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# EXPLORING THE MOMENTS AND MEMORY OF TOURIST EXPERIENCES IN PERU

Sarah Quinlan Cutler

Wilfrid Laurier University, squinlancutler@glup.ca

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EXPLORING THE MOMENTS AND MEMORY OF  
TOURIST EXPERIENCES IN PERU

By

Sarah Quinlan Cutler

Bachelor of Environmental Studies, University of Waterloo, 2000

Master of Arts, University of Waterloo, 2005

THESIS

Submitted to the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for

Doctor of Philosophy in Geography

Wilfrid Laurier University

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## **Abstract**

Tourist experiences offer anomalous and complex interactions between tourists and tourism places. The study of these experiences is the focus of this doctoral dissertation, which aims to explore subjective aspects of the tourist experience. This exploration involves the conceptualisation of tourist experiences and the development of a multi-phased research design that captures the perceptions of momentary in situ experiences and examines how these perceptions change over time.

The dissertation addresses under studied areas in tourism and answers calls for research into immediate conscious experiences and tourist centred methodology. This investigation into tourist experiences involves 21 participants who took an educational trip to Peru, capturing experiential data using both in situ research methods and recollection methods. The findings and discussion focus on three areas: The mechanics of the primary research method, the experience of a World Heritage Site, and mobile tourist experiences along the Inca Trail.

The first empirical study investigates the use of the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) in capturing momentary data on tourist experiences. This doctoral research involves the adaptation of ESM to be both a predominantly qualitative method and a mobile digital method on smartphones. The analysis of the operational aspects of ESM looks specifically at issues of participant burden, reactivity, and the use of smartphones as a research tool. Findings reveal complicated relationships between the research process and the data collected. In sampling participants throughout the trip, there is limited evidence of participant burden.

There is also evidence of reactivity in momentary data, but this is argued to be beneficial in capturing subjective perceptions due to improved self-awareness in participants. The use of smartphones in data collection presents challenges and opportunities in ESM design.

Evidence that participants humanize this data collection tool emerges from the momentary data and is discussed.

The second empirical study examines the experience of the World Heritage Site of Machu Picchu, addressing gaps in research on tourist experiences at protected sites of global significance. The data reveal that, though this site is protected for its cultural, architectural, and natural significance, social relationships emerge as a strong memorable element of the site visit. Analysis of the photographic data, capturing visual in situ experiences, demonstrates a relationship between the number of photographs taken and memories of the site. The momentary and memorable experiences of Machu Picchu are found to be influenced by the method of site arrival, where those who arrive via the Inca Trail show a more intimate connection with the World Heritage Site.

Stemming from the findings related to site arrival, the final empirical study examines the experience of hiking the Inca Trail to Machu Picchu within the context of mobility and mobile practices in tourism. In the momentary and memorable data on the hiking experience, what emerges is an emphasis on self-identity and the encounter of corporeal self through pain and physical struggle. This is prominent in momentary perceptions and short term memory but fades in the long term memory data, where the destination of the hike is emphasized. The importance of pain within this mobile hiking experience is highlighted.

Overall, this doctoral thesis advances knowledge on the complexities involved in subjective tourist experiences through the examination of educational tourists in Peru. The

major contributions of this thesis to the tourist experience knowledge base are in the capture and examination of momentary in situ experiences. The design and adaptation of ESM advances theory on experience sampling procedures and addresses issues of mobility in tourism research designs. The multi-phased research approach to data collection captures detailed and dynamic meanings in the moment, which become more generalized over time. This research highlights the challenges and importance in capturing momentary data to better understand holistic tourist experiences and provides future research recommendations related to tourist experience theory and methodology.

## **Acknowledgements**

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I am indebted to Bobby Quinlan (the third parent), Donna Cutler, Gail Quinlan, and Peter Quinlan for their support and I’d like to extend a heartfelt thanks to all the family and friends who contributed to this doctoral process through their encouragement, babysitting, advice, or alcohol.

## **Dedication**

To Brad, whose unwavering patience, support, and comma insertions(,) made my doctoral studies possible.

To my four remarkable children, whose peri-doctoral arrivals deepened my understanding of the human experience, providing a perspective and impetus that shaped this whole process.

Mum has finally finished her homework.

## Declaration of Co-Authorship / Previous Publication

### I. Co-Authorship Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the principal author of this multiple manuscript dissertation. The structure of the multiple manuscript dissertation option involves an introduction followed by a series of stand-alone papers, ending with a conclusion. The background research, research design, data analysis, interpretations, discussions, conclusions, and writing contained in this document are my original work. However, the stand alone papers involve additional contributions from other researchers. Chapter 2 was co-authored with Dr. Barbara Carmichael who contributed through mentorship and editing. Chapters 3, 4, and 5 were co-authored with Dr. Barbara Carmichael and Dr. Sean Doherty who both contributed through research funding, mentorship, data collection support, and editing.

I, *Barbara Carmichael*, am in agreement with the evaluation of roles and contributions to the co-authored papers as stated above.

Signature: *Bar Carmichael* Date: *July 27<sup>th</sup> 2015*

I, *Sean Doherty*, am in agreement with the evaluation of roles and contributions to the co-authored papers as stated above.

Signature: *S Doherty* Date: *July 13, 2015*



## II. Declaration of Previous Publication

This thesis includes four original papers that have been previously published, are in press, or submitted for publication, as follows:

Thesis Chapter	Publication title/full citation	Publication status
Chapter 2	Quinlan Cutler, S., & Carmichael, B. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. In M. Morgan, P. Lugosi & B. J. R. Ritchie (Eds.), <i>The Tourism and Leisure Experience</i> . Bristol, UK: Channel View Publications.	Published
Chapter 3	Quinlan Cutler, S., Doherty, S. & Carmichael, B. (submitted) The Experience Sampling Method: Examining its use and potential in Tourism Experience Research. <i>Current Issues in Tourism</i> .	Preparing second revision submission
Chapter 4	Quinlan Cutler, S., Carmichael, B. & Doherty, S. (in press) Immediacy, photography, and memory: the tourist experience of Machu Picchu. In Bourdeau, L., Gravari-Barbas, M., & Robinson, M. (Eds) <i>World Heritage, Tourism and Identity</i> . Farnham, UK: Ashgate Publishing.	In press
Chapter 5	Quinlan Cutler, S., Carmichael, B. & Doherty, S. (2014) The Inca Trail experience: Does the journey matter? <i>Annals of Tourism Research</i> , 45, 152-166.	Published

I certify that I have permission to include the above in press and published material in my thesis. License agreements and permissions can be found in Appendix A.

## **Statement of Originality**

I declare that the work presented here is original and the result of my own investigations, except as otherwise acknowledged. This work has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for a degree at this or any other University. Formulations and ideas taken from other sources are cited as such.

## Table of Contents

<b>Abstract .....</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>Acknowledgements .....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>Dedication .....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>Declaration of Co-Authorship / Previous Publication .....</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>Statement of Originality .....</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>List of Tables .....</b>	<b>xii</b>
<b>List of Figures.....</b>	<b>xiii</b>
<b>Chapter 1: Introduction .....</b>	<b>1</b>
Defining the Problem .....	1
Purpose and Objectives .....	3
Overview of Research Approach.....	4
Dissertation Outline.....	17
<b>Chapter 2: The Dimensions of the Tourist Experience .....</b>	<b>23</b>
Introduction .....	23
Multiple Definitions of the Tourist Experience.....	24
Development of the Tourist Experience Literature .....	25
Dimensions of Experience: Phases, Influences, and Outcomes .....	27
Tourist Experience Conceptual Model.....	30
The Influential Realm.....	32
Personal Realm.....	35
Conclusion.....	49
<b>Chapter 3: The Experience Sampling Method: Examining its Use and Potential in Tourist Experience Research.....</b>	<b>51</b>

The Tourist Experience .....	51
The Experience Sampling Method (ESM) .....	52
Research Methods investigating ESM.....	60
Results: ESM design .....	64
Discussion: ESM and the Tourist Experience .....	76
Conclusion.....	83
 <b>Chapter 4: Immediacy, Photography, and Memory: The Tourist Experience of Machu Picchu</b> .....	<b>85</b>
Introduction .....	85
Researching the Tourist Experience at World Heritage Sites .....	86
Research Methods and Analysis.....	90
The Tourist Experience of Machu Picchu .....	92
Conclusion.....	100
 <b>Chapter 5: The Inca Trail Experience: Does the Journey Matter? .....</b>	<b>103</b>
Introduction .....	103
Research Methods .....	109
Results .....	116
Discussion .....	124
Conclusion.....	133
 <b>Chapter 6: Conclusions .....</b>	<b>135</b>
Key Research Findings.....	136
Practical and Theoretical Implications .....	139
Limitations and Future Directions .....	142
Closing Thoughts .....	151

<b>Appendix A: Copyright and Permissions .....</b>	<b>153</b>
<b>Appendix B: Ethics Information and Consent Documents.....</b>	<b>155</b>
<b>Appendix C: Pre-trip questionnaire.....</b>	<b>160</b>
<b>Appendix D: Experience Sampling Method Questions .....</b>	<b>162</b>
<b>Appendix E: Post trip Interview Questions.....</b>	<b>163</b>
<b>Appendix F: Post trip Email Survey .....</b>	<b>164</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>166</b>

## List of Tables

Table 1.1. Detailed Peru trip itinerary .....	7
Table 2.1 Overview of definitional approach research in tourism experiences.....	26
Table 2.2. A summary of motivations for tourist experiences.....	36
Table 2.3. Three approaches to authenticity in tourism.....	40
Table 2.4. Skills and learning outcomes associated with tourist experiences.....	43
Table 3.1. A summary of ESM research findings on compliance and response rate relationships with participant and time-based variables.....	55
Table 3.2. Peru trip itinerary .....	61
Table 3.3. Total number, mean length, and examples of qualitative ESM verbal data in self-reports. .	67
Table 3.4. ESM research method content listing subject categories with examples, the number of participants who discussed each category, and total statements in each category. ....	72
Table 4.1 Total number and main subject of photographs taken by participant photographers at Machu Picchu.....	94

