenced by interests, values, opinions, lifestyles and motivations, which can be defined as psychographic factors. Therefore, psychographic segmentation methods and comparisons may be of some use to complement other forms of analysis and explicitly test fundamental assumptions and propositions.

This paper aims to test whether a correlation exists between lifestyles, as expressed by consumer behaviors, and reported happiness. Specific lifestyles are adopted by groups of people who, without any constraint, have similar behaviors, share values and opinions, and carry out similar activities. People's lifestyles relate to their economic status, how they spend their money, and how they allocate their time; they also normally translate into specific consumer behaviors. The latter are clearly represented by the activities that an individual experiences during her/his vacation time. As a (specific) form of leisure, tourism can be studied in the context of people's everyday lives. Being a social phenomenon, it is influenced by a range of external factors related to the dynamics of society, such as changes in reference values, allocation of time to work, and free time at various life stages (Cushman, 1986); like any other individual manifestation, people involved in different forms of tourism have a host of different motivations and needs (see Espinoza, n.d.; Luo & Deng, 2008). One of the various definitions describes tourism as "the set of ideas, the theories or ideologies, for being a tourist, and it is the behavior of people in touristic roles when the ideas are put into practice" (Leiper, 1990, p. 17). This explains, for example, why individuals with positive environmental beliefs or attitudes are usually keener to learn about and experience nature, implement responsible behavior and pursue environmental goals during their vacation experiences.

In order to capture these aspects, this paper performs a comparative analysis between two different types of tourist, which both make use of natural resources but, due to the characteristics of the study sites and the activities that tourists perform, differ in terms of attitudes, opinions and motivations: park visitors (PVs) who are one of the possible forms of the so-called alternative tourists, and beach visitors (BVs) who represent an urbanized and more mass form of tourism (Mihalič, 2005; Newsome, Moore, & Dowling, 2002). Nature-based tourism (NBT) is surely one of the most debated and investigated forms of alternative tourism. Its activities may be classified as appreciative (hiking, sightseeing, bird-watching), consumptive (hunting, fishing, building) or abusive (water-scootering, snowboarding, motor-biking) (Dunlap &

Heffernan, 1975). Environmental concern and a nature-friendly attitude are normally more closely related to appreciative activities (Teisl & O'Brien, 2003). Simultaneously, according to an individual's needs, motives and, consequently, preferences, activities may be performed with no other reward except the activity itself or with reward accruing as its "side-product". In the latter case, depending on their contingent motivational state, individuals may be classified as self-oriented or others-oriented (Apter & Carter, 2002). In the first group the basic value is individuality, individuals' orientation is towards their own needs, and participation is mainly related to instrumental reasons, e.g. rent-seeking or status. In the second group the basic value is transcendence, individuals' orientation is towards the needs of others (people, groups, causes), and satisfaction is gained from the feeling that one's own participation has had a positive impact on others (although orientation towards others is not necessarily synonymous with altruism). In the past, economics neglected relationships that do not give rise to market transactions but that nevertheless impact personal wellbeing (see Bartolini, Bilancini, & Pugno, 2009; Becchetti, Pelloni, & Rossetti, 2008; Bruni & Stanca, 2008; Helliwell, 2006; Helliwell & Putnam, 2004).

Merging two lines of investigation—into happiness and alternative tourism—this paper investigates whether (all other things being equal) forms of tourism characterized by external impacts or transcendent values, compared to others in which individuality seems to prevail, have any relationship with self-reported happiness. In other words, skipping the definitional issue which is beyond the scope of the present paper, it tests whether different forms of tourism activities, apart from contributing in different ways to local communities and economies, also have an impact on self-reported wellbeing, which is the ultimate hypothesis put forward in the definition of alternative tourist. In practice, building upon and empirically enlarging a previous study by Bimonte (2008), this paper presents and discusses the results of an experiment carried out in the Italian coastal region of Maremma. The main goal was to investigate in comparative terms the behavior, attitudes and perceived happiness of tourists and to test whether and to what extent they depend on the type of tourist one is, rather than on socioeconomic characteristics, as suggested by some theoretic economic models (Bimonte, 2009; Deaton, 2008; Easterlin & Angelescu, 2009; Magnani, 2000).

The contribution of vacations to people's life satisfaction has only recently attracted the attention of tourism researchers. As a consequence, there is still limited knowledge about this issue (Dolnicar, Yanamandram, & Cliff, 2012). Existing studies mainly investigate the contribution of leisure to tourists' quality of life. To the author's knowledge, no study analyses the issue in comparative terms.

HAPPINESS AND NATURE-BASED TOURISM: A BRIEF REVIEW

Findings in the Economics of Happiness

The concept and meaning of "happiness" has been intensely debated, especially by psychologists who have long discussed about the

sources of human satisfaction. Happiness, or subjective well-being, is normally conceived as being the degree of how one views one's life as a whole, or some particular domain of one's life, as favorable (Powdthavee, 2007, p. 5). However, concepts such as happiness, well-being, life satisfaction, are often used as synonyms (Easterlin 2004; McGillivray & Clarke, 2006). Bruni and Porta (2007) present some explanations on the differences between happiness and subjective well-being. However, it is not the aim of this paper to enter into this debate. Useful insights may be found in some basic references (see for example Frey, 2010; Veenhoven, 2007).

Traditionally, in the standard economic approach wellbeing is measured in term of a single objective dimension, that is, income or consumption. However, it is now widely accepted that the concept of wellbeing is multidimensional and encompasses many aspects of human life. A way to measure it is through the use of composite indices in which objective indicators complement GDP. Although useful, there are many criticisms and caveats to consider when using and comparing such measures (McGillivray, 2007). Another way is represented by subjective measures. These are obtained by asking people to report their happiness and life satisfaction. As a non-observable attitude, researchers maintain that happiness can be studied by asking people how they feel.

In contrast to the theoretical debate, greater consensus is found on the topic in empirical research. Happiness is normally measured by means of both subjective (e.g. surveys) and objective (e.g. psychological and neurobiological indicators) methods. As for the subjective methods, happiness is commonly measured with single-item questions, such as "Taking all things together, would you say you are very happy, rather happy, not very happy, or not at all happy?" (World Values Survey, 2009) or "All things considered, on a one to ten scale, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?" (Veenhoven, 2009). Multi-item scales also exist, such as the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Pavot & Diener, 1993). In recent years, moreover, experience-sampling methods have increasingly been applied (Csikszentmihalyi & Hunter, 2003; Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004; Scollon, Kim-Prieto, & Diener, 2003). Of these different techniques, subjective methods have been shown to be among the more appropriate tools for measuring happiness, by carrying out comparisons across countries or groups, and for understanding the determinants of happiness.

Current happiness research has confirmed that both endogenous and exogenous factors affect individual wellbeing. Frey and Stutzer (2002a) distinguished between five categories of factors that determine happiness: personality, socio-demographic, economic, contextual and situational, and institutional. These factors seem to be quite similar in different individuals (Cantril, 1965) and are regarded as a tool for interpreting and understanding the reasons underlying individual happiness/unhappiness. As mentioned above, several researchers have concluded that factors other than income should be included in the study of subjective wellbeing. Moreover, Frey and Stutzer (2002b)

highlighted two important facts: the causality of the relationship between income and happiness also seems to work in the opposite direction, and individual life satisfaction is influenced by social comparison. Research findings have also highlighted that ideological and faith-related psychological factors can influence the relationship between income and happiness (Alesina, Di Tella, & MacCulloch, 2004; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Seligman, 2004; Seligman, 2002).

Personality and socio-demographic factors (such as education), as well as contextual and situational factors (e.g. health, marital status) have also been found to have a large influence on happiness (Diener & Fujita, 1995; Diener & Lucas, 1999; Frey & Stutzer, 2002a; Lyubomirsky, Tkach, & Dimatteo, 2006; Murrell, Salsman, & Meeks, 2003; Oishi, Diener, Suh, & Lucas, 1999; Taylor, Funk, & Craighill, 2006; Wilson, 1967). The same emerges in the institutional context, where the effect of factors such as trustworthy governance, democracy, human rights and social capital have been shown to be positively correlated with happiness (Diener & Seligman, 2002; Helliwell, 2003; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001). Low quality of interpersonal relationships have been closely correlated with psychological problems such as depression (Hammen & Brennan, 2002), whereas higher life satisfaction has been found in countries with low levels of corruption (Helliwell, 2003). It is now clear that happiness is affected by various determinants, whose effect on life satisfaction remains only partially explained. At the same time other—as yet unexplored— aspects merit attention. For instance, recently the role of family travels has been found to exert a positive effect on well-being, since these experiences facilitate and enhance the communication and cohesion within the family itself (Lehto, Choi, Lin, & MacDermid, 2009). Therefore, further investigations are needed in order to better understand and broaden the range of factors involved.

Nature-Based Tourism

NBT comes under the category of “alternative tourism”, broadly defined as “forms of tourism that are consistent with natural, social and community values and which allow both hosts and guests to enjoy a positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences” (Smith & Eadington, 1995, p.3). The portion of tourists who visit natural areas and/or seek nature-related experiences to rejuvenate their spirits has grown over the last decade (Balmford, Beresford, Green, Naidoo, & Walpole, 2009; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004; TIES, 2006). This, together with the many problems triggered by “mass” tourism, and the supposed positive impacts of NBT on local communities and economies (Butler, 1990; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1988; Silverberg, Backman, & Backman, 1996), especially in comparative terms (Bimonte, 2008; Jafari, 1990; Wallace & Pierce, 1996; Wight, 1993), justifies the attention that policy makers have recently been devoting to NBT. Simultaneously, its multidimensionality and increasing significance make it one of the most investigated and still intriguing areas of research in tourism.

NBT research has developed to embrace not only analyses of the complex interactions between tourism and the physical environment

(see e.g. Bejder & Samuels, 2003), but also social, economic and community relations (Butler & Boyd, 2000; Dyer, Aberdeen, & Schuler, 2003; Holden, 2000; Newsome et al., 2002; see also Bimonte & Punzo, 2007, 2011). It also investigates socio-demographic characteristics, attitudes and preferences. Surveys have shown that NBTs prefer small and family run rather than large-scale facilities, are more concerned about environmental and cultural impacts, have a greater interest in local and “green” products, and engender a greater multiplier effect (see Ballantyne, Packer, & Hughes, 2009; Bimonte, 2008; Cazes, 1989; Macleod, 2003; Wight, 1996). Others have pointed out that NBTs are older, more educated, more affluent, and more likely to have a professional occupation (Epler Wood, 2002; Hvenegaard & Dearden, 1998; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Priskin, 2003).

A different line of investigation considers NBTs as a non-homogeneous group that should be segmented and investigated, both theoretically and empirically, according to specific features such as individual interests, experiences, activities and motivations (Dolnicar, 2004; Hvenegaard, 2002; Luo & Deng, 2008; Marques, Reis, & Menezes, 2010; Mehmetoglu, 2007; Weaver, 2005). Another line of research seeks to identify the general reasons behind the fast growth of NBT. These studies span from analyses of individuals’ specific interests and needs (Pearce, Morrison, & Rutledge, 1998; Swanson & Horridge, 2006) to social changes affecting tourists’ motivations (Lindberg, 1998), and from person-specific motivations (push) to resort-specific attributes (pull) (Mansfeld, 1992; Witt & Wright, 1992). However, according to Espinoza (n.d.), individuals’ behavior may be determined by their belief that the attractiveness and valence of an outcome (a type of vacation taken) will help them to attain another outcome of greater attractiveness and valence. This means that a visit to a destination has an intrinsic value but is, above all, also of use in attaining an outcome beyond the action in itself. This “side-effect” may be self-oriented or others-oriented. Since changes in beliefs cause changes in behavior, this line of investigation ascribes the current positive trend in NBT to society’s growing environmental awareness.

All this considered, can the different side-effects related to different forms of tourism be said to impact individuals’ perceived life-satisfaction? In particular, is there a relationship between motivational states (as defined previously) and happiness? Together with other aspects, such as identifying the personal profile of tourists and the determinants of happiness, these are the main questions we seek to answer in the following sections.

PARK VISITORS VS. BEACH VISITORS: METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Study Site and Methods

The survey was carried out in Maremma, a famous vacation destination located on the coast of southern Tuscany and characterized by a

high influx of tourists, mainly urbanized beach visitors. It took place from the beginning of July to the end of August 2010, that is, during the peak tourist season for the park and neighboring coastal area. Under the pressure of real-estate development and mass forms of tourism, especially on the coast, in 1975 part of this region was set aside as a Regional Park in order to protect the outstanding examples of natural interest and beauty. The Natural Park of the Maremma is centrally located and is now an important destination for NBTs (Figure 1).

Unlike other studies (e.g. Hvenegaard & Dearden, 1998; Silverberg et al., 1996), the survey performs a comparative analysis between two types of tourist, based on an *a priori* and activity-based segmentation: tourists who visited the Natural Park of the Maremma during their vacation in the area, and BVs who spent their vacation in the surrounding area enjoying the sea without visiting the park, during the same time period. The survey followed a systematic sampling procedure. The sample consisted of 300 individuals, 150 PVs, as a form of NBT,

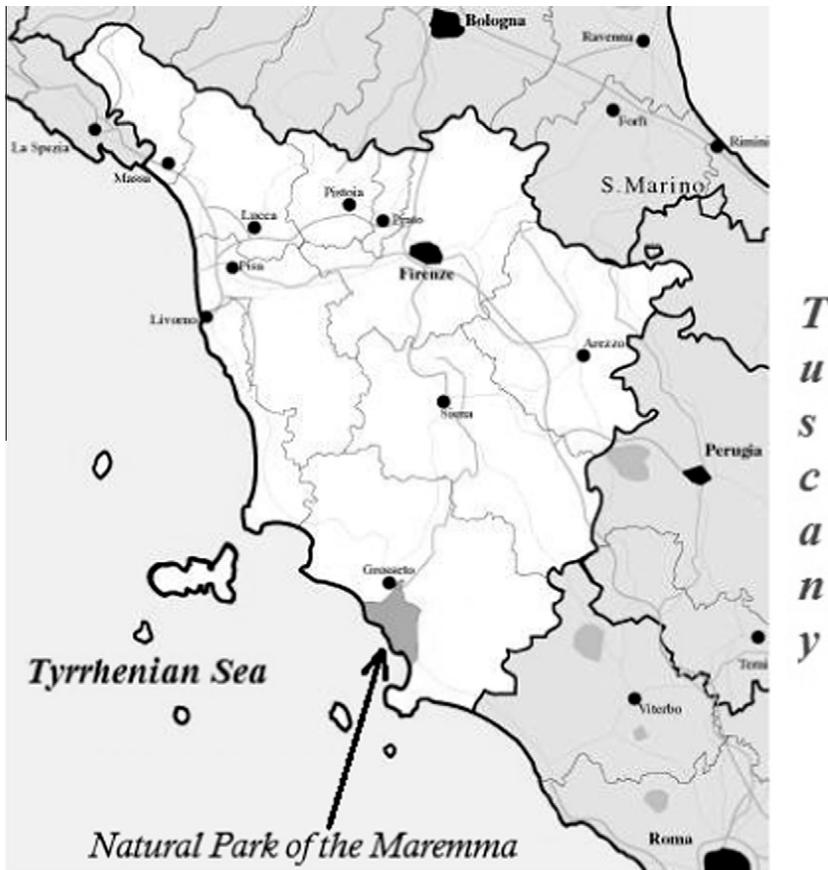


Figure 1. The Park and surrounding area

and 150 BVs, aged 18 to 80 years ($M = 43.8$), of whom 53% were females and 47% males. Data were collected by means of direct interviews through a quadrilingual questionnaire. PVs were selected and interviewed at the park gate; regarding BVs, 100 were randomly selected in 23 different types of accommodation, and another 50 BVs were interviewed directly on the beach, in order to include day-trippers and owners of second homes. To avoid any overlap, the BVs were asked to answer a filter question, i.e. whether or not they had visited the Natural Park during their stay in the area. Accommodations were divided into two strata: a) hotels and similar (“RTA” hotel apartments, serviced apartments); b) campsites and tourist villages. The first stratum was subdivided according to class: one or two stars and three or four stars. There are no five star hotels in the area.

The questionnaire was composed of 18 questions. The first question was devoted to a preliminary assessment of the respondents’ happiness, as measured by a single-item response on a 10-point scale, ranging from 1 (unhappy) to 10 (very happy). The remaining questions were grouped into three different sections in order to capture the following information: a) “structure of preferences”; b) “spending habits during the vacation”, and c) “socio-demographic characteristics”. Each of these sections focused on the different aspects that have consistently been confirmed as important determinants of happiness (Frey & Stutzer, 2002a), or that describe the attitudes and behaviors of tourists. The “structure of preferences” section included a series of questions focusing on different contextual, situational, and institutional factors. For instance: health, family and relationship status were included as *aspects of life*; fairness of public administration and community spirit as *contextual elements of life*; and, finally, pollution, immigration, and petty crime as *aspects that can influence an individual’s quality of life*. Secondly, the section on “spending habits during the vacation” was characterized by questions aimed at clarifying tourists’ behavior during their vacation from the point of view of the amount and composition of their daily spending, especially with regard to their selection of local products, typical restaurants, quality brands, and accommodation. Finally, the “personal questions” mostly covered socio-demographic and economic factors, such as age, education, and income. Questions about political views, religious beliefs and daily amount of time spent watching television were also included. Country of origin and gender were asked for at the beginning of the interview.

Due to the aim of the paper, two distinct analyses were applied. First of all, a descriptive analysis of the two types of tourist was performed, in order to provide a basic description of the data obtained. Secondly, an independence test was applied to calculate the significance of the differences observed between the two samples. Because of the typology of the variables and the characteristics of the sample (non representative), the Fisher exact test (an appropriate nonparametric statistics for testing the relationship between two variables) was performed. After this preliminary analysis, generalized linear models (*glm*) were applied in order to identify any correlation between significant variables and self-reported happiness, which was treated as the response variable. Due

to the qualitative nature of the data, an ordinal logistic model was applied. The procedure followed was based on the R online documentation and the [R data analysis examples](#) of UCLA's Academic Technology Services. Data were analyzed using the R 2.11.1 software developed by the R Foundation for Statistical Computing ([R Development Core Team, 2010](#)).

Results of the Comparison

In contrast to previous studies, our statistical analysis did not reveal any important differences in the tourists' profile in terms of their socio-demographic characteristics. In our opinion, this is because of the period in which the survey was carried out, which is frequently devoted to seaside vacations. It is generally accepted that it is difficult to draw a clear-cut boundary between types of tourism, as many or even most tourists engaged in alternative activities are also mass tourists (Weaver, 1999), and several forms of tourism overlap (Mehmetoglu, 2007; Weaver, Faulkner, & Lawton, 1998). The main descriptive characteristics of the tourists are summarized in [Table 1](#).

Nevertheless, some particular aspects are worth highlighting. Although the median class was often the same for both types of tourist, differences emerged in several areas. Concerning education, these differences increased with the level of education. In particular, the difference between PVs and BVs who had a university degree was 25% for a

Table 1. Main Socio-Demographic, Economic and Behavioural Characteristics

Characteristics	PVs	BTs
Median age	43	44
Sex	47% male; 53% female	47% male; 53% female
Level of education (<i>median class</i>)	High school diploma	High school diploma
Net income per year (<i>median class</i>)	EUR 15,001-25,000	EUR 15,001-25,000
Current employment status (<i>median class</i>)	Full time employee	Full time employee
Religious beliefs	Believers 59%	Believers 76%
Political views	Left 44%	Centre-left 42%
Nationality	Italian 70%	Italian 90%
	Foreign 30%	Foreign 10%
Region of origin of Italians	Tuscany or neighbouring regions 49%	Tuscany or neighbouring regions 80%
<i>Facilities run by local families:</i>		
Accommodation	Farm-stay 35%	Farm-stay 8%
Food	Typical restaurants 62% (<i>always or often</i>)	Typical restaurants 45% (<i>always or often</i>)
Average daily spending (<i>median class</i>) ^a	EUR 20-35	EUR 20-35

Note:

^a Excluding the costs of travel and overnight accommodation.

first level (graduate) university degree and 22% for a second level (postgraduate) university degree. With respect to employment, the percentage of self-employed people and housewives was notably higher among BVs (16% and 4%) than among PVs (7% and 0.7%). The opposite was true for students (3.3% BVs vs. 6% PVs). In addition, PVs were likely to have a higher net income than BVs; considering the two highest classes of income, the percentage of PVs with a net income ≥ 65.001 was 6.7%, against only 1.4% of BVs. PVs and BVs also differed in terms of political and religious beliefs and habits. In particular, 76% of BVs defined themselves as believers, whereas this percentage diminished to 59% among PVs. The majority of PVs and BVs described their political views as left-wing (44% vs. 22%) or center-left (39% vs. 42%). A minority described itself as right-wing (6.5% vs. 12%). BVs had greater exposure to television: the median class watched two hours/day *vs* one hour/day for PVs, and showed a preference for less commercial channels and the state-owned public service (44% vs. 64% respectively). All these differences were found to be statistically significant by means of the Fisher exact test (*p-value* <.001, except for the type of channel, for which it was <.01).

More pronounced differences emerged from the descriptive analysis of behaviors and attitudes (Table 2). For example, with respect to spending habits, it turned out that BVs typically spend less than PVs during their vacations. Indeed, the percentage of tourists that spent at least 35 Euros per day, excluding travel and accommodation costs, was higher for PVs than for BVs (45% vs. 23%). Although the independence test revealed a relationship between the variables “net income per year” and “daily spending” (*p-value* <.001), it is worth noting that a relationship between daily spending and the type of tourist one belongs to exists irrespective of income. PVs were also more influenced by quality brands than BVs (77% vs. 57%), and more inclined to buy typical local and/or organic products (73% vs. 43%). Specifically, 20% of PVs spent more than 30% of their daily outgoings on typical local and/or organic products during the vacation, with 55% spending at least 10%. These percentages were reduced to less than 8% and 35%, respectively, for BVs. Moreover, the majority of PVs (62%) always/often had a meal in a typical local restaurant during their vaca-

Table 2. Spending Habits: Summary of Independence Test (Only Significant Variables)

Characteristics	p-value
Typical local/organic products	<.001
Percentage of daily spending on local/organic products	<.05
Typical restaurant	<.01
Quality brands	<.001
Accommodation	<.001
Level of education	<.001
Net income per year (all income sources)	<.001

tion, whereas this percentage diminished to 45% for BVs. Finally, farm-stay was preferred by 35% of PVs, but only 8% of BVs. The analysis also rejected the null hypothesis for all the variables investigated in this section of the questionnaire. It showed that there was a strong relationship between spending habits during the vacation and visiting the park, irrespective of all other considerations. This is consistent with the hypothesis that PVs are more appreciative (than consumptive or abusive) and more characterized by an others-oriented motivational state.

This aspect was further confirmed by the analysis of personal concerns. Regarding the respondents' perceived impact of certain factors on everyday life, the data highlighted that PVs were more sensitive to environmental issues, such as pollution (61% vs. 55%) and the integrity of environmental resources and landscape (57% vs. 51%). They were also more concerned about corruption and widespread lawlessness (69% vs. 63%) and feeling able to trust the community (51% vs. 45%). In contrast, BVs were more worried than PVs about both petty crime (63% vs. 51%) and organized crime (72% vs. 62%). Both PVs and BVs were quite interested in income, social position, quality of public services, a fairer distribution of income in society, immigration, tax evasion and anthropic overload, with percentages of around 50-60% and only slight differences between the two. The Fisher exact test revealed that many of these variables have a statistically significant relationship with the type of tourist one is (see [Table 3](#)); thus this result confirms and consolidates the findings of other studies and is consistent with the principles that define NBTs.

The survey revealed that PVs were generally more satisfied than BVs concerning all the aspects of life covered in the questionnaire: work, family, relationship status, income, health, and friendships. Irrespective of other variables and characteristics, a relationship with the type of tourist one is also emerged ([Table 4](#)). In particular, when considering scores \geq eight, although PVs and BVs were both satisfied with their family, health, friendships and relationship status, the percentage of satisfaction was at least 10% higher among PVs compared to BVs. With respect to income, 44% of PVs vs. 36% of BVs were satisfied, giving scores \geq eight. As for health and friendships, the Fisher exact test

Table 3. PVs vs. BTs: Summary of Independence Test (Only Significant Variables)

Aspects impacting quality of life	p-value
Integrity of environmental resources and landscape	<.01
Social position	<.001
A fairer distribution of income in society	<.05
Corruption and widespread lawlessness	<.1
Petty crime	<.05
Tax evasion	<.1
Anthropic overload (overcrowding)	<.01

Table 4. PVs vs. BTs: Summary of Independence Test (Only Significant Variables)

Aspects of own life	p-value
Health	<.05
Friendships	<.1
Aspects of the home environment	
Security	<.1
Quality of the urban environment	<.01
Environmental quality in general	<.1
Public services (health, transport, etc.)	<.05
Recreational and cultural services	<.05
Community spirit	<.01
Management of migration	<.01
Fairness of public administration	<.01

showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the level of satisfaction of PVs and BVs.

PVs also turned out to be more satisfied than BVs with respect to some contextual factors, such as the quality of the environment, management of migration, and fairness of public administration in their home community. It is worthwhile noting, however, that while BVs were generally more inclined to give intermediate scores ($5 \leq x \leq 7$), PVs tended to give more extreme evaluations ($x \leq 4$ or $x \geq 8$). For example, for PVs, the percentage of scores ≤ 4 was around double that of BVs for community spirit (28% vs. 15%), environmental quality (17% vs. 8%) and fairness of public administration (28% vs. 13%); it was also about four times higher than the BVs' scores for public services (11% vs. 3%) and recreational and cultural services (13% vs. 3%). All these variables were significant in the independence test, albeit at different levels.

Tourists and Happiness

All this considered, on a scale of one to ten, the majority of both categories of tourists defined themselves as “happy” eight (PVs 38% and BVs 33%). Moreover, the percentage of tourists who gave a score of ten was almost the same for both types (13% vs. 11%). Despite this, the results presented in the previous section show that PVs appeared to be happier than BVs. Indeed, not only did 64% of PVs define themselves as happy ≥ 8 , in contrast to 54% of BVs, but they also never gave a value < 4 (see Figure 2). The ordinal logistic analysis validated this finding: being a PV rather than a BT enhanced the probability of being happy (-0.35 , with a p -value $< .1$). This finding seems to confirm the hypothesis that a relationship between lifestyle and life satisfaction does exist. Although the figure does not appear to be remarkable, it has to be evaluated considering: the likely bias due to the period in which the survey was conducted (people are normally more satisfied

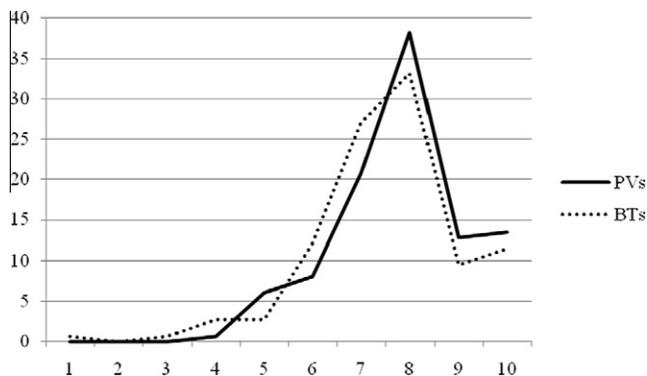


Figure 2. Distribution of happiness score (% of relative frequencies)

during their vacations, which may level out differences) (see for example Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004), and the similar socio-economic profile of the interviewees, due to the overlap of tourism activities.

In order to better identify which variables were significant in predicting the happiness of tourists, ordinal logistic regressions were applied to the two datasets with the aim of highlighting differences between the two types of tourists, rather than estimating the absolute value of the impacts. The results are presented in Table 5. First of all (all other things being equal), the data analysis shows that the happiness of PVs was influenced by a broader range of factors from the category “*aspects influencing the quality of life*”, irrespective of the importance assigned to those variables by both types of tourists in terms of their perceived impact on everyday life (see section 3.2). In this context two elements are worthy of specific attention: regarding PVs, those assigning a higher relevance to income were more likely to have a lower level of happiness (-1.4661); immigration was not significant for PVs and had only a slight negative impact (-0.6574) on the happiness of BVs. We remind the reader that in the ordinal logistic model, positive coefficients mean that a unit change in the independent variable will increase (by the amount of the coefficient) the likelihood of a more positive value of the dependent variable (the logits). In others words, a positive coefficient increases the likelihood of higher (ordinal) numbers of the dependent variable.

Concerning all the remaining aspects, the happiness of both types of tourists depended on a wide range of variables characterizing their personal life as well as their home community life, while differences emerged in terms of intensity, as expected. These results reinforce the evidence that aspects other than money may influence individuals’ happiness and factors such as values and ideology may impact the connection between aspects of life and happiness in different ways. In our case the distinguishing factor was whether the individuals were self- or others-oriented.

Table 5. Happiness and Tourists: Ordinal Logistic Regression (Only Significant Variables)

Characteristics	Park visitors regression coefficient (SE) (p-value)	Beach tourists regression coefficient (SE) (p-value)
<i>Aspects of own life (Base = 1-6)</i>		
Work	2.2171 (0.38) (<.001)	1.3063 (0.40) (<.01)
Family	2.8146 (0.55) (<.001)	2.7835 (0.50) (<.001)
Sentimental situation	2.4312 (0.45) (<.001)	1.6786 (0.37) (<.001)
Income	1.0847 (0.34) (<.01)	1.5964 (0.37) (<.001)
Health	1.5086 (0.49) (<.01)	2.0012 (0.44) (<.001)
Friendships	1.8141 (0.48) (<.001)	1.6636 (0.36) (<.001)
<i>Aspects of the home environment (Base = 1-6)</i>		
Security	0.9420 (0.32) (<.01)	1.5806 (0.33) (<.001)
Quality of the urban environment	0.8394 (0.31) (<.01)	1.2980 (0.31) (<.001)
Environmental quality in general	0.7937 (0.30) (<.01)	0.7969 (0.30) (<.01)
Public services (health, transports, etc.)	0.8851 (0.31) (<.01)	0.8034 (0.30) (<.01)
Recreational and cultural services	0.5128 (0.30) (<.1)	0.7917 (0.30) (<.01)
Spirit community	0.6058 (0.31) (<.05)	1.0883 (0.33) (<.001)
Management of migration	0.9670 (0.33) (<.01)	1.2988 (0.37) (<.001)
Fairness of public administration	1.0381 (0.31) (<.01)	0.6725 (0.32) (<.05)
<i>Aspects impacting quality of life (Base = Not very)</i>		
Income	-1.4661 (0.71) (<.05)	-
Quality of public services	-1.7701 (0.70) (<.05)	-
Feeling able to trust members of their community	-	1.2737 (0.56) (<.05)
Feeling able to trust public administration	-1.2018 (0.45) (<.01)	-
A fairer distribution of income in society	-0.9579 (0.47) (<.05)	-
Immigration	-	-0.6574 (0.39) (<.1)
Corruption and widespread lawlessness	-1.0352 (0.50) (<.05)	-
Organized crime	-0.7856 (0.43) (<.1)	-
Tax evasion	-0.7561 (0.44) (<.1)	-
Anthropic overload (overcrowding)	-	-0.8382 (0.42) (<.05)

CONCLUSIONS

The now rich literature on NBT has focused on the different socio-demographic profile of NBTs and on their attitudes, behaviors and motivations. Alternative forms of tourism have also been investigated for their supposed ability to trigger more positive environmental, social and economic impacts compared to other forms, in particular mass tourism. No research has yet explored whether these positive “side-effects” may be among the determinants of self-reported happiness, or (at the least) whether a correlation exists between NBT and personal life-satisfaction. More specifically, it has not been elucidated whether a correlation exists between what we defined as others- or self-oriented motivational states and happiness in tourists. This study has explored this hypothesis. It has presented the results of a survey on the preferences, behaviors and happiness of two different types of tourists: PVs and BVs. These two types differ in their opinions, attitudes, activities and behaviours; in other words in their lifestyles. The study also demonstrated that statistically significant correlation exists between forms of tourism and behaviours, attitudes and happiness scores.

Although it is now evident that visiting nature-based resources alone is not sufficient to identify NBTs from a motivational perspective, it is also recognized that motivation is not the only criterion for defining NBTs (Mehmetoglu, 2007). Moreover, while a distinction between forms of tourism is practicable, discriminating between types of tourist is not an easy task, since tourists normally engage in a variety of activities during their vacations. Weaver (2001) maintains that many, if not most, participants in soft ecotourism are mass tourists engaged in such activities as part of a broader itinerary. This was found to be the case in our research. Nevertheless, our data analysis demonstrated that tourists engaged in nature-oriented activities (PVs) effectively distinguished themselves by their different behavior, attitudes and life-satisfaction with respect to those who did not (BVs), irrespective of the type of vacation.

Consistently with previous studies, this research confirmed that PVs, as a form of NBTs, were more sensitive to environmental issues, were more interested in local and environmentally friendly products, preferred meals in typical local restaurants and accommodation in family-run facilities such as farm-stays, and engendered a greater multiplier effect compared to BVs. In general, it emerged that they are more prone to take on the cost of certain goals. PVs were also more satisfied with certain aspects and elements of their lives. The research highlighted a strong relationship between all these factors and the type of tourist they belonged to, confirming the general statement that alternative forms of tourism are more coherent with the natural and socio-cultural values of local communities.

Simultaneously, the data analysis showed that PVs appeared to be happier than BVs and that their happiness was influenced by a wider range of factors that influence individual quality of life, as well as by factors from all the other categories investigated, albeit with varying intensity. In particular, PVs’ life satisfaction seemed to be related to

a series of contextual and institutional variables, such as the fairness of public administration or a fairer distribution of income in society, which did not seem to influence the happiness of BVs. As noted above, these factors have consistently been found to have a large influence on happiness (Frey & Stutzer, 2002a) and to contribute to the formation of social capital and relational goods, which have also been considered as determinants of wellbeing (Diener & Seligman, 2002; Helliwell, 2003, 2006; Helliwell & Putnam, 2004; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001). The results concerning PVs seem to be more consistent, whereas it is harder to define a relationship between the evaluation of individual items and happiness in BVs. It seems that, among the latter, sympathy for certain goals does not necessarily translate into acceptance of the relative costs and sacrifices (in terms of happiness).

These results acquire greater significance in the light of the fact that the demographic and socioeconomic differences between the two types of tourist were less pronounced than expected. This is probably due to the period in which the survey took place (summer), when there is a higher level of overlap between activities performed by the two types of tourists; meanwhile, net income per year turned out to have no significant effect on predicting happiness for PVs or for BVs. These variables are normally considered important determinants of self-reported wellbeing. All this considered, our study confirmed that the results depend on the type of tourist one belongs to, more than on economic and socio-demographic aspects, thus providing evidence that lifestyle-related psychographic factors may influence the relationship between income and happiness.

Therefore, as a preliminary reflection, considering the profiles of the interviewees and the period in which the survey was carried out, we may infer that other motivational states are likely to influence tourists' happiness, due to the "side-effects" of their activities. The paper did not discuss which direction the causality of the relationship between happiness and tourism runs in. Because of its aim, it becomes less important to discern its direction: it may well be that experiencing nature makes people happier, or that happy people visit nature. In the second case, the visit may consolidate their happiness because they are conscious that by visiting nature they are contributing to its protection.

Moreover, recalling Leiper (1990), tourism is "the set of ideas, the theories or ideologies, for being a tourist, and it is the behavior of people in touristic roles when the ideas are put into practice". Therefore, PVs might also derive satisfaction from being different in their choice of activities and from conveying this difference to others through their activities. The core of this interpretation lies in the concept of *distinction*, which was mainly developed by Bourdieu (1984). Specifically, Bourdieu affirmed that preferences, including vacation-related preferences, give individuals the opportunity to distinguish themselves and express these differences within society. The findings of the present study suggest that different lifestyles, as expressed by tourism activities, seem to be related not only to different attitudes and behaviors but also to different levels of reported happiness. Combined with those of previous studies, these findings allow us to maintain that, under careful

management, nature based tourism may contribute to promoting the healthy development of host communities, therefore having a positive impact on their wellbeing, as well as bringing with it a higher level of life-satisfaction for participants.

Limitations and Further Research

To conclude, although we are aware of the limits of this study, we also believe that it may contribute to give new insight in the debate on happiness. As for the limitations, the paper shares many of the limits of other empirical studies in the field of tourism and happiness. The first is associated with data collection and sampling procedures. Due to the typology of the population (tourists) from which our sample is drawn, and the available human and economic resources, the results of the study pay for all the limits deriving from the utilization of non-probability (representative) sampling. Furthermore, due to the period in which the survey took place, a likelihood of overlap between the two types of tourists exists, and this may have caused some bias in the results. A final aspect of crucial importance, which is more related to happiness research, is the skepticism about what happiness really means and the use of subjective (as opposed to objective) measures of well-being, as well as the difficulties in defining the direction of causality between happiness and its determinants. This is why we believe that new efforts have to be made in order to implement this interesting line of investigation. We also believe that both objective and subjective measures are important for measuring wellbeing. Both should be used and may complement each other in the assessment of human well-being.

Despite these limitations, we believe that this research can contribute to triggering a new line of investigation in tourism and add new knowledge to the happiness literature. In fact, few studies exist on these issues, and they mainly investigate the contribution of leisure to tourists' quality of life. Within these studies those which analyze vacations as a domain separate from leisure are sparse (for a complete survey see Dolnicar et al., 2012).

In this context, it would be interesting to replicate this study in other countries that are simultaneously affected by alternative and more mass forms of tourism, but in which the overlap between the two is less pronounced. In doing that, it would be also important to consider personality factors, which have consistently been found to correlate with reported life satisfaction and could be directly investigated by means of personality tests or biological indexes (Diener & Lucas, 1999; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). With respect to previous studies (Taylore et al., 2006), we have sought to improve the identification of the causes of and reasons for happiness by integrating and expanding the factors to be included as determinants of life satisfaction. More specifically, we have investigated the relationship between happiness and indicators of quality of life for two type of tourists. We hope that this integrated approach may be applied in future research and be of use not

only for the implementation of public policies in various domains, such as the environment (Johns & Ormerod, 2007), but also to learn more about tourism as a domain of the individual's quality of life. **A**

Acknowledgement—This work is part of the research/training project “Education for Sustainable Development and Legacy” financed by the Region of Tuscany (F.S.E.-POR 2007/13). The authors are indebted to Caterina Pisani and Sara Franceschi for their help and patience. Our gratitude is also owed to Jafar Jafari for his comments and suggestions.

REFERENCES

- Alesina, A., Di Tella, R., & MacCulloch, R. (2004). Inequality and happiness: Are Europeans and Americans different?. *Journal of Public Economics*, 88(9–10), 2009–2042.
- Apter, M. J., & Carter, S. (2002). Mentoring and motivational versatility: An exploration of reversal theory. *Career Development International*, 7(5), 292–295.
- Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Hughes, K. (2009). Tourists' support for conservation messages and sustainable management practices in wildlife tourism experiences. *Tourism Management*, 30(5), 658–664.
- Balmford, A., Beresford, J., Green, J., Naidoo, R., & Walpole, M. (2009). A Global perspective on trends in nature-based tourism. *PLoS Biology*, 7(6), e1000144. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000144>.
- Bartolini, S., Bilancini, E., & Pugno, M. (2009). *Did the decline in social capital depress Americans' happiness?* Quaderni del Dipartimento di Economia Politica n. 540.
- Becchetti, L., Pelloni, A., & Rossetti, F. (2008). Relational goods, sociability, and happiness. *Kyklos*, 61(3), 343–363.
- Bejder, L., & Samuels, A. (2003). Evaluating the effects of nature-based tourism on cetaceans. In N. Gale, M. Hindell, & R. Kirkwood (Eds.), *Marine mammals: Fisheries, tourism and management issues* (pp. 229–256). Collingwood: CSIRO.
- Bimonte, S. (2008). Park visitors vs. beach tourists a comparative study in an Italian coastal region. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(2), 112–127.
- Bimonte, S. (2009). Growth and environmental quality: Testing the double convergence hypothesis. *Ecological Economics*, 68(8–9), 2406–2411.
- Bimonte, S., & Punzo, L. F. (2011). Tourism, residents' attitudes and perceived carrying capacity with an experimental study in five Tuscan destinations. *International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 14(3–4), 242–261.
- Bimonte, S., & Punzo, L. F. (2007). The evolutionary game between tourist and resident populations and Tourist Carrying Capacity. *International Journal of Technology and Globalization*, 3(2), 73–87.
- Blanchflower, D. G. (1996). Youth labor markets in twenty-three countries: A comparison using micro data. In S. David (Ed.), *School to work policies and practices in thirteen countries*. Cresskill: Hampton Press.
- Blanchflower, D. G., & Oswald, A. J. (2004). Well-being over time in Britain and the USA. *Journal of Public Economics*, 88(7–8), 1359–1386.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgment of taste*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Bruni, L., & Porta, P. L. (2007). Introduction. In L. Bruni & P. L. Porta (Eds.), *Handbook on the Economics of Happiness* (pp. 4–9). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Bruni, L., & Stanca, L. (2008). Watching alone: Relational goods, television and happiness. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 65(3–4), 506–528.
- Butler, R. W. (1990). Alternative tourism: Pious hope or Trojan horse?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), 40–45.
- Butler, R. W., & Boyd, S. W. (2000). *Tourism and national parks: Issues and implications*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Cantril, H. (1965). *The pattern of human concern*. New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press.

- Cazes, G. H. (1989). Alternative tourism: Reflections on an ambiguous concept. In T. V. Singh, H. L. Thevas, & F. M. Go (Eds.), *Towards appropriate tourism: The case of developing countries* (pp. 117–126). Frankfurt Am Main: Peter Lang.
- Ceballos-Lascurain, H. (1988). The future of “ecotourism”. *Mexico Journal*, 13–14.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Hunter, J. (2003). Happiness in everyday life: The uses of experience sampling. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 4(2), 185–199.
- Cushman, G. (1986). Trends and issues in leisure and recreation: An Australian perspective. *World Leisure and Recreation*, 26–31.
- Deaton, A. (2008). Income, health, and well-being around the world: Evidence from the Gallup World Poll. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 22(2), 53–72.
- DeLeire, T., & Kalil, A. (2010). Does consumption buy happiness? Evidence from the United States. *International Review of Economics*, 57(2), 163–167.
- Di Tella, R., MacCulloch, R. J., & Oswald, A. J. (2001). Preferences over inflation and unemployment: Evidence from surveys of happiness. *American Economic Review*, 91(1), 335–341.
- Diener, E., & Fujita, F. (1995). Resources, personal strivings, and subjective well-being: A nomothetic and idiographic approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(5), 926–935.
- Diener, E., & Lucas, R. (1999). Personality and subjective well-being. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 213–229). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Diener, E., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2002). Very happy people. *Psychological Science*, 13(1), 81–84.
- Diener, E., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2004). Beyond Money: Toward an economy of well-being. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 5(1), 1–31.
- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276–302.
- Dolnicar, S. (2004). Beyond “commonsense segmentation”: A systematics of segmentation approaches in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(3), 244–250.
- Dolnicar, S., Yanamandram, V., & Cliff, K. (2012). The contribution of vacations to quality of life. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 59–83.
- Dunlap, R. E., & Heffernan, R. B. (1975). Outdoor recreation and environmental concern: An empirical examination. *Rural Sociology*, 40(1), 18–30.
- Dyer, P., Aberdeen, L., & Schuler, S. (2003). Tourism impacts on an Australian indigenous community: A Djabugay case study. *Tourism Management*, 24(1), 83–95.
- Easterlin, R. A. (2001). Income and happiness: Towards a unified theory. *Economic Journal*, 111(July), 465–484.
- Easterlin, R. A. (2004). The economics of happiness. *Daedalus*, 133(2), 26–33.
- Easterlin, R. A., & Angelescu, L. (2009). Happiness and growth the world over: Time series evidence on the happiness-income paradox. *IZA Discussion Paper* n. 4060.
- Easterlin, R. A. (1974). Does economic growth improve the human lot? Some empirical evidence. In P. A. Davis & M. W. Reder (Eds.), *Nation and households in economic growth: Essays in honor of Moses Abramowitz* (pp. 89–125). New York: Academic Press.
- Epler Wood, M. (2002). *Ecotourism: Principles, practices and policies for sustainability*. Paris: UNEP.
- Espinoza, A. R. R. (n.d.). Motivation of nature tourism. Available at: <<http://www.ecoturismolatino.com/eng/ecotravellers/alternative/alternative.htm>> Accessed 15.12.10.
- Frey, B. S. (2010). *Happiness: A revolution in Economics*. Cambridge and London: The MIT Press.
- Frey, B. S., & Stutzer, A. (2000). Happiness, economy and institutions. *Economic Journal*, 110(466), 918–938.
- Frey, B. S., & Stutzer, A. (2002a). *Happiness and economics: How the economy and institutions affect well-being*. Princeton and Oxford: Princeton University Press.
- Frey, B. S., & Stutzer, A. (2002b). What can economists learn from happiness research?. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 40(2), 402–435.
- Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holidaytaking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(1), 103–121.

- Hammen, C., & Brennan, P. A. (2002). Interpersonal dysfunction in depressed women: Impairments independent of depressive symptoms. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 72(2), 145–156.
- Helliwell, J. F. (2003). How's life? Combining individual and national variables to explain subjective well-being. *Economic Modelling*, 20(2), 331–360.
- Helliwell, J. F. (2006). Well-being, social capital and public policy: What's new?. *Economic Journal*, 116(510), C34–C45.
- Helliwell, J. F., & Putnam, R. D. (2004). The social context of well-being. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences*, 359(1449), 1435–1446.
- Holden, A. (2000). *Environment and tourism*. London: Routledge.
- Hvenegaard, G. T. (2002). Using tourist typologies for ecotourism research. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 1(1), 7–18.
- Hvenegaard, G. T., & Dearden, P. (1998). Ecotourism versus tourism in a Thai National Park. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(3), 700–720.
- Jafari, J. (1990). Research and scholarship: The basis of tourism education. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 1(1), 33–41.
- Johns, H., & Ormerod, P. (2007). *Happiness, economics and public policy*. London: Institute of Economic Affairs.
- Kahneman, D., Diener, E., & Schwarz, N. (Eds.). (1999). *Well-being: Foundations of hedonic psychology*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation Press.
- Kahneman, D., Krueger, A. B., Schkade, D. A., Schwarz, N., & Stone, A. A. (2004). A survey method for characterizing daily life experience. The day reconstruction method. *Science*, 306(5702), 1776–1780.
- Lehto, X. Y., Choi, S., Lin, Y.-C., & MacDermid, S. M. (2009). Vacation and family functioning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(3), 459–479.
- Leiper, N. (1990). *Tourism systems: An interdisciplinary perspective*. Department of Management Systems, Occasional Paper n. 2.
- Lelkes, O. (2002). *Tasting Freedom: Happiness, religion and economic transition*. Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion, CASE Paper n. 59.
- Lindberg, K. (1998). Economic aspects of ecotourism. In K. Lindberg, M. Epler Wood, & D. Engeldrum (Eds.), *Ecotourism: A guide for planners and managers* (pp. 87–117). Burlington: The International Ecotourism Society.
- Luo, Y., & Deng, J. (2008). The new environmental paradigm and nature-based tourism motivation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4), 392–402.
- Lyubomirsky, S., Tkach, C., & Dimatteo, M. R. (2006). What are the differences between happiness and self-esteem?. *Social Indicators Research*, 78(3), 363–404.
- Macleod, D. (2003). Alternative tourism: A comparative analysis of meaning and impact. In W. F. Theobald (Ed.), *Global Tourism* (pp. 150–167). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Magnani, E. (2000). The Environmental Kuznets Curve, environmental protection policy and income distribution. *Ecological Economics*, 32(3), 431–443.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 399–419.
- Marques, C., Reis, E., & Menezes, J. (2010). Profiling the segments of visitors to Portuguese protected areas. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(8), 971–996.
- McGillivray, M., & Clarke, M. (2006). Human well-being: Concepts and measures. In M. McGillivray & M. Clarke (Eds.), *Understanding Human Well-Being* (pp. 3–15). Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.
- McGillivray, M. (2007). Human Well-being: Issues, Concepts and Measures. In M. McGillivray (Ed.), *Human Well-Being: Concept and Measurement* (pp. 1–22). Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Mehmetoglu, M. (2007). Typologising nature-based tourists by activity-theoretical and practical implications. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 651–660.
- Meng, F., & Uysal, M. (2008). Effects of gender differences on perceptions of destination attributes, motivations, and travel values: An examination of a nature-based resort destination. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(4), 445–466.
- Mihalič, T. (2005). Nature-based products, ecotourism and adventure tourism. In D. Buhalis & C. Costa (Eds.), *Tourism business frontiers: Consumers, products and industry* (pp. 111–117). Oxford: Elsevier.

- Murrell, S. A., Salsman, N. L., & Meeks, S. (2003). Educational attainment, positive psychological mediators, and resources for health and vitality in older adults. *Journal of Aging and Health*, 15(4), 591–615.
- Newsome, D., Moore, S. A., & Dowling, R. K. (2002). *Natural area tourism: Ecology, impacts and management*. UK: Channel View publications.
- Nyaupane, G. P., Morais, D. B., & Graefe, A. R. (2004). Nature-based tourism constraints: A cross-activity comparison. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 540–555.
- Oishi, S., Diener, E., Suh, E., & Lucas, R. E. (1999). Value as a moderator in subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality*, 67(1), 157–184.
- Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the satisfaction with life scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 5(2), 164–172.
- Pearce, P., Morrison, A. M., & Rutledge, J. L. (1998). *Tourism: Bridges across continents*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill.
- Powdthavee, N. (2007). Economics of happiness: A review of literature and applications. *Chulalongkorn Journal of Economics*, 19(1), 51–73.
- Priskin, J. (2003). Issues and opportunities in planning and managing nature-based tourism in central coast region of Western Australia. *Australian Geographical Studies*, 41(3), 270–286.
- R Data Analysis Example. UCLA: Academic Technology Services, Statistical Consulting Group from <<http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/r/dae/ologit.htm>> Accessed 03.02.10.
- R Development Core Team. (2010). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0, URL <<http://www.R-project.org>>.
- Rojas, M. (2011). Happiness, income, and beyond. *Applied Research Quality Life*, 6(3), 265–276.
- Scollon, C. N., Kim-Prieto, C., & Diener, E. (2003). Experience sampling: Promises and pitfalls, strengths and weaknesses. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 4(1), 5–34.
- Silverberg, K. E., Backman, S. J., & Backman, K. F. (1996). A preliminary investigation into the psychographics of nature-based travelers to the southeastern United States. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(2), 19–28.
- Smith, V. L., & Eadington, W. R. (1995). Introduction The emergence of alternative forms of tourism. In V. L. Smith & W. R. Eadington (Eds.), *Tourism alternatives Potentials and problems in the development of tourism* (pp. 1–12). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Swanson, K. K., & Horridge, P. E. (2006). Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 671–683.
- Taylor, P., Funk, C., & Craighill, P. Are we happy yet? *Pew Research Center's Social & Demographic Trends*, February 13, 2006, available at <<http://pewsocialtrends.org/2006/02/13/are-we-happy-yet/>>, Accessed 19.05.10.
- Teisl, M. F., & O'Brien, K. (2003). Who cares and who acts? Outdoor recreationists exhibit different levels of environmental concern and behavior. *Environment and Behavior*, 35(4), 506–522.
- Thoits, P. A., & Hewitt, L. N. (2001). Volunteer work and well-being. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 42(2), 115–131.
- TIES. (2006). TIES global ecotourism fact sheet 2006. The International Ecotourism Society. Available at: <<http://www.ecotourism.org/atf/cf/%7B82a87c8d-0b56-4149-8b0a-c4aaccd1cd38%7D/TIES%20GLOBAL%20ECOTOURISM%20FACT%20SHEET.PDF>>.
- Veenhoven, R. (2000). Well-being in the welfare state: Level not higher, distribution not more equitable. *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis*, 2(1), 91–125.
- Veenhoven, R. 2007. Measure of gross national happiness. Presentation at OECD conference on measurability and policy relevance of happiness, April 2–3, Rome.
- Veenhoven, R. (2009). World Database of Happiness, Distributional Findings in Nations. Erasmus University Rotterdam. Available at: www1.eur.nl/fsw/happiness. Item O-SLW/c/sq/n/10/a.
- Wallace, G. N., & Pierce, S. M. (1996). An evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(4), 843–873.

- Weaver, D. B. (1999). Magnitude of ecotourism in Costa Rica and Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 792–816.
- Weaver, D. B. (2005). Comprehensive and minimalist dimensions of ecotourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(2), 439–455.
- Weaver, D. B., Faulkner, B., & Lawton, L. (1998). *Nature-based tourism in Australia and beyond: A preliminary investigation*. Gold Coast: Cooperative Research Centre for Sustainable Tourism.
- Weaver, D. B. (2001). Ecotourism in the context of other tourism types. In D. B. Weaver (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of ecotourism* (pp. 73–84). New York: CABI.
- Wight, P. A. (1993). Sustainable ecotourism: Balancing economic, environmental and social goals within an ethical framework. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 4(2), 54–66.
- Wight, P. A. (1996). North American ecotourists: Motivations, preferences and destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(1), 3–10.
- Wilson, W. (1967). Correlates of avowed happiness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 67(4), 294–306.
- Witt, C. A., & Wright, P. L. (1992). Tourism motivation: Life after Maslow. In P. Johnson & B. Thomas (Eds.), *Choice and demand in tourism* (pp. 33–55). London: Mansell.
- World Values Survey 1981–2008 Official Aggregate v. 20090901. (2009). World Values Survey Association (www.worldvaluessurvey.org). Aggregate File Producer: ASEP/JDS, Madrid.

Submitted 11 February 2011. Resubmitted 11 October 2011. Final version 9 May 2012. Accepted 21 May 2012. Refereed anonymously. Coordinating Editor: Eugeni Aguilo.

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

SciVerse ScienceDirect