

CAN PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING BE A PREDICTOR OF CHANGE THROUGH TRAVEL? AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON YOUNG DUTCH TRAVELLERS

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This paper focuses on the impact of psychological wellbeing on the change perceived after a travel experience by young students. Wellbeing is investigated as a consequence and not as an antecedent of travel, though literature assumes the subjectivity of the travel experience. Expanding on existing literature, it is

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



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hypothesized that ‘change through travel’ is a three-dimensional concept: travellers may feel changed in their relationship with themselves, the other and the natural environment. In 2015 a survey was designed to explore the impact of wellbeing on change as a benefit from travel and a questionnaire administrated in a Dutch university. PCA confirmed the hypothesis and showed three-dimensionality of change. Logistic regression models assessed the impact of wellbeing on change. Results suggest that four out of six wellbeing components (positive relations to others, autonomy, purpose in life, self-acceptance) influence the dimensions of change. Implications of these results for academics and professionals are discussed.

Keywords: *Psychological wellbeing, Youth, Dutch, Travel experience, Change*

*Not all those who wander are lost.
J.R.R. Tolkien*

INTRODUCTION

While scholars have studied the travel choices and patterns of adults extensively over the years, our knowledge of youth travel behavior is surprisingly limited and uneven. Youth tourism, though, is a dynamic and booming phenomenon that merits more extensive attention than it has received until now.

The research’s objective is to foster the understanding of youth travel behaviour by focusing on the impact of psychological wellbeing on the change perceived after a travel experience. Openness to change is considered one of the main characteristics of the so-called Millennials, i.e. people born between 1980 and 2000 (Glover, 2010). In the context of tourism, the concept of benefits derived from a travel experience has received attention by tourism scholars; yet change as one of these benefits is less profoundly investigated.

In particular, there is a lack of research on the psychological antecedents of change through travel. To addresses both gaps, this

study firstly identifies the main dimensions of change induced in young people by a travel experience and, secondly, examines the impact of psychological wellbeing on the perceived change.

The paper is structured as follows. After a brief literature review, the research method is explained and then the results are discussed. Finally, a conclusion highlights the implications of these results for academics and practitioners.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This paragraph highlights the main theories on which the study is based and how this work will contribute to their development. It is organized in three subsections: wellbeing in relation to travel; change through travel and youth tourism experience.

PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING AND TOURISM

Defining well-being is very complex and, usually, well-being studies consider it an output, not an antecedent of the travel experience. In this section, therefore, we'll try to give a definition of this concept and how the researchers analyzed it in publications on tourism. Finally, in particular, we will make a synthesis of the few scholars who have considered the well-being as an antecedent of the change.

Well-being is a growing area of research, yet the question of how it should be defined remains unanswered. Below we will briefly summarize the different perspective on well-being that have been developed in the economic and psychological research domains.

Well-being has become an increasingly established criterion in the study of economic performance of countries based on the measures of gross domestic product (Van Zanden et al., 2014). However, such approaches to well-being have been criticized by Amartya Sen who proposes that more attention should be drawn to

human values in the assessment of well-being (Sen, 1993). People have preferences about desired social outcomes, beyond the narrow economic focus, which can be expressed in the distinction between functionings (states of being) and capabilities (states of doing) (Sen, 1993; Van Zanden et al., 2014). This breaks from the traditional view of well-being that is related to wealth. According to Sen, Diener (1984), one of the principal researchers in the field of subjective well-being (SWB), looks at well-being from the perspective of psychology. Diener refers to such a perspective as “happiness studies”, and states that it seeks to go beyond objective items to measure wellbeing. Diener argued that the assessment of wellbeing from the point of view of the perception of individuals is termed subjective wellbeing (SWB), which includes positive and negative measures based mostly on measures of mental health and satisfaction. In the Diener’s study, wellbeing is defined as the existence of a healthy body (physical wellbeing) and mind (mental wellbeing) in relation with the surrounding environment; and as an evaluation of the quality of life according to an individual own subjective parameters, i.e. wellbeing as a cognitive judgment.

Following up on these suggestions, according to *Bronfenbrenner (1979)* in more ecological sense, Ryff and Keyes (1995) proposed a multidimensional model of well-being constituted by six distinct components (see Table 2). For this reason, in our study we considered important to use psychometric instruments, as the Ryff and Keyes’s scale, that give a valid conceptual formulation of psychological wellbeing and who know how to provide a satisfactory measurement.

Literature on wellbeing and tourism can be categorized into four main areas: happiness and well-being as a consequence of travel; subjective wellbeing; wellbeing as a destination marketing tool and wellbeing studied in regard to specific types of tourism products (Piuchan, Suntikul, 2016). In the field of tourism wellbeing has mostly been considered an outcome of the tourism experience, as it is already evident in the definition by UNWTO (2016) where

tourism is seen as key to development, prosperity and wellbeing. Generally speaking, wellbeing is considered to be intrinsically linked to tourism's role of relaxation and recreation (Konu and Laukkanen, 2010), but only as a consequence.

Travelling has been highlighted as an activity undertaken to pursue happiness and as beneficial for one's spirit and well-being (Piuchan, Suntikul 2016; Chen, Lehto and Chai, 2013; Konu and Laukkanen, 2010). In this literature, the concept of well-being is often used as a synonym of subjective well-being (SWB), life satisfaction and quality of life (Bimonte and Faralla, 2015) or level of happiness (Milman, 1998). The notion of well-being is also used to promote destinations. In synthesis, empirical studies (Piuchan, Suntikul 2016, Filep, 2014) have discovered that holidaymaking let tourists to experience a higher sense of SWB. Yet, fulfilling tourist experiences are characterized not only by pleasure but also by the way in which tourists find meaning from their travel experiences (Piuchan and Suntikul 2016). However, it remains unclear how different dimensions of SWB change as a result of vacationing, while the role of SWB in the pre travel change has not yet been systematically investigated.

Looking at the components of a tourism experience, research has addressed the linkages between motivation and well-being (Konu and Laukkanen, 2010) but has left unexplored the linkages with change. One of the few exception is, Dodge, Daly, Huyton and Sanders (2012) who propose a new definition of well-being as the balance point between an individual's resource pool and the challenges faced: stable well-being is when individuals have the psychological, social and physical resources that they need to meet a particular psychological, social and/or physical challenge. In this model resources produce well-being and a consequence of it is the change.

Very few scholars have stated that individuals need a minimum state of psychological well-being in order to face stress and cope

with change more effectively (Cicognani, 1999). This notion is especially accepted in the clinical area where to start a therapy a minimum state of well-being is needed; only then, the therapy can cause a positive change.

On a similar line, Caprara et al. (2006) and Fermani et al. (2013) examined the concurrent and longitudinal impact of self-efficacy beliefs on subjective well-being, namely positive thinking and happiness. Positive thinking has been operationalized as the latent dimension underlying life satisfaction, self-esteem and optimism. Self-efficacy and well-being contribute to promote positive expectations about the future and produce positive change.

Literature shows that individuals who and societies that are more stable and possess higher levels of wellbeing deal better with change. For example, well-being has been found to be an indicator of the quality of citizens' engagement, political participation and positive change (Boffi, Riva and Rainisio, 2014). Though these studies are rare they are in our opinion very interesting because they open up the possibility to consider well-being not only as a consequence but also as an antecedent of change. At the theoretical level, in the literature related to tourism, in our opinion, there is a gap that should be filled. Consequently, the question that motivated this research is: "can psychological well-being be considered as a predictor of a certain kind of change in the tourism experience?"

A particularly innovative aspect of this paper is, therefore, our discussion of the impact of well-being as independent variable on the change perceived by youngsters as a benefit from travelling.

YOUTH TOURISM EXPERIENCE

In our research we have chosen to investigate the youth segment because in an era of unprecedented challenges for the travel industry, youth travel represents not just an important market segment, but also a vital resource for innovation and change. The global youth travel industry is now estimated to represent almost

190 million international trips a year, and has grown faster than global travel overall. By 2020 there will be almost 300 million international youth trips per year, according to annual report 2012 UNWTO (2013) forecasts.

The importance of youth tourism as a socio-economic force and an area of study has been already underlined in the 1991 UNWTO Conference (Richards and Wilson 2004). In the following years, youth tourism acquired a well-defined position in the context of tourism studies, especially thanks to its scale (Horac and Weber, 2000; Seeking, 1998; Wheatcroft and Seekings, 1995). Twenty-six years after the UNWTO Conference, the interest in youth and student tourism is still increasing, both from various institutions in the European Union and from the international scientific community. This is especially true for themes such as the characteristics of young tourists.

The UNWTO and WYSE Travel Confederation (2008) defines youth tourism as independent trips shorter than one year undertaken by people aged 16-29 and motivated, in part or in full, by a desire to experience other cultures, build life experience and/or benefit from formal and informal learning opportunities outside one's usual environment. The majority of youth travellers either travel alone, or with one other person. Often, they meet fellow travellers and even form groups along the way.

UNWTO and WYSE Travel Confederation (2008) are convinced that youth travel has moved far beyond its original status as a specialized travel niche to become an important element of the travel mix in any tourism destination. One of the reasons for this is that travel underpins many different aspects of youth lifestyles. For young people travel is a form of learning, a way of meeting other people and other culture, is a source of career development, is a means of self-development and part of their identity – you are where you've been. Young people see travel as an essential part of their everyday lives, rather than just a brief escape from reality. This has

far-reaching consequences for the places they visit. Because of the way they travel, the social and cultural consequences of hosting young people are becoming even more important than the economic effects. The added value to be extracted from youth travel lies in innovation, positioning, cultural links, international trade and exchange, social support, education, learning support for local communities, and so on. In synthesis, in Europe and in the wider international context there are numerous scientific studies on youth and student tourism (Babin and Kuemlim, 2001; Richards, 2011; Mura and Khoo-Lattimore, 2013).

However "these [studies] are too dispersed and structured on certain aspects to allow an overview of the phenomenon" (Moisă, 2010, p. 575). Consequently, even though scholars have studied the travel choices and patterns of adults extensively over the years, our knowledge of youth travel behavior is surprisingly limited and uneven.

In other words, more research is needed into the motivational, behavioral and experiential dimensions of young travellers. This last dimension has recently gained some attention: the emotional implications of travelling have led to a conceptualization of tourism in terms of experience (Pearce, 2005; 2011). It has therefore been argued that the major difference between younger and older tourists lies in the type of experience and the motivation to travel.

In synthesis, the young tourism experience consists of three main components: the need to travel, the consummation of the experience itself and its evaluation. In tourism studies, evaluation is conceptualized as satisfaction and as perceived change. This research focuses on the last aspect of a tourism experience: change as a benefit from travel. The main reason for this focus is that literature has identified openness to change as one of the main characteristics of people born between 1980 and 2000 (Glover, 2010) and there is limited research on how a travel experience impacts on youngsters' openness to change.

CHANGE AS BENEFIT FROM TOURISM AND IMPLICATIONS IN TERM OF IDENTITY

The concept of identity is closely linked to the notion of change while the transformational effect of travel experiences on young people's identity is well documented. The journey, with its power of change, influences the personal and social identity of the traveler. As it has briefly been observed above, according to the UNWTO and the WYSE Travel Confederation (2016) one of the reasons why young people travel is exploring and engaging with cultures. Being exposed to different cultures usually helps young travellers to understand better their own cultural values, biases and sometimes even their own physical selves, which in turn often contribute to shaping new identities. While some young travellers report having discovered their true self during their journey, others indicate that their trip has changed their overall lifestyle in some ways. Very often new paths and new careers arise as a result of travel. Indeed, literature suggests that the benefits that youngsters derive from travel range from cultural exchange, socialization and developing an open-mind, to deepening core values, (re)-constructing the own identity and experiencing personal change (e.g. Leed, 1991; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006; Smed, 2009).

In synthesis, the power of youth travel is not solely economical. The psychological, social and cultural benefits for the young traveller and the communities that host them are far-reaching, long-term and measurable (Nejati, Mohamed and Omar, 2014; Mohammadi and Khalifa, 2014; Moisă, 2010).

If journey causes an identity revolution, in terms of development and change, then the next question to be asked is whether change through travel is uni- or multidimensional. On the basis of existing literature, a recent study has identified two main dimensions of change: referred to the person self ("I") and referred to the relationship between the person and others ("I and you") (Cavagnaro and Staffieri, 2016). The same study noted that in the

literature no reference is made to change in the relationship with the natural environment. This is surprising because becoming more sustainable is considered one of the major challenges facing tourism development (UNWTO, 2013; Nejati, Mohamed and Omar, 2014; Romagosa and Priestley, 2013). Sustainability on an individual level implies a more caring attitude not only towards people, but also towards the planet (Cavagnaro and Curiel, 2012). More than any other market segment, youth and student travellers are leading with innovation and paving the way for responsible tourism. Therefore, it seems necessary to explore whether and under which conditions a tourism experience may encourage change not only in the way a travellers relate to others, but also to nature.

Moreover, considering that travelling involves a change in the travellers' identity, it can be important to explore this change with reference to the *Social Identity Theory* (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel and Turner, 1986) and the *Place Identity Theory* (Proshansky, Fabian and Kaminoff, 1983). These two theories are considered here because they constitute the main explanatory models at meso-level of contemporary social psychology and because they share a similar approach to social cognition as a function of intergroup dynamics..

Henri Tajfel (1982), the major exponent of Social Identity Theory, conceived social identity as that part of an individual's self-concept, which derives from the individual's membership of a social group (or groups) and from the value and emotional significance attached to this membership. This was an important step in showing that self-definition varies with the social context, becoming defined at the group level in intergroup contexts as representatives of the salient social categories. A process later labelled "depersonalization" by self-categorization theory—is an important and lasting contribution of *Social Identity Theory*.

The innovation of the personal/social identity theory was threefold: firstly, it disputed the notion of a unitary or fixed self-structure ("the" self-concept); secondly, it explicitly avoided privileging either the personal or the group identity (group identity

does not have to be nested within a more general individual self-concept), seeing them as dependent on the context. And thirdly, just as there may be multiple social identities or group self-categorizations corresponding to situated group memberships, in principle there may also be multiple "personal" identities corresponding to the range of situations, roles, and relationships in which individuals find themselves. From this analysis it can be concluded that both the social and the personal identity may be "social" to the degree that they are constructed and constituted in situ by the local comparative context.

The second theory, *The place-identity theory* has provided important contributions to the field of psychology by emphasizing the influence of the physical environment on identity and self-perception. Unfortunately the contribution of this theory in relation to other identity theories has not yet been clarified. Even though the concept "place-identity" may be relevant, if seen as a part of other identity theories, because identity manifests itself on many levels, one of which is place.

Proshansky, Fabian and Kaminoff (1983) defined Place-Identity as a "potpourri of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings, as well as types of settings" (1983, p. 60). Place attachment is considered a part of place-identity, but place-identity is more than attachment. Place-identity is a substructure of self-identity, like gender, and is comprised of perceptions and comprehensions regarding the environment. These perceptions and conceptions can be organized into two types of clusters; one type consists of memories, thoughts, values and settings, and the second type consists of the relationship among different settings (home, the environment of primary importance, school or city; Proshansky and Fabian, 1987). Identity develops as children learn to differentiate themselves from people around them, and in the same way, place-identity develops as a child learns to see her or himself as distinct from, but related to, the

physical environment. Here social and environmental skills and relationships are learned, and the "lenses" are formed through which the child later will recognize, evaluate and create places. Place-identity changes occur throughout a person's lifetime. Place-identity becomes a cognitive "database" against which every physical setting is experienced (Proshansky Fabian and Kaminoff, 1983).

Within the field of social psychology, theories on identity have been constructed, tested and modified, but the element of the physical environment has largely been neglected (Lappegard, 2007). On the other hand, we think that the connection between SIT (personal and social identity) and Place-Identity is possible. According to Twigger-Ross, Bonaiuto and Breakwell (2003) place can be defined as a social entity or "membership group" providing identity. Finally, place-identity theory, may be seen a supporting our choice to look for change not only in the relationship between the traveller and himself or the travellers and others, but also in the relationship between the traveller and the natural environment.

THE PRESENT STUDY

The main purpose of the present study was to identify the main dimensions of change induced in young people by a travel experience and to examine which dimensions of psychological wellbeing have the greatest influence on this change.

METHOD

This section discusses first the research method and secondly the measure used and their reliability.

PROCEDURE AND PARTICIPANTS

A survey was distributed at a Dutch University in 2015. Students are especially interesting in researching travel experience

because they tend to travel independently, i.e. without a supervising adult (Carr, 2003). The questionnaire identified participants who had an independent travel experience. The sample reached fits the definition of Millennials as the age of participants is 16 to 30 years. The self-selected sample size was set at 395 respondents, safely above the amount of 300 considered as a good sample size by Comfrey and Lee (1992). Usable for the analysis were 297 questionnaires.

The largest age group is formed by the youngest respondents, aged 16-20 (77.4%), followed by those aged 21-25 (21.1%) and 26-30 (1.5%). This distribution matches the target group of the University that students enter after completing high school around 18 years of age and leave after four years of study. The University also offers post-graduate courses and part-time courses and these are usually taken by slightly older students. The gender distribution is not fully balanced with a 63.3% of respondents being female (vs 36.7% males). This unbalance may be considered a consequence of the self-selection of the sample. Most respondents are Dutch (72.7%), an unsurprising result because the survey was held at a Dutch University of Applied Sciences. The rest of the respondents (27.3%) is represented by several nationalities, and is a reflection of the University's international character. Prior to undertaking the investigation, ethical clearance was obtained from respondents.

MEASURE AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

To answer the research questions, the survey was designed on the basis of existing literature (Staffieri, 2016; Ryff and Keyes, 1995) with the addition of items measuring change in relation to nature (see Table 1 for change and 2 for wellbeing). The Likert scale used ranges from *completely disagree* to *completely agree*.

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted to reduce the number of variables and identify the main dimensions of change. Through PCA three components were extracted explaining

66.2% of the total variance (Table 1). The suitability of the analysis has been verified ($KMO = 0.864$). The first component is related to the introspective nature of change; the second shows that a travel experience may induce a change in youngsters' perception of nature; and the third component relates to interpersonal change. Following the terminology introduced by Cavagnaro and Curiel (2012), the first component is called 'I' change, the second 'All' and the third 'Me and You' change.)

More specifically, it may be said that the first and the third component of change reflect the dichotomy identified by Leed (1991) between the push towards the other and the push towards the self (Cavagnaro and Staffieri, 2015; 2016). The second component permits to identify a third dimension of change pushing the young traveller to reconsider his or her relationship in respect to nature. That this dimension could be identified without reference to a specific type of tourism, such as ecotourism, is interesting because it reveals that notwithstanding its hedonic character (Kim, Ritchie and McCormick, 2012) a tourism experience still offers the possibility to perceive a change in the relationship with nature, and therefore arguably in self-transcending values. Besides, considering that two out of the three items included in the 'All' component suppose a positive change in the relationship with nature, it may be argued that intrinsic in a tourism experience lies the opportunity to enhance the feeling of connection with and care for nature (Cavagnaro, Staffieri, 2016).

Starting from these three change components, three new binary variables were computed, considering the median value as a discriminator. Then these binary variables were used as dependent variables in logistic regression models in order to verify the influence on the perceived change of psychological wellbeing.

Table 1 – Dependent variables of change from PCA

<i>Component</i>	<i>Item/category (Items' order corresponds to their contribution to the component)</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>CHANGE PERCEIVED: 'I'</i>	<p>The travel/experience changed my way of being</p> <p>The travel/experience changed my life</p> <p>The travel allowed me to know myself better</p> <p>The travel experience has contributed to my personal growth</p> <p>The travel experience opened my horizons</p>	<p>Binary variable, built considering the median value of the First component (FC), obtained from PCA, of the 12 items related to the concept of change.</p> <p>FC variance explained=43.4%</p> <p>Total Variance Explained=66.2%</p> <p>KMO=0.864</p>
<i>CHANGE PERCEIVED: 'ALL'</i>	<p>The travel experience helped me to feel in contact with nature</p> <p>The travel experience changed my relationship with the natural environment</p> <p>The travel experience convinced me that we need to protect natural resources</p>	<p>Binary variable, built considering the median value of the Second component (SC), obtained from PCA, of the 12 items related to the concept of change.</p> <p>SC Variance Explained=14.4%</p> <p>Total Variance Explained=66.2%</p> <p>KMO=0.864</p>
<i>CHANGE PERCEIVED: 'I AND YOU'</i>	<p>The travel experience gave me a taste for more travel</p> <p>The travel experience increased my openness to other cultures</p> <p>The travel experience helped me gain a greater cultural awareness</p> <p>The travel experience allowed me to socialize with different people</p>	<p>Binary variable, built considering the median value of the Third component (TC), obtained from PCA, of the 12 items related to the concept of change.</p> <p>TC Variance Explained=8.4%</p> <p>Total Variance Explained=66.2%</p> <p>KMO=0.864</p>

Psychological wellbeing has been measured using the short version of the Psychological Wellbeing Scale developed by Ryff and Keyes (1995). In particular, *autonomy* describe people self-determining and independent, able to resist social pressures, evaluates self by personal standards. Who has *environmental mastery* has a sense of mastery and competence in managing the environment, controls complex array of external activities, makes effective use of surrounding opportunities, able to choose or create contexts suitable to personal needs and values. One who is included in the *personal growth* has a feeling of continued development, sees self as growing and expanding, is open to new experiences, has sense of realizing his or her potential, sees improvement in self and behaviour over time, is changing in ways that reflect more self-knowledge and effectiveness. Who has *positive relations with others* has warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others; is concerned about the welfare of others; capable of strong empathy and affection; understands give and take of human relationships. one who is included in the factor *purpose in life* has goals in life and a sense of directedness, feels there is meaning to present and past life, holds beliefs that give life purpose. Finally, the factor *self-acceptance* describes who owns possesses a positive attitude toward the self; acknowledges and accepts good and bad qualities of self; feels positive about past life.

For further analysis, the six components constituting the scale were recoded as binary variables considering the median value as a discriminator (Table 2).

Table 2 – Set of independent variables

Component	Item/category	Description
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AUTONOMY	<p>I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions (R)</p> <p>I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus</p> <p>I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important (R)</p>	<p>Binary variable, built considering the median value of the total score obtained summing the values of the Likert scale.</p>
ENVIRONMENTAL MASTERY	<p>In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live</p> <p>The demands of everyday life often get me down (R)</p> <p>I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life</p>	
PERSONAL GROWTH	<p>I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world</p> <p>For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing and growth</p> <p>I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago (R)</p>	
POSITIVE RELATIONS WITH OTHERS	<p>Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me (R)</p> <p>People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others</p> <p>I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others (R)</p>	
PURPOSE IN LIFE	<p>I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future (R)</p> <p>Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them</p> <p>I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life (R)</p>	

SELF-ACCEPTANCE	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out I like most aspects of my personality In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life (R)	
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Note: (R) Reverse

The goodness of fit of the logistic models was tested using the Hosmer-Lemeshow (HL) test, especially suitable in the case of small sample sizes. If the HL test statistic is not significant, the model fit is acceptable (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). The HL statistic test confirms the goodness of fit for all of the logistic regression models carried out.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section only significant results will be reported and discussed (for a complete vision of the statistical results see Tab. 3).

Tab 3 - Logistic model parameters

	B	Standard Error	Exp(B)	Sig.
<i>CHANGE "ALL"</i>				

Autonomy	-.466	.247	.628	*
Environmental mastery	-.093	.255	.912	
Personal growth	.030	.267	1.031	
Positive relations with others	-.082	.276	.922	
Purpose in life	-.466	.259	.628	*
Self-acceptance	.544	.268	1.723	*
<i>CHANGE "I"</i>				
Autonomy	.122	.248	1.129	
Environmental mastery	-.371	.255	.690	
Personal growth	.288	.269	1.333	
Positive relations with others	-.792	.278	.453	**
Purpose in life	-.017	.259	.984	
Self-acceptance	.148	.266	1.160	
<i>CHANGE "I AND YOU"</i>				
Autonomy	.167	.253	1.182	
Environmental mastery	.270	.259	1.310	
Personal growth	.838	.268	2.312	**
Positive relations with others	.197	.280	1.218	
Purpose in life	.150	.264	1.161	
Self-acceptance	.382	.268	1.465	

Note. * $p < 05$, ** $p < 01$, *** $p < 001$.

For each, the regression coefficient B , odds ratio $Exp(B)$ and p value are noted in brackets. The odds ratio, an exponentiation of the B coefficient, measures the strength of the statistical association between two variables, in the present case psychological wellbeing and the type of change perceived ('I', 'I and You' or 'All'). Results of the logistic model show a significant influence of four out of the six dimensions of psychological wellbeing on change. Hereby they are presented and discussed one by one.

All other variables held constant, respondents scoring higher on the dimension *positive relations with others* are 2.207 times less likely to perceive a change related to the self (I change) than respondents scoring lower ($B = -.792$; $Exp(B) = .453$; $p < 0.01$).

As anticipated in the literature review, where these theoretical paradigms are analyzed, tentatively, this result can be explained with reference to the *Social Identity Theory* (Tajfel and Turner, 1986) and the *Place Identity Theory* (Proshansky, Fabian and Kaminoff, 1983). First it could be noted that the three aspects of identity might be associated with the three types of change through travel individuated in this study. More specifically: 'personal identity' with the introspective or 'I' change; 'social identity' with the interpersonal or 'I and You' change; and 'place identity' with change in relation to nature or 'All'. Secondly that, as mentioned above, *Social Identity Theory* postulates a tendency to define the group of affiliation (in-group) positively at the expense of others (out-group). The tendency to favor one's own group at the expense of others is called the in-group bias. Since the dimension 'positive relations with others' describes stable and warm relationships with the in-group, it may be assumed an exclusion of out-groups determined by bias. This may lead to less exchange with people with different values and cultures, and therefore limited opportunities to (re)-construct the own identity and experiencing personal change (Leed, 1991). Finally, a concurrent explanation may be offered considering that people may maximize in-groups' benefits even at the expense of personal wellbeing (Klandermans, 2000). In this case

a de-identification process may be the cause why respondents moves away from the pole of personal identity (I) to the social identity.

For future research, it would be interesting to test whether people high on 'positive relations with other' are indeed lower in openness to other cultures (broad-mindedness values) or are affected by a de-identification process. Following a suggestion by Gilligan (1993) who noted that women are more prone than men to lose their self to please other, the influence of gender should also be analyzed.

Although the significance levels are low, it is still interesting to notice that respondents scoring higher on the dimension 'autonomy' seem less likely to perceive a change related to nature (All) ($B = -.446$; $\text{Exp}(B) = .628$; $p < 0.1$). Similarly, respondents scoring higher on the dimension 'purpose in life' are less likely to perceive a 'All' type of change ($B = -.446$; $\text{Exp}(B) = .628$; $p < 0.1$). These results may be explained with reference to studies on the influence of value orientations on pro-environmental behaviour. These studies show that values such as being influential and not being influenced by others (that are items measuring 'autonomy') are constituent of an egoistic value orientation (Schwartz, 1994). This value orientation is negatively related to pro-environmental behavior (Steg and Vlek, 2009). Looking at the items composing the dimension 'purpose in life', it may be noticed that they do not refer to any specific scope in life. This leaves open the possibility that one's 'purpose in life' is based on egoistic value orientations, or more generally on values not (strictly) related to care and concern for nature. Future research should explore the linkages among values orientations; wellbeing and change though travel more in depth.

Respondents who score higher on 'self-acceptance' are 1.723 times more likely to feel change in relation to nature ($B = .544$; $\text{Exp}(B) = 1.723$; $p < 0.05$), while respondents who score higher on 'personal growth' are 2.321 times more likely to feel change in relation to others ($B = .838$; $\text{Exp}(B) = 2.312$; $p < 0.01$). About the first result (self-acceptance and change in relation to nature) we propose

the following considerations. A place is often associated with a certain group of people, a certain lifestyle and social status. In relation to maintaining a positive self-esteem and personal wellbeing, this means that people will prefer places that contain physical symbols that maintain and enhance positive self-esteem and personal wellbeing, and, if they can, they will avoid places that have negative impacts on their self-esteem and personal wellbeing. Clean and uncontaminated nature is one of these places, as recent literature suggests (Lappégard, 2007). It may therefore be argued that people high in self-esteem look for places supporting it, including uncontaminated nature, and have therefore a higher chance than other to perceive a change in their relationship towards the natural environment.

Alternatively this results and the result concerning the impact of 'personal growth' on perceived change towards other, may be explained with reference to Geller (1995) who shows that people with a high level of self-acceptance and a sense of continued growth/development as a person are able to better focus on others and on the surrounding environment. On the same line Maslow (1943, 1954) affirms that self-achievement forms the basis for self-actualization leading to the peak moments in which a person recognizes to be part of a greater whole.

CONCLUSION

Youth tourism is a very significant phenomenon, both for its material and its immaterial impact on society (UNWTO, 2008). Even though, research on this target group is limited and fragmented in general (Richards and Wilson, 2004; Staffieri, 2016 and regarding the influence of the youngster's psychological wellbeing on the change perceived after a travel experience in particular.

From an academic perspective this study contributes by confirming that three dimensions of change through travel can be identified and by showing that psychological wellbeing may be used

as independent variable impacting on one dimension of the tourism experience, change. Our results open up the possibility to use wellbeing as antecedent also of other dimensions of the tourism experience, such as the meaning given to travel.

Moreover, the new dimension of change, change in relation to nature, may not only be used for further research on antecedents of such a change but also as a measure of success for those travel forms that aim at positively influencing the attitude of travellers towards nature, such as eco-tourism. Researchers call for noteworthy efforts to promote key elements of sustainability and educate actual and future generations, the latter being crucial for the destination's development in the long run. According to Buffa (2015) understanding travel motivations and behaviors of this segment are, therefore, key factors to design proper, effective, and long-term destination strategies.

This study presents some limitations. To start with it refers to only one measurement at a certain moment in time. Though it may be contended that people emotional experience present a high level of coherence (Diener and Larsen, 1993), a longitudinal study is needed to better understand the influence of wellbeing on change through travel and to measure change and not only perceived change as in this study. The used Ryff's scale, moreover, relies on self-reported assessments of psychological well-being. As with all self-report instruments, students may respond in ways that are socially desirable rather than reveal their actual response to each statement. Furthermore, cultural factors are also overlooked in SWB measures in most studies, e.g. there is little information about tourists living in the Eastern cultural context. Replication of this study in other cultural contexts is therefore recommended.

In discussing results some other suggestions for future research have already been given. To these we wish to add that a longitudinal study is also needed to assess the impact of the perceived change on

the further development of the personal, social and local identity of the traveller (Tajfel, 1982; Proshansky, Fabian and Kaminoff, 1983).

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