## List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Map of Peru trip route .....	7
Figure 2.1 The tourist experience conceptual model of influences and outcomes. ....	31
Figure 3.1. Screen shots of software for a signal contingent self-report.....	62
Figure 3.2. The number of non-compliant self-reports by trip day.....	66
Figure 3.3. Mean length of verbal self-report data on each trip day.....	69
Figure 3.4. Daily reported mood mean during Peru trip.....	70
Figure 4.1 ISTEEL Software snapshot depicting “Tourism Experience” randomly generated prompt...	91
Figure 4.2 Representative examples of tourist photographs taken at Machu Picchu.....	96
Figure 5.1. Elevation map of the Inca Trail hike undertaken by participants in this study. ....	111

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

Tourism is a pervasive social, cultural, and economic phenomenon involving the geographic movement of over 1 billion people throughout the world (UNWTO 2014). This phenomenon has been an area of increasing interest in academia, where questions related to tourism and tourist activities are examined. In defining tourism often technical factors, such as location, distance, and time, are used to differentiate between tourist and non-tourist activities. Yet the tourist experience is argued to be the essence of this industry (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014; Ritchie, 2011; Tussyadiah, 2014b). Tourism has also defined as an experience-based activity (Botterill & Crompton, 1996); where the tourist is a seeker of encounters and experience (Ryan, 2002c). Tourist experiences are argued to be generated through the perception and recognition of sensory information from within the landscape (Chhetri, Arrowsmith, & Jackson, 2004). This *experience* is the focus of this doctoral dissertation which explores the meanings generated in tourist places.

### **Defining the Problem**

This research furthers inquiry and understanding within two under-researched areas: tourist experiences and immediate conscious research methods. Despite over three decades of discussion on the tourist experience in the academic literature, there remains numerous gaps (Larsen, 2007; Lindberg, Hansen, & Eide, 2014; Neuhofer et al., 2014; Ritchie, 2011; Selstad, 2007). There appears to be little agreement regarding definitions and elements involved in tourist experiences. The only commonality within the existing literature is that tourist experiences have significance for the individual tourist (Li, 2000). This emphasizes the



subjectivity of experiences where each individual will interpret and remember experiences in different ways (Volo, 2009). Some tourist experience studies have been done on specific tourist segments, with many focusing on the experiences of independent long-haul travellers (Cederholm, 2004; Noy, 2004; Uriely, Yonay, & Simchai, 2002; Vogt, 1976; White & White, 2004). The experiences of other tourist groups have been given less attention. Educational tourism is an under-researched area in the tourism literature, despite the emphasis on tourism as an inherently educational activity (Smith & Jenner, 1997) and the highlighted need for research that explores learning experiences in tourism (Pearce & Foster, 2007; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). Though there have been studies which focus on educational tourism (see Ayalon & Schnell, 2014; Carr, 2003; Cooper & Latham, 1988; Donaldson & Gatsinzi, 2005; Gibson, 1998; Ritchie, Carr, & Cooper, 2003; Smith & Jenner, 1997; Stoner et al., 2014), there are relatively few, which look at the subjective experiences of educational tourists.

Several researchers have pointed to gaps in knowledge and the need for different methodological considerations in tourist experience research, such as tourist centred method designs and multirelational approaches (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Jennings et al., 2009; Lindberg et al., 2014; Selstad, 2007). To understand tourist experiences as a whole, research needs to capture the dynamic experiential processes which are embedded within time and contextual factors (Lindberg et al., 2014). In reviewing tourist centered research, there are few studies which address these dynamic influences using immediate in situ methods (Larsen, 2007; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987), despite arguments that a moment-by-moment approach to tourist experience research would provide a more valid measure than the use of recollection methods (Larsen, 2007). To understand tourist experiences, experience based research designs should aim to capture tourist perspectives in natural experience settings (Tussyadiah,

2014b). In situ and moment-by-moment experience based approaches have become commonplace in leisure studies and psychology but are rarely adopted in tourism studies. Other research has demonstrated that the evaluation of experiences changes and fades over time (see Lee, Dattilo, & Howard, 1994) and that geographical context influences experiences (Li, 2000), indicating that more research is needed which applies a moment-by-moment tourist centered methodology to the study of tourist experiences in situ.

This study aims to address these gaps emphasized in the literature by focusing on understudied aspects of tourist experiences. Memorable experiences are examined along with in situ experiences through the use of a tourist centred and momentary approach. The term ‘momentary’ is employed to describe immediate conscious experiences that are brief and fleeting, and to define the methods that capture these moment-by-moment episodic events in situ.

## **Purpose and Objectives**

The purpose of this doctoral dissertation is to explore the subjective experiences of educational tourists. To address this purpose, the objectives of this research are:

- To explore the subjective aspects of tourist experiences (Chapter 2, 4 & 5);
- To develop a research design to capture momentary experiences and tourist experience memory (Chapter 3);
- To examine perceptions of momentary tourist experiences (Chapter 4 & 5);
- To examine how these perceptions of tourist experiences change over time (Chapter 4 & 5).

This doctoral research makes an original contribution towards the study of tourist experiences by focusing on the immediate conscious experiences of a group of tourists on an educational trip to Peru through the development of an innovative tourist centred experiential research design. The design advances methodology on experience research in social science by adopting and adapting a momentary research method to collect experience data in situ using smartphones. This method adaptation involved qualitative data collection software using voice recordings to capture momentary perceptions in natural experience environments coupled with quantitative data collected on mood. The research approach also involved the collection of tourist photographs as visual experience data. Data on short term and long term tourist experience memory was also collected to enrich the understanding of the complexities involved in momentary and memorable tourist experiences.

## **Overview of Research Approach**

Research is the process of gathering information on a specific phenomenon using academic insight and scientific rigour (Jennings, 2001). This process is guided by a set of beliefs or a paradigm (Jennings, 2001). A paradigm describes how the world is understood (ontology), how knowledge is created through the relationship between the research participant and the researcher (epistemology), and how information will be gathered (methodology) (Aitken & Valentine, 2006; Creswell, 2003; Guba, 1990 in Jennings, 2001). By communicating the research paradigm, it then grounds and directs the framework of the study.

This research is based on a constructivist paradigm where knowledge and understanding are created through subjective study set within the natural world (see Creswell,

2003; Jennings, 2001). This research is related specifically to the phenomenon under study, the participants under study, and the setting of the research. Therefore, the epistemological approach relies on the views of participants (Creswell, 2003; Jennings, 2001) to interpret complexities and meanings. These interpretations are then discussed to develop knowledge and understanding regarding the concepts under study. This is consistent with other tourist experience research, where the study is grounded to the tourists themselves and the emergent narratives of experience (Jennings & Nickerson, 2006; Patterson et al., 1998; Prentice, Witt, & Hamer, 1998). In tourism studies, phenomenology is becoming more prevalent as researchers examine complex phenomena using a holistic view of human experience (Pernecky, 2010; Szarycz, 2009). Phenomenology is a diverse tradition which emphasizes subjective experience through the interpretation of individual perceptions and meanings.

The phenomenological approach aims to explore the common meanings of shared lived experiences (Creswell, 2013; Pernecky, 2010). The emphasis of this approach is on the research phenomena to be explored, which in this dissertation would be the tourist experience. The goal is to better describe what individuals are experiencing and how they experience it (Creswell, 2013) rather than claim generalizability in the findings (Szarycz, 2009). Philosophical writings explaining and critiquing the underpinnings and processes of phenomenological research in tourism have been done by Pernecky (2010) and Szarycz (2009).

There are several common research activities involved in using a phenomenological approach (Creswell, 2013). In this research, these activities consist of first identifying the phenomenon - the tourist experience, then reflecting on the main themes of this experience under study (see Chapter 2). The next activity involves identifying individuals who will

experience the same phenomenon. The study of all tourist experiences was deemed too broad, so a more specific tourist group needed to be identified. This led to the focus on educational tourist experiences. Following this are activities which concentrate on the development of appropriate research methods, then on collecting data from individuals who experience an educational tourist trip (see Chapter 3). The data are then analysed to discern themes that describe the overall essences of educational tourist experiences and the contexts that influence how the participants experience tourism (see Chapter 4 & 5).

### *Identifying and Selecting Participants*

Participants were recruited using purposive and convenience sampling, which are non-random sampling procedures (Jennings, 2001). Purposive sampling involves the recruitment of individuals who are most appropriate for the research. As this phenomenological research focuses on tourist experiences the sample needed to consist of individuals who were going to undertake a similar trip and have shared experiences. Due to the use of ESM via smartphones, participants also had to have good working knowledge of mobile phone technology. Convenience sampling is when the selection of participants is based on researcher access. I was able to access a group of 21 final year undergraduate students participating in a university sponsored trip to Peru who met sampling criteria. Due to this access, the focus of the study was modified to centre specifically on the experience of educational tourists.

The participants flew from Toronto, Canada to Lima, Peru on August 25, 2008 and returned on September 3, 2008. This educational trip was managed through a tour operator who organized the transportation, accommodation, and site entry for all participants. Table 1.1 outlines the trip itinerary and a map of the trip route is presented in figure 1.1. The

participants were together for most of the trip with the exception of the Inca Trail hike, when 3 participants chose to remain in Cusco.

Table 1.1. Detailed Peru trip itinerary

August 25	Flight from Toronto to Lima, overnight in Lima hotel
August 26	Short Lima visit on route to airport, flight from Lima to Puno, visit Puno area, overnight in Puno hotel
August 27	Tuk tuk ride to dock and boat ride on Lake Titicaca to Taquile Island and Amantani Island, overnight at Amantani Island homestay.
August 28	Boat ride on Lake Titicaca to Uros Island, then to Puno, overnight in Puno hotel
August 29	Bus ride from Puno to Cusco, evening and overnight in Cusco hotel
August 30	Bus ride through Sacred Valley, visit to Pisac, orphanage, and Ollantaytambo, overnight in Cusco hotel.
August 31	Hikers: Bus ride to Inca Trail, hike and overnight at Inca Trail campsite Non-hikers: Independent touring in Cusco, overnight in Cusco hotel
September 1	Hikers: Inca Trail hike, including highest ascent, and overnight at Inca Trail campsite Non-hikers: Independent touring of Cusco, overnight in Cusco hotel
September 2	Hikers: Inca Trail hike to Machu Picchu, Machu Picchu site visit, train to Cusco, overnight in Cusco hotel Non-hikers: Train to Machu Picchu, Machu Picchu site visit, train to Cusco, overnight in Cusco hotel
September 3	Flight from Cusco to Lima, Flight from Lima to Toronto



Figure 1.1 Map of Peru trip route

Participants were accompanied by a tour guide throughout the trip. This guide would have taken on many of the roles discussed by Cohen (1985) in directing tour participants to specific information and sites, providing physical and cultural orientation, and acting as a mediator or culture broker within the local cultural environment.

### *Methodology*

Methodology involves theoretical principles combined with the framework that guides research within a particular paradigm (Jennings, 2001). Phenomenology allows for multiple methods of inquiry because it is not hinged to a subjective or objective perspective, instead lying on a continuum between qualitative and quantitative methodology (Creswell, 2013).

Qualitative methodology aims to establish the nature of truth by conducting research within the 'real' world (Jennings, 2001). Research tends to be more unstructured, emerging from the setting and the participants rather than being set from the beginning (Creswell, 2003). Sampling tends to be non-random as sample populations are generally chosen for specific attributes. Data analysis involves the examination of themes associated with the phenomenon under study and provides information on a piece of the world, rather than being able to generalize the research findings to larger populations (Jennings, 2001).

Quantitative methodology involves deductive research processes to establish the nature of truth through experimentation and testing (Creswell, 2003; Jennings, 2001). Quantitative inquiry usually involves a more structured approach, using predetermined questions that allow for statistical analysis (Creswell, 2003; Kumar, 2005). Results are quantified to act as evidence of research findings (Kumar, 2005), and findings are often generalized to a larger population. However, quantitative methodology can be used in

descriptive or exploratory research as a way to collect numeric information on a phenomenon to quantify attributes, describe events, and explore patterns or relationships.

This study mixes both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, to address and overcome the limitations of each (Jennings, 2001). This triangulation, involving the mixing of methodological approaches and research methods, has become common place in tourism research (Koc & Boz, 2014). Though this phenomenological doctoral research largely relies on qualitative inquiry, a mixed methods approach is employed to provide a comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon. Both forms of data are collected and information is integrated in the overall interpretation of results (Creswell, 2003).

### *Research Methods*

The aim of the research design in this study was to employ methods capable of collecting data on tourist experiences both during and after the trip. The methods needed to capture individual perceptions of experiences to yield a better understanding of the meanings, differences, and commonalities in the shared lived experiences of tourists and in the contexts that influenced these experiences. The research design was approved by the Wilfrid Laurier Ethics Research Board (see Appendix B) and involved five data collection methods.

#### Pre-trip Surveys

To gather background information on the participants in this study, a pre-trip survey was used. Surveys are flexible instruments that can help collect data on the characteristics of a population (Babbie, 2001). They require minimal administration and collect data quickly using a uniform design (Jennings, 2001). The pre-trip survey gathered information on participant age, sex, and travel history. Open-ended questions were used to allow participants



more flexibility in providing information on trip motivations and expectations. The pre-trip survey questions can be found in Appendix C. This survey was included to allow for comparisons to be made between experiential expectations, immediate reactions, and recollected experiences. All 21 participants completed this survey.

### Experience Sampling Method (ESM)

The collection of immediate experiential reactions allows for a better understanding of how tourists view their own experiences in situ. Larson (2007) argues that the collection of moment-by-moment experiential data in tourism provides a more valid measure than the recording of recollected experiences. Due to the processes of memory decay and alteration, the length of delay between the actual experience and the reporting of the experience plays a major role in understanding accuracy (Cary, 2004; Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987). Our memories are inaccurate representations of events (Stewart & Hull, 1996; Stone et al., 2007). Using an immediate in situ approach can minimize this recall bias by capturing the perceptions of moods, emotions, and other subjective states while they are being experienced and are within conscious awareness (Fisher, 2000). The use of in situ data collection can capture immediate raw reactions to experiences compared to later reactions, which would be diluted after the participant has had time to process and contextualize an experience within a whole travel event. In this study, the data on immediate experiences were captured using a modified version of ESM.

Hektner et al (2007) and Scollon et al. (2003) note that the first published paper using a real time, real world method to sample experience was by Csikszentmihalyi, Larson, and Prescott (1977) though Shiffman et al. (2008) credit diary studies in the 1940s and ecological

studies of behaviour in the 1960s as being central to the development of this type of design. Arising from dissatisfaction with retrospective research, ESM was developed to collect data on the content and context of daily experiences (Hektner et al., 2007). It is based on the repeated administration of self-reports designed to capture the direct perception of ongoing experiences by prompting participants to answer questions at random points throughout a given time period, within natural settings (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Borell, 1999; Cerin, Szabo, & Williams, 2001; Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Delle Fave, Bassi, & Massimini, 2003; Hektner et al., 2007). ESM fits well within a phenomenological framework which emphasizes subjectivity and self-reporting on individual experiences, though it has not often been used in tourism studies.

Previous ESM studies have involved the use of electronic pagers which signal participants to fill out paper self-reports (Borrie & Roggenbuck, 2001; Delle Fave et al., 2003). Recently there has been a move towards more computerized data collection as this can allow greater flexibility in question presentation, more precise control of timing, the ability to track compliance, and reduction in human error when managing data (Hektner et al., 2007). In this study, ESM was designed to collect qualitative and quantitative data and adapted for use on smartphones.

The ESM smartphone software included both event and signal contingent sampling. Event contingent sampling is when participants complete a self-report when a pre-defined event occurs (Wheeler & Reis, 1991). In this research, participants were asked to complete an event self-report if they were having a significant tourist experience. This description was intentionally broad to allow participants to define what was significant to them. When the participant felt that he or she was having a significant experience, the participant would pick

up the smartphone and choose 'Manual' event on the ESM software screen, which would trigger a self-report involving a series of questions using pull-down lists and prompted voice recordings. The use of voice recordings as a qualitative assessment technique has been implemented in previous studies (see Lee et al., 1994) allowing participants to respond verbally to research questions. ESM self-report questions can be found in Appendix D.

Signal contingent sampling uses random or fixed schedules to signal participants for self-reports and participants remain unaware of the signalling schedule (Wheeler & Reis, 1991). In this study, the ESM software was designed to alert participants, via device chime and vibration, five times per day between 8am and 10pm at random intervals, with at least 60 minutes between signals. Once alerted, participants would pick up the smartphone and be prompted to complete a 'tourist experience' self-report involving the same series of questions used in event sampling self-reports (see Appendix D). These questions asked about the current location, social context, activity, current moods, odd or interesting experiences, emotional experiences, learning experiences, and best and worst parts of the current experience. In this research, mood is considered to be a more enduring and low intensity affective state, while emotion is considered to be a short term subjective reaction to experiences (Pearce, 2011).

Data were stored on the smartphone as audio and text files. The signalling software also included options to skip or snooze a signalled event. This digital method differed from previous ESM studies as it did not require participants to carry around lengthy paper questionnaires; the data collection tool was small and portable. The act of completing a self-report was similar to texting and talking on a mobile phone, which could be done even while participating in more strenuous trip activities, such as hiking.

Most ESM studies are based on small purposive sample sizes due to the focus on specific phenomena and effort required for data collection. This study was no exception, with the sample size limited to the 21 participants. Hektner et al. (2007) argues that studies with fewer than 10 participants can still yield enough information to allow for reliable analyses, therefore the sample was deemed adequate. Over the course of the ten day Peru trip, 919 event and signal self-reports were logged by the 21 participants.

### Photography

Previous tourist experience research has mainly focused on collecting numeric or text-based data from tourists. There have been relatively few studies which empirically investigate tourist photography (Albers & James, 1988; Larsen, 2006; Lo & McKercher, 2015; Markwell, 1997; Stylianou-Lambert, 2012). The lack of research interest in this area seems odd considering the relationship between photography and tourism is deemed important (Albers & James, 1988; Chalfen, 1979; Sontag, 1978). Tourist photographs represent the images the individual tourist wishes to preserve and will be left with as part of the vacation memory, illustrating the destination and the tourist's experience of that destination.

Assessing the images chosen to capture and preserve tourist memories of experiences can help to illustrate the travel environment and further understand the dimensions of the experience itself. Cameras produce material which visually captures actual experiences in ways that words cannot. However, in taking photographs, tourists are not only collecting evidence, they may also be limiting their experience by focusing only on what is image worthy, ignoring those pieces of a destination which cannot be converted into an appropriate and pleasing picture (Sontag, 1978).

The integration of photography in tourist experience research involves the use of static images to provide information on the elements that the tourist values enough to preserve as a memory of the trip or as evidence of their experience. In this study, photographs represented participant experiences and therefore, photographic choices were not to be influenced by research objectives or parameters. During the trip, participants were unaware of the photographic data collection involved in this study and were not given any instructions regarding photography. This was done to avoid biasing the types of images captured by participants. Once participants were on the return flight from Peru, a research assistant asked if they would be willing to share their photographs for research purposes. This method of post experience photo collection is similar to that undertaken by Larsen (2006) and Markwell (1997). Participants were asked to provide the research assistant with a full set of unedited trip images, but were given an opportunity to delete or refrain from sharing any images they deemed to be too personal. All participants who agreed had digital cameras and provided digital images, which were date stamped. The images were coded with time and date information. In total, 12 participants submitted 5,487 photographs.

### Interviews

Recollection methods were used in this research design to provide comparisons between on-site experiences and experiential memory. Memory is an important element associated with the tourist experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). It is even stressed as being the most influential aspect of tourist experiences, as memory will be what remains after the experience has ended, exerting a strong influence on the perceptions of destinations (Larsen, 2007). Previous research has discussed how memory interacts with and influences the

evaluation of experiences (see Cary, 2004; Fridgen, 1984; Larsen, 2007; Selstad, 2007). In this research, short term tourist experience memories were captured using semi-structured interviews three to four months after participants returned from Peru.

Data collection procedures for phenomenology studies typically involve interviewing (Creswell, 2013). This is a subjective qualitative technique using face to face interaction between the participant and the researcher (Babbie, 2001; Creswell, 2003). Semi-structured interviewing involves a conversation where the interviewer has a list of questions that will be the focus, but is also able to supplement this with prompt questions or by asking for further clarification (Jennings, 2001). This is an inexpensive technique which allows the researcher to direct and modify questioning, probe for historic information, study subtleties in attitudes, and gather data on complex or sensitive issues (Babbie, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Jennings, 2001). However, this tool has its limitations. Interviews gather information in a designated place rather than in a natural setting, the presence of the interviewer may bias responses, and responses are subject to interpretation (Babbie, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Jennings, 2001).

In this study, the interviews focused on tourist experience memories. The semi-structured interview question list can be found in Appendix E. Participants were asked about Peru, stories they told about their trip, significant memories, any noticeable personal differences in self since the trip, their best and worst experiences during the trip, learning experiences, social experiences, sensory experiences, emotions associated with trip memories, and motivations for travelling to Peru. These interviews were conducted with all 21 participants.

### Open-ended Email Surveys

Open-ended email surveys were conducted 16-17 months after participants returned from Peru to capture long term recollection of tourist experiences. This allowed for the evaluation of how the understanding and memory of experiences changes over time. The survey featured open-ended questions repeating many of those asked in the interview about stories, significant memories, differences in self, best and worst experiences, learning experiences, and emotions associated with the trip. The survey also included questions which asked about memories of Machu Picchu, travel history since returning from Peru, and any experiential influences on this travel history. The survey questions can be found in Appendix F. The survey was emailed because it was the best way to reconnect with participants, many of whom had finished university and moved to other regions or countries. This survey was completed and returned by 15 participants (71%).

### *Role of the Researcher*

Phenomenological research asks that the researcher identify personal experiences with the phenomenon, which is not meant as a declaration of biases but instead an attempt to situate biases within the study (Pernecky, 2010). The aim is to lend transparency to the research design where the readers can then interpret if and how these personal experiences play out within the results and discussion.

In 2000 and 2001, I travelled through Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam, China, Laos, Australia, India, Egypt, and England. For over 18 months, I experienced different cultures, different environments, and different social contexts to broaden my understanding of the world and my place in it. I returned from this experience with a transformed sense of self and

a keen interest in how tourism is provided, policed, and perceived. This eventually led me to pursue graduate education in tourism research. In conducting this doctoral study, I was initially interested to see how exposure to different cultural, environmental, and social contexts affect tourists. However, as a researcher, the meanings needed to come from the participants and not from my own tourism experiences. Therefore, I did not approach this research with a specific model of tourist experience; this study was exploratory. The collection of different sources of data using different research methods at different times was done to address the limitations of individual methods and to reduce potential research bias. Findings emerged through inductive analysis processes, with multiple meanings from multiple sources, weakening a dependency on one overarching narrative which may or may not reflect reality. The essence of what was learned throughout this research went well beyond my initial interest in this area and led to a broader understanding of both research methodology and tourist experiences.

I did not travel with the participants on the educational trip to Peru. This gave me some distance from the participants so that I could interpret their language and discussions in a more detached way as I had no personal relationships with them. A research assistant was sent to travel with the group to download data, troubleshoot, and carry a battery backup to charge smartphones in remote locations.

## **Dissertation Outline**

The phenomenological research presented in the following chapters imparts a better understanding of tourist experiences through research on these experiences, evaluations of experiential research design, and empirical examinations of tourist experiences in two



different contexts. This dissertation employs the manuscript option by including four papers that are either submitted, in press, or published in an academic book or journal. All of these papers are co-authored with Dr. Barbara Carmichael and three are co-authored with Dr. Sean Doherty. The Declaration of Co-Authorship / Previous Publication (page ii) outlines the nature of co-author contributions for each paper. All manuscripts were written by me and are based on a portion of the research that was carried out during this doctoral degree. Together these manuscripts present the bulk of my doctoral work, addressing the purpose and objectives of this research. All tables and figures have been renumbered and formatted for this dissertation and reported statistical information has been reformatted for consistency.

Chapter 2 is a review of the research on tourist experience concepts. This chapter looks at the tourist experience as a phenomenon, exploring the phases, realms, and elements involved in this research area. The paper was drafted in 2009, peer reviewed, and then published in 2010 as the first chapter in the edited book *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives*. Though this chapter is not specifically geared towards educational tourism, it presents an overview of the subjective aspects and dynamic processes involved in tourist experiences, including educational tourist experiences, thereby addressing the first objective of this doctoral research. This chapter acts as a literature review, outlining the multiple definitions of the tourist experience and tracing the development of the approaches to this research area. A tourist experience conceptual model, capturing the dominant definitional elements, is presented and explained in detail. This is followed by a concluding discussion on the numerous areas in tourist experience research which require further investigation. Some of the areas discussed, such as the need for the momentary evaluation of experiences, the use of technology in researching experience, and the need for

more investigation into the complexities and relationships involved in tourist experiences, are addressed in the following chapters. This chapter on the dimensions of tourist experiences provides an overview of tourist experience research before proceeding to the empirical studies set within this research area in Chapters 3, 4, and 5.

Chapter 3 describes and evaluates the primary in situ research method used in this doctoral study, ESM. This paper was drafted in 2014 and submitted to the journal *Current Issues in Tourism*, responding to a call for papers on ‘Current Issues in Method and Practice’. It has been peer reviewed and is currently being modified for a revision submission. This doctoral research involved the development of a digital approach to momentary in situ data collection, adapting ESM to be deployed via smartphone technology primarily as a qualitative method. The chapter investigates the use of this method in tourist experience research, introducing ESM and exploring the digital application of this research procedure. The manuscript describes the main research design used for this dissertation, discussing digital ESM and post trip recollection as a way to study the experiences of educational tourists in Peru. The findings focus on the operational aspects of ESM on smartphones, examining methodological implications based on quantitative and qualitative data collected during momentary experiences, and qualitative recollection data on trip memories. The discussion that follows analyses the viability of ESM as a research method in investigating tourist experiences, reporting findings on ESM design, compliance rates, and the evaluation of qualitative ESM data regarding burden, reactivity, and the use of smartphones as a research tool. The chapter concludes by outlining a future research agenda incorporating the use of ESM in tourist experience studies. The purpose of this chapter is to give greater detail on the design of the primary research method and to evaluate the method’s measurement of tourist

experience phenomena. The chapter addresses the second objective of this doctoral dissertation by explaining the development of the main aspects of the in situ experiential research design. Overall, this paper advances knowledge on and the application of momentary research methods through its critique of the mechanics of ESM. This provides a methodological context with which to interpret the findings and discussions presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4 uses a portion of the research data collected in Peru to examine the experience of educational tourists at the Historic Sanctuary of Machu Picchu. This paper addresses gaps in the literature on how World Heritage Sites (WHs) are experienced and remembered. This manuscript was drafted in 2010 and accepted for publication in the edited book *World Heritage, Tourism and Identity*, due to be published in August 2015. The paper reintroduces the immediate approach to researching experiences, discussed in Chapter 2, followed by a concise review of the literature on tourist photography and tourist memory. The research methods detailed in Chapter 3 are briefly reiterated here with the addition of photograph data collection to allow for the visual analysis of immediate tourist experiences. This chapter addresses the objectives of this doctoral dissertation by examining the perceptions of momentary experiences at Machu Picchu and how these perceptions change over time. The paper outlines findings on the emotional, educational, and personal experiences of Machu Picchu. These WHS experiences become significant and prominent memories of the Peru trip in short term and long term recollection. Results also indicate that though the Machu Picchu WHS is associated with cultural and natural features, social relationships were prevalent in photographic content and post-trip memory. Overall, the perceptions of Machu Picchu experiences, both in momentary and memory data, were

affected by the method of site arrival. Discussions by those who hiked along the Inca Trail to arrive at Machu Picchu demonstrated different emotional and personal connections to the site compared to those who arrived by train and bus. These findings triggered interest in exploring the significance of the Inca Trail hiking experience, which is the aim of Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 focuses on the role of mobility in tourist experiences by comparing the perceptions of momentary and memorable experiences along the Inca Trail with site-based experiences at the destination of Machu Picchu. This paper was drafted in 2012, peer-reviewed, and published in the *Annals of Tourism Research* journal in 2014. The chapter introduces research on mobility and mobile practice in tourism, with a focus on tourist experiences. The research method explained in Chapter 3 is reintroduced here, though this manuscript examines only the qualitative data captured using ESM and compares this with qualitative short and long term recollection data. The results report on the immediate reactions during the Inca Trail hike, immediate reactions during the Machu Picchu site visit, and the short and long term memories of these mobile and site-based experiences. The discussion on Machu Picchu is based on a similar data set used in Chapter 4, but in this paper, the momentary and memorable perceptions of the site experience are framed within concepts of self-identity. The results indicate that mobile tourist experiences along the trail hold meaning related to the perception of self-identity and the encounter of corporeal self as compared with site-based experiences. Physical experiences of pain and struggle emerge as a core theme of mobile tourist experiences in the momentary and memorable data; the implications of this are discussed. The paper develops theory on the link between the tourist self and mobile tourist experiences, revealing themes of self-learning and personal growth and how these themes are (re)produced and transformed in short term and long term tourist memory. This chapter

addresses the objectives of this doctoral research by exploring the subjective aspects of mobile and site-based tourist experiences, examining how these experiences are perceived in situ and in memory.

These four papers advance knowledge on the subjective experiences of tourists. The final chapter synthesizes the key findings of these four manuscripts, outlining the contributions of each paper in meeting the overall purpose of this doctoral research. The practical and theoretical implications of this combined research effort are considered before discussing the limitations and future directions that emerged on educational tourist experiences and experience sampling.

## **Chapter 2: The Dimensions of the Tourist Experience**

Citation: Quinlan Cutler, S. & Carmichael, B. (2010) The dimensions of the tourist experience. In M. Morgan, P. Lugosi & B. Ritchie (Eds) *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives* (pp. 3-26). Bristol: Channel View Publications.

### **Introduction**

Experiences are argued to be subjective, intangible, continuous, and highly personal phenomena (O'Dell, 2007). The word 'experience' can refer to two different states: the moment by moment lived experience (*Erlebnis*) and the evaluated experience (*Erfahrung*) which is subject to reflection and prescribed meaning (Highmore, 2002). The evaluated experience is the focus of much of the tourism experience research where experiences are defined as being within a person who is engaged with an event on an emotional, physical, spiritual, or intellectual level (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), leaving these individuals with memorable impressions (Gram, 2005).

This chapter provides an overview of the tourist experience by tracing the various perspectives and dimensions of this topic in the current research focusing on tourism as a discrete experience subject to anticipation, recollection and reflection. This review of the multiple definitions and development of the tourist experience literature leads to the creation of a tourist experience model. This model presents the elements involved in the tourist experience, in order to help readers achieve a clearer understanding of the dynamic nature of this phenomenon.

## **Multiple Definitions of the Tourist Experience**

The tourist experience is a complicated psychological process. Providing a succinct definition is a difficult task as this can encompass a complex variety of elements (Jennings, 2006; Selstad, 2007). Tourist experiences are arguably different from everyday experiences (Cohen, 1979, 2004; Graburn, 2001; Vogt, 1976). The act of tourism offers complex experiences, memories, and emotions related to places (Noy, 2007), and it is arguably this experience of place or self in place that the individual seeks. Stamboulis and Skayannis (2003), focusing on on-site experiences, define the tourist experience as an interaction between tourists and destinations, with destinations being the site of the experience and tourists being the actors of the experience. Larsen (2007) argues that the tourist experience should be defined as a past travel-related event which was significant enough to be stored in long-term memory. O'Dell's (2007) summary of arguments on the tourist experience points out that experiences involve more than the tourist. Tourism industries are also part of the generation, staging, and consumption of experiences through the manipulation of place and presentation of culture.

Li (2000) reviews the various different definitions of the tourist experience which include a contrived and created act of consumption, a response to problems with 'ordinary' life, a search for authenticity, and a multifaceted leisure activity. The only thing Li found to be common for all definitions is that the tourist experience is significant for the individual. Selstad (2007) defines the tourist experience as a novelty / familiarity combination involving the individual pursuit of identity and self-realization. However, individuals experience similar activities and settings in different ways (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Therefore, as the tourist

experience is highly subjective, it can only be interpreted by reflecting on the specific individuals involved and the specific settings where experiences take place (Jennings, 2006). Most of these definitions refer to the experience at the destination, however the experience of a tourism event begins before the trip in the planning and preparation phases and continues after the tourist returns through the recollection and communication of the events which took place (Clawson & Knetsch, 1966).

### **Development of the Tourist Experience Literature**

In order to interpret the tourist experience, researchers need to review and evaluate the various qualities of this phenomenon. The tourist experience grew to be a key research issue in the 1960s (Uriely, 2005), becoming popular in the social science literature by the 1970s (Quan & Wang, 2004). At this time, the tourist experience was discussed by authors, such as MacCannell (1973) who related it to authenticity and Cohen (1979) who explored experience in terms of phenomenology. In the 1990's, researchers began using experience-based research approaches in an effort to develop a better understanding of the tourist experience (Andereck et al., 2006). These approaches involve tourists reporting thoughts and feelings in diaries or by responding to questions. Though results tended to point to the dynamic nature of experiences, they produced little understanding of the meanings involved (Andereck et al., 2006).

Mannell & Iso-Ahola (1987) discuss three dominant perspectives used to examine leisure and tourist experience: the definitional approach; the post-hoc satisfaction approach; and the immediate approach. Though the authors argued in 1987 that there is limited research using a definitional approach in tourist experience studies, this is no longer the case. Table 2.1



summarizes the definitional approaches used over the past two decades that focus on the identification of elements and dimensions of the tourist experience.

Table 2.1 Overview of definitional approach research in tourism experiences

<b>Definitional focus</b>	<b>Example of representative academic articles</b>
Phases of experience	(Botterill & Crompton, 1996)
Modes of experience	(Cohen, 2004)
Role of authenticity	(Hayllar & Griffin, 2005; McIntosh & Prentice, 1999; Pearce, 2005; Ryan, 2003; Wang, 1999)
Relationships with self-identity	(Desforges, 2000; Galani-Moutafi, 2000; McCabe & Stokoe, 2004; Noy, 2004; Palmer, 2005; White & White, 2004)
Dimensions of specific tourist experiences	Wilderness (Patterson et al., 1998) Long haul travel (Noy, 2004; Uriely et al., 2002; White & White, 2004)
Role of narrative	(Cary, 2004; Noy, 2004, 2007)
Sacredness and spirituality	(Cohen, 2004; Graburn, 2001)
Skill formation and learning	(Hunt, 2000; Pearce, 2005; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Place and mobility	(Hayllar & Griffin, 2005; Larsen, 2001; Li, 2000)
Social relationships	(Trauer & Ryan, 2005)
Role of imagery	(Tuohino & Pitkänen, 2003)
Influential elements of experience	(Larsen, 2007; Nickerson, 2006)
Overview of tourist experience research areas	(Jennings & Nickerson, 2006; O'Dell, 2007; Quan & Wang, 2004; Uriely, 2005)

The post-hoc satisfaction approach is popular in the tourist experience research. This approach focuses on psychological outcomes by examining motivations (Andersen, Prentice, & Wantanabe, 2000; Ryan, 2002b), elements of satisfaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008; Gram, 2005; Hudson, 2002; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007; Prentice et al., 1998), and the assessment of experiences (Jackson, White, & Schmieder, 1996; Pritchard & Havitz, 2006).

The immediate approach examines the nature of on-site real time experiences. Though this is popular in leisure studies, due in part to the use of the Experience Sampling Method (see Hektner et al., 2007 for an overview of this technique), there are fewer studies focusing on tourism. Such tourism studies (see Arnould & Price, 1993; Borrie & Roggenbuck, 2001; McIntyre & Roggenbuck, 1998) concentrate on a specific activity or site rather than on the experience as a whole. However, much of the post-hoc satisfaction research is done with

visitors on site (see Andersen et al., 2000; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008; Gram, 2005; Oh et al., 2007; Prentice et al., 1998; Pritchard & Havitz, 2006), therefore it may be argued that these responses are related to real time experiences.

In reviewing the body of tourist experience literature, there seems to be a group of studies which fall outside of the previous three approaches discussed by Mannell & Iso-Ahola (1987). Tourist experience studies have also been undertaken from a business or attraction approach, focusing on consumer theory, the product offered, and the potential for managers to enhance tourist experiences (see Andersson, 2007; Beeho & Prentice, 1995; Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Mossberg, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Sternberg, 1997). These studies involve the evaluation of tourist sites, activities, and management techniques rather than a focus on the meaning of individual experiences. These four perspectives study the tourist experience in different ways, examining the various dimensions of experiences involved in tourism.

### **Dimensions of Experience: Phases, Influences, and Outcomes**

Though there is limited research combining the dimensions of the tourist experience, that which does exist uses frameworks based on the phases of experience, the influences on experience, or outcomes of experience.

The use of phases to examine tourist experiences is discussed by several authors (see Borrie & Roggenbuck, 2001; Botterill & Crompton, 1996; Fridgen, 1984; Graburn, 2001; Li, 2000). Using multiple phases to describe experience comes from leisure studies which argue that leisure is a multi-phased event (Rossman & Chlatter, 2000). A model presenting this phasing of experience was developed by Clawson and Knetsch (1966) and applied to tourism (see Cohen, 1979; Graburn, 2001). The Clawson and Knetsch model involves five distinct yet

interacting phases starting with anticipation, travel to site, on-site activity, return travel, and recollection. Studies in tourism indicate that experiences do change over time, demonstrating this multi-phase framing (Borrie & Roggenbuck, 2001). However, these models tend to focus on outside forces only, separating phases based on time and location.

The tourist experience is also framed by evaluating the influential factors involved in shaping the outcome of experience. In reviewing the literature on quality tourist experience, Nickerson (2006) argues that there are three interwoven influencing aspects related to this phenomenon: the traveller, the product (or destination), and the local population. The traveller arrives at a destination with ideas about the kinds of experiences which could take place. These ideas are influenced by an individual's social construction and include ideas or perceptions taken from media, product images, previous knowledge, expectations, and past travel experiences. Other influences include activities which the tourist participates in, the types of interactions the tourist has with various environments, and the informal social interactions which take place (Nickerson, 2006). The tourism product generally refers to experiences with tourism industries, the public sector, and formal cultural brokers (such as travel agents or tour guides). Poor experiences of services, such as transportation, accommodation and food service, could lead to an overall poor experience of a destination. The attitude and sense of place fostered by the local population can also have a significant effect on the tourist's experience (Nickerson, 2006). Informal host-guest social contact can be based on numerous factors, such as local development, the distribution of tourism benefits, and the quality of life of residents. Similarly, Mossberg (2007) focuses on the idea of themes as a basis for structuring the tourist experience, arguing that the major influences are physical environment, personnel, other tourists, and the products/souvenirs available. These influential

factors presented by Nickerson (2006) and Mossberg (2007) highlight the complex nature of tourist experiences.

The exploration of the criteria and outcomes involved in the tourist experience also frame the research. Larsen (2007) argues that the various conceptions regarding this area are too ambiguous and presents a threefold idea of the tourist experience based on expectations and events, which are constructed through memory, forming new expectancies. Hayllar & Griffin (2005) present a thematic analysis of the tourist experience of a historic district in Sydney, Australia. The data suggest that there are several essential characteristics of the tourist experience namely intimacy/relationships, authenticity, and the notion of place. It is also argued that visitors seek outcomes such as leisure, education and social interaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). McIntosh & Prentice (1999), in a study of cultural tourist experiences and authenticity, find that both affective and cognitive dimensions as well as personal dimensions need to be considered. Vogt's (1976) study on wandering youth finds that seeking experiences offering personal growth is a primary motive for travellers. The author concludes that travel allows for greater satisfaction of needs through experiencing diverse environments (physical settings), the ability to learn about themselves (self-identity) and the world (knowledge), and the ability to develop intense though transient relationships (social aspects).

Thus, it can be seen that previous research based on the study of different sites and tourist groups demonstrates that the tourist experience involves numerous elements. However, few researchers have attempted to analyse these elements as a whole (Ryan, 2003).

## **Tourist Experience Conceptual Model**

Figure 2.1 is based on the dominant definitional elements of the tourist experience found in the literature. The phasic nature is represented using Clawson and Knetsch (1966) five phase model, but also incorporates influences and personal outcomes. In this figure, the tourist experience is all that happens during a tourist event (travel to site, on-site activity, and return travel). That being stated, the anticipatory phase and recollection phase of the tourist experience are still presented, demonstrating how the tourist experience is planned and anticipated before a trip takes places and remembered long after a trip has finished. The anticipation and recollection phases also leak into the experience itself. This is based on the idea that during travel to a site, the tourist could still be in the process of developing and refining expectations of the destination just as return travel could involve reflection on the trip which has just taken place.

During the experience, three categories of influences are presented, involving those elements which are outside the individual. The physical aspects involve spatial and place-based elements of the destination, while social aspects encompass the various social influences on experience. The influence of products and services represent factors such as service quality, leisure activities available, and the type of tourist related products available.

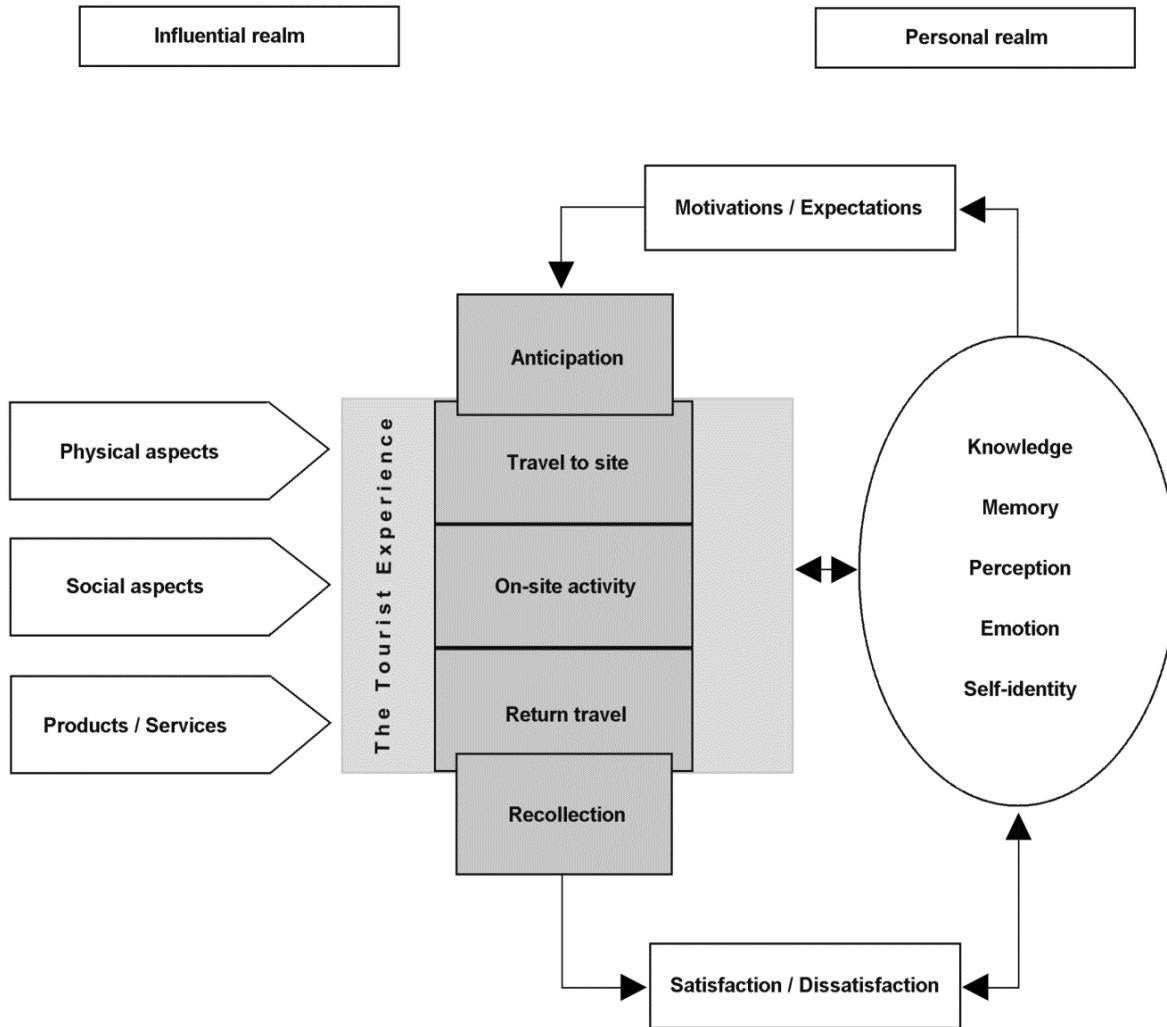


Figure 2.1 The tourist experience conceptual model of influences and outcomes.

The various other elements of the model are taken from findings and conclusions found in the tourist experience literature. These are incorporated into the personal realm, which involves elements within an individual. The immediate outcomes of experience are argued to be related to the overall evaluation of the trip, which can be judged through satisfaction / dissatisfaction (Ryan, 2002a). This overall evaluation can affect and is affected by elements within the personal realm such as knowledge, memory, perception, emotion, and self-identity. Though these elements could be seen as outcomes, which can change and

develop after an experience through reflection and recollection, they can be impacted by the experience itself. These elements shape the experience, as tourists arrive at a destination with individual memories, perceptions of the place and people, knowledge about the world, and understandings of self (Ryan, 2003; Selstad, 2007). The personal realm then feeds into motivations and expectations for future experiences, providing a cycle of motivation/expectation, experience, and outcome. The remainder of this chapter will address each of the elements of the tourist experience presented in Figure 2.1 in more depth.

### **The Influential Realm**

The influential realm involves elements outside of an individual which can impact upon the experience of a destination. In Figure 2.1, these influential elements are categorized as physical aspects, social aspects, and products/services.

Physical aspects of destinations can be related to physical settings (natural and human made), spatial characteristics, and geographical features. These physical attributes are seen as an essential influential element in understanding tourist experiences (Hayllar & Griffin, 2005; McCabe & Stokoe, 2004; Ryan, 2002a). Mossberg (2007) stresses the importance of the physical environment in the tourist consumer experience, summarizing the literature in this area. The physical environment can facilitate activities, provide for social interactions, and influence perceptions of tourist organizations. The tourist is seen as being uprooted from everyday environments, motivated by the spatial and cultural characteristics of destinations (McCabe & Stokoe, 2004). Mossberg (2007) argues that tourism organizations do not yet fully understand the ways in which the physical environment can affect visitor behaviour and experience. Pleasing physical aspects of destinations can lead to more positive evaluations of

experiences. As there is agreement that settings are important, this is seen as an area which has the potential to be manipulated by tourism industries in order to enhance and direct experiential dimensions of tourism (Mossberg, 2007; Prentice et al., 1998).

The social environment seems to be equally important in tourism experiences (Andereck et al., 2006; Hayllar & Griffin, 2005; Prentice et al., 1998; Selstad, 2007; Trauer & Ryan, 2005). Social aspects refers to the various social influences which can be present during tourist experiences including social settings, personal relationships, interactions with personnel, interactions with other tourists, and host/guest relationships. Mossberg (2007) summarizes some of the research regarding the involvement of other tourists and service personnel. Many experiences are in the presence of other people, who can influence levels of satisfaction and perceptions of quality. For example, a group of exciting and stimulating tourists will most likely enhance individual experiences. In fact, consumers can be argued to be co-producers of experiences as they are often necessary elements in the production of activities or events. This is reiterated by Anderreck et al. (2006) who argue that social interactions influence perceived experience quality.

The role of social aspects can extend beyond the evaluation of experiences. Some researchers have argued that social aspects influence each element of the experience as they colour individual understanding. Tourist experiences bring people into contact with other people (Selstad, 2007). Therefore, the experiences of the tourist are constantly mediated through social interactions and social relationships (Goffman, 1967 in Selstad, 2007). Li (2000) presents an understanding of the tourist experience as an aspect of cognition where social relationships contribute to development and personal growth. Therefore, the physical



and social aspects of a destination seem to permeate the experience, influencing the overall evaluation of a trip.

Stamboulis & Skayannis (2003) argue that tourist experiences can be seen as commodities related to the various products and services which enable the occurrence of experience. It can be argued that the core tourism product is experience (Prentice et al., 1998); however tangible products and tourism services (souvenirs, transportation, accommodation, facilities available, etc) influence the overall evaluation of a trip (Ryan, 2002a). The quality of products and services during the tourist experience is deemed to be an important component (Ryan, 2003). If the quality of a specific tourist product or service meets expectations, then the consumer is satisfied (Pearce, 2005), while poor quality products and services can lead to negative attitudes towards the destination (Oh et al., 2007). In tourism, products provide tangible symbols of consumption (Mossberg, 2007). de Rojas & Camarero (2008) present findings which indicate that the purchase of products intensifies the experience and is related to satisfaction. Products such as souvenirs can act as physical reminders of experiences which would otherwise remain intangible memories (Gordon, 1986 in Mossberg, 2007). Ryan (2002a) argues that part of the tourism product is the availability of services and activities which can satisfy the needs or desires of the individual for particular experiences. If individuals are motivated by adventure, then they will look to destinations which can offer active leisure pursuits. Similarly if an individual is motivated by relaxation, then passive services and activities (i.e. spa services) available at the destination can meet this need. Therefore, the type and quality of products and services available at a destination can heavily influence the tourist experience.

## **Personal Realm**

The personal realm encompasses all the elements of a tourist experience which are within the individual including motivation and expectation, satisfaction / dissatisfaction, knowledge, memory, perception, emotion, and self-identity.

### *Motivation and Expectation*

Much of the literature on the tourist experience highlights the importance of motivations and expectations as being related to the overall evaluation of the experience of a destination. Motivation is understood as the personal factors which influence the overall assessment of travel (Ryan, 2002a). Generally, motivations are discussed in terms of their relationship to tourist behaviour (Crompton, 1979), rather than tourist experiences. However, as motivation can be argued to contribute to the choices made and the experiences sought, it is an important element in the tourist experience. Researchers defining tourist motivations have generally done so by developing a list of reasons why people travel (see a summary of motivations in Table 2.2).

Tourist motivations are mainly characterized by the desire to escape (Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Graburn, 2001; Oh et al., 2007). The idea of escape equates to a push factor. Andersen et al. (2000) summarize the research on tourist motivation by discussing Crompton's push and pull factors. Push factors are motivations which provide the reason for leaving home, such as escape from everyday routine or relief from job stress. Pull factors are those which come from the destination, such as imagery of the landscape, activities offered, and possible personal benefits available which can satisfy the push motives. Cohen

(1979) argues that though motivations may be the reasons behind why people travel, they do not fully explain the tourist experience.

Table 2.2. A summary of motivations for tourist experiences

<b>Motivation</b>	<b>Source</b>
Escape	(Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Graburn, 2001; Oh et al., 2007)
Education	(Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Ryan, 2002a)
Relaxation	(Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Ryan, 2002a)
Adventure	(Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994)
Enhancement of relationships	(Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994)
Exploration of self	(Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Vogt, 1976)
Prestige	(Burton, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994)
Interpersonal interactions	(Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994)
Novelty	(Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994)
Recreation	(Fodness, 1994)
Health	(Fodness, 1994)
Regression	(Crompton, 1979)
Mastery	(Ryan, 2002a)

The focus of motivational research has been on satisfaction (Patterson et al., 1998). Therefore, research has focused on whether or not the experience met the needs or desires which motivated the individual to travel, which is highly related to the role of expectations in tourist experiences.

Expectations are defined as anticipated traits, formed beliefs, and predictions related to future events or states (Maddux, 1999 in Larsen, 2007). In much of the research, the role of expectation is generally related to the overall evaluation of experiences (Pearce, 2005; Ryan, 2003; see discussion in Vittersø et al., 2000). If expectations of experiences are met or exceeded, then satisfaction will occur. Dissatisfaction occurs when experiences do not meet expectations.

Expectations are also linked to more theoretical discussions concerning the tourist gaze (Urry, 2002). Urry uses the notion of the tourist gaze to conceptualize how a tourist – influenced by media, preconceived images and ideas, and past experiences – arrives at a destination with particular assumptions about what one will see and experience. These expectations are often sought out specifically, thereby confirming preconceptions about people or places. Therefore, expectations can colour experiential choices and understanding of place, influencing whether or not the experience is satisfying. The role of expectations in satisfaction is discussed in more detail in the following section.

### *Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction*

Satisfaction is generally discussed as an overall outcome of tourist experiences. However, as shown in Table 2.2, tourists are not motivated to travel to achieve ‘satisfaction’, but rather to escape, learn, relax, etc. Pearce (2005) describes satisfaction not as an end goal but as a post-experience attitude. In Fournier and Mick’s (1999) phenomenological study of consumer satisfaction, the authors present the complexities of this concept, arguing that satisfaction is:

a context-dependent process consisting of a multi-model, multi-modal blend of motivations, cognitions, emotions, and meanings, embedded in sociocultural settings, that transforms during progressive and regressive consumer-product interactions (Fournier & Mick, 1999, p. 16)

The debate over how consumers of experience find satisfaction has been long standing. In tourism, satisfaction has historically been seen as the congruence between expectation and experience (when experiences meet or exceed expectations) whereas dissatisfaction is perceived to be the gap between expectation and experience (Pearce, 2005;

Ryan, 1995). Many authors have questioned this approach to measuring satisfaction as it assumes satisfaction to be mainly based on expectations.

Otto and Ritchie (1996) examined satisfaction in tourism service experiences, finding several specific dimensions including hedonistic pursuits, safety and comfort, involvement in service delivery, and feelings of importance, which can be measured to better understand satisfaction. Arnould and Price (1993) observed that satisfaction in adventure rafting experiences was linked to communion with nature, connection with other people, and renewal of the self, noting that the relationship between pre-trip expectation and satisfaction was weak. These findings indicate that satisfaction is not a simple measure of the confirmation or disconfirmation of expectations, but is based on a more rich and personal evaluation of experiences reflected in emotions, relationships, and self-identity. Research also indicates that tourists have the ability to adapt to failed expectation as satisfaction can arise from other influential factors. Ryan (2002a) presents an argument that even disappointing experiences (broken down transportation, terrible meals, poor accommodation) could still lead to satisfaction as they can become trophies or stories of how the tourist overcame difficulties. Other authors voice concerns over that lack of research on the emotional value of tourism within the measure of satisfaction (2000). This is addressed by de Rojas & Camarero (2008) who define satisfaction as the evaluation of components and the feelings generated by cognitive and affective aspects of the product or service. The cognitive path involves the evaluation of quality and comparison with expectations, whereas the affective path begins when experiences reach or exceed expectations leading to feelings of pleasure. Though this approach does include affective elements, it fails to take into consideration emotion-based expectations and the evaluation of emotional elements of the experience compared to these

expectations. It also fails to acknowledge the potential emotional involvement in dissatisfaction (disappointment, sadness, or even anger).

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) explored consumer behaviour and argue that satisfaction is merely one component of experiences. Sensations, emotions, imagery, and other hedonic components are related to how consumers evaluate experiential aspects of consumption. This is in agreement with Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) research which emphasizes *flow* as the ideal outcome of leisure experiences, when the complete involvement in an activity results in enjoyment and pleasure. Though these arguments stress the need to go beyond satisfaction as a main outcome of the tourist experience, generally tourist events are linked to some sort of positive/satisfactory result or negative/unsatisfactory result. However, the definition of and factors involved in a satisfying outcome of a tourist experience require further discussion.

Ryan (2003) argues that the meaning of experience is also based on authenticity regarding what is being sought from the holiday. The concept of authenticity is rooted in the understanding of on-site tourist experience (Pearce, 2005), therefore it may seem strange that this element is not included in Figure 2.1. There are two reasons for this exclusion. Firstly, authenticity is understood as only being involved in the tourist experience *if* this is what is being sought from the experience. Pearce (2005) summarizes research on authenticity and discusses how many researchers view the search for authenticity as being relevant only to some tourists some of the time. In Cohen's (1979, 2004) discussion on modes of tourism, it can be argued that certain types of travel (recreational and diversionary modes) do not involve authenticity as the primary goal is pleasure rather than the search for realness and deeper meaning. Though some authors argue that authenticity is the goal of tourist experiences

(Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987), in looking at the motivations for travel (outlined previously in Table 2.2) this goal does not seem to be present. Motivations such as escape and relaxation can be of primary importance in tourist trips, therefore the evaluation of the authenticity of foods, performances, events, or objects is not necessarily considered by the tourist. Secondly, if authenticity is involved in the tourist experience, it can be seen as being related to the process of evaluating experiences (satisfaction / dissatisfaction). Hayllar and Griffin (2005) prize authenticity as an essential characteristic of the tourist experience in historic districts as tourists noted the authentic character of the site as important. Therefore authenticity becomes a way to measure overall satisfaction rather than an element in its own right. However, this argument seems to only be valid when discussing objective or constructed authenticity.

Table 2.3. Three approaches to authenticity in tourism (see Wang, 1999)

<b>Objective Authenticity</b>	<b>Constructive Authenticity</b>	<b>Existential Authenticity</b>
Authentic tourist experiences are related to the experience of authentic objects.	Authentic tourist experiences are centred on symbolic authenticity, related to how individuals perceive and interpret tourist objects.	Authentic tourist experiences are not based on objects, but rather on the personal feelings involved in tourist activities. Authenticity is related to the achievement of finding an authentic self or state of being.

In Wang's (1999) paper on authenticity, the author argues for various different applications, categorizing authenticity as being related either to objects or to experiences. Wang outlines three different approaches to authenticity in tourism (see Table 2.3).

Based on Wang's (1999) definitions, existential authenticity could be argued to be involved in all elements of the tourist experience if that leads to a real emotional or cognitive reaction. Even in the seeking of pleasure, the individual may be seeking authentic feelings of

pleasure, rather than those which are contrived. This would make authenticity almost synonymous with experience and it would therefore be encompassed within the personal realm.

### *Knowledge*

Knowledge is a cognitive aspect of the tourist experience which involves learning and education. There is an argument that all tourism involves experiential learning as it broadens our understanding of places and people (Li, 2000; Smith & Jenner, 1997). However, there is little research available on knowledge and learning in tourism, though this is deemed to be an important part of the experience (Li, 2000; McIntosh & Prentice, 1999; Ryan, 2003). Pearce (2005) argues that this is due to the limited commercial interest in how and what tourists learn as learning and reorganizing individual world views are not applicable to consumer purchases.

Much of the research associated with learning in tourism can be found in literature on the educational value of field trips (Ritchie et al., 2003). Several studies have identified specific skills and learning outcomes related to field work and travel experiences. In synthesizing the findings from the literature, four main categories of learning and skill development in tourist experiences emerge:

- Cognitive Development: discovery of knowledge and mental skills.
- Affective Development: discovery of feelings or emotional responses.
- Psychomotor Development: discovery of manual or physical skills.
- Personal Development: discovery of self.

The specific attributes outlined in the literature which fall within the four main categories of learning and skill development are listed in Table 2.4.



The attributes outlined in Table 2.4 demonstrate the potential educational and knowledge-based aspects of tourism. It is unclear whether or not these aspects are specifically sought out by the tourist or are simply a result of experiences or a combination of both. It is also unclear how knowledge and educational development relate to the evaluation of a tourist event. This lack of insight suggests that more specific research into the relationship between knowledge and the tourist experience is warranted.

Table 2.4. Skills and learning outcomes associated with tourist experiences.

<b>Cognitive Development</b>	
Communication skills	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Critical thinking skills	(Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Cultural learning and awareness	(Berwick & Whalley, 2000; Byrnes, 2001; Davidson-Hunt & Berkes, 2003; Li, 2000; Litvin, 2003; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Decision-making skills	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Environmental learning / Cognitive mapping	(Byrnes, 2001; Guy, Curtis, & Crotts, 1990; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992)
Geographic knowledge	(RoperASW, 2002)
General knowledge of history	(Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Global understanding	(Byrnes, 2001; Li, 2000; Vogt, 1976; Wilson, 1988)
Heightened awareness of home country	(Wilson, 1988)
Knowledge of world issues	(Li, 2000; Pearce & Foster, 2007; Wilson, 1988)
Linguistic skills	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Management of financial and material resources	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Problem solving skills	(Byrnes, 2001; Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Research skills	(Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Time management	(Pearce & Foster, 2007)
<b>Affective Development</b>	
Dealing with pressure and stress	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Making and maintaining relationships	(Arnould & Price, 1993; Pearce & Foster, 2007; Vogt, 1976)
Strengthening relationships	(Arnould & Price, 1993; Trauer & Ryan, 2005)
Patience	(Byrnes, 2001; Noy, 2004; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Responsibility	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Tolerance of others	(Noy, 2004; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
<b>Psychomotor Development</b>	
Information literacy (media and information technology)	(Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Mastery over tools	(Arnould & Price, 1993)
Physical skill enhancement	(Arnould & Price, 1993)
<b>Personal Development</b>	
Adaptability / Flexibility	(Byrnes, 2001; Gmelch, 1997; Hunt, 2000; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Independence	(Gmelch, 1997; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Interpersonal competence / Self-awareness	(Arnould & Price, 1993; Kuh, 1995; Noy, 2004; Pearce & Foster, 2007; Vogt, 1976; White & White, 2004)
Leadership	(Hunt, 2000; Kuh, 1995)
Maturity	(Gmelch, 1997; Noy, 2004)

Open-mindedness in considering other viewpoints	(Litvin, 2003; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Self confidence	(Gmelch, 1997; Hunt, 2000; Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Self-initiated activity / Self-motivation	(Pearce & Foster, 2007)
Self-transition	(Noy, 2004; White & White, 2004)
Teamwork	(Arnould & Price, 1993; Byrnes, 2001; Pearce & Foster, 2007)

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### *Memory*

Memory is an important element in the tourist experience (Larsen, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Noy (2007) argues that tourism practices are the resources for experience, which are accessible only in the form of representations through memory. Memories can be defined as filtering mechanisms which link the experience to the emotional and perceptual outcomes of a tourist event (Oh et al., 2007).

The discussion on memory and its relationship with experiences is not new. Fridgen (1984), in a review of the literature on environmental psychology and tourism, notes that memory interacts with the evaluation of tourist experiences. Negative events tend to fade while positive events are recalled with more accuracy. This importance of memory as an influential aspect of experience is reiterated by Selstad (2007) and Cary (2004). Though memory is seen as the outcome of experience, it can also be actively involved in the interpretation and transformation of experience through narration (Selstad, 2007). The narration of memory allows experiences to change, indicating that experiences are not closed items; they can continually evolve within tourist discourse. This is necessary to keep in mind, as tourists are not passive recipients of destination experiences, but are involved in the production of meaning (Selstad, 2007). Cary (2004) reiterates this argument, stating that there

are differences between actual experiences and the later representation of experiences in narratives, as these representations are based on memory.

In taking a cognitive approach to the study of tourist experience, one must consider the mental memory processes, as this memory will be all that remains after the experience has ended (Larsen, 2007). Therefore, it can be argued that memory is the most influential aspect of tourist experiences, as it can have a strong influence on other factors, such as perception.

### *Perception*

Perception is how sensory inputs are processed, organized, and interpreted (Larsen, 2007), and is defined as a process where meaning is attributed to an environment, event, or object (Reisinger & Turner, 2004). Perception is influenced by an individual's inner psychology including motivations, emotions, values, opinions, and worldviews as well as the characteristics of the environment.

Larsen (2007) argues that perception as a mental process allows us to evaluate our tourist experiences. The evaluation of experiences can result from the similarities and differences between perception and expectation (Reisinger & Turner, 2004) making perception a powerful determinant of tourist satisfaction (Ryan, 2003). The importance of perception is reiterated by Selstad (2007) who argues that perception is at the core of experience, interacting with our evaluation and memory of an event. The meaning we take from an experience is based on a perception which is socially constructed. The tourist carries with him / her pre-set ideas, values and knowledge which colour the interpretation of experiences (Selstad, 2007). Reisinger and Turner (2004) present three types of perception: those of other people; those of ones self; and those of perceptions. In tourism this involves

how tourists perceive others, how tourists perceive themselves, and how tourists perceive how they are perceived by others. These perceptions are consistently interacting with experiences to develop and challenge interpretations of events, activities, and objects making perception a vital element of the tourist experience.

### *Emotion*

The affective dimension of the tourist experience was discussed briefly in relation to satisfaction and knowledge, but warrants additional discussion regarding emotion in the tourist experience.

Tourism is argued to offer complex emotions related to destinations (Noy, 2007). These emotions are understood as outcomes of tourist events (Oh et al., 2007) which influence the evaluation of experiences (Chang, 2008; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Nettleton & Dickinson, 1993; Vittersø et al., 2000). Emotional responses are also argued to influence perceptions and memories of experiences (Chang, 2008; Trauer & Ryan, 2005). Arnould and Price (1993) studied rafting as an extraordinary experience and found that these experiences involve intense emotions. The authors argue that these emotional outcomes are highly related to the relationships that develop during the experience. Trauer and Ryan (2005) argue that emotional elements involving personal relationships create memory and these memories can reinforce intimacies where places are seen as a centre for emotional exchange. White (2005) summarizes the literature on emotion in tourism where emotional states can influence the relationship between people and places. This idea of emotional attachments to physical place is encompassed in the concept of sense of place.

Though sense of place is argued to involve spatial and cognitive elements (Farnum, Hall, & Kruger, 2005; Stokowski, 2002), it is most often linked with emotion (Stokowski, 2002). Kyle and Chick (2007) and Jorgensen and Stedman (2006) argue that this concept involves the emotions (place attachment), beliefs (place identity), and behavioural commitments (place dependence) of individuals to a geographic setting. In summarizing the research, both Farnum et al. (2005) and Stedman (2003) argue that place attachment – the emotional or affective bond which develops between humans and the environment – is a core concept in sense of place.

There are arguments in sense of place literature which relate to its applicability to the tourist experience. Hawkins and Backman (1998) studied the sense of place in visitor conflict and found that tourists experience a bond with the landscape. The authors even observed a degree of ownership amongst some visitors who resented other visitors they perceived to be less involved with the area. Kianicka et al. (2006) examined tourist and resident relationships to local landscape and found that the tourist's sense of place was shaped mainly by the characteristics of the area (i.e. beauty) and the leisure activities available. The depth of emotional attachment to places was consistent in both tourists and residents, as was the importance of environmental features (Kianicka et al., 2006). This then demonstrates that emotional bonds can form between the tourist and the destination. Given the potential emotional and spatial variables that can influence experience, it is interesting to note that this has not been given much attention in the tourist experience literature.

### *Self-identity*

Travel and tourism is seen as a transitional experience which can shape the way in which we understand our own identity (Desforbes; Palmer, 2005; Selstad; Vogt, 1976; White & White, 2004). Therefore, the tourist experience is something which can affect our everyday life through changes in self-identity and self-perception.

The general theme of self-identity involves questions related to the kind of person an individual perceives themselves to be. Desforbes (2000) relates the ideas of identity in tourism to Urry's (2002) and MacCannell's (1973) ideas of tourist experiences, arguing that the anticipation of trips, the experience of places, and the narratives presented upon return are involved in processes of redeveloping self-identity. Noy (2004) agrees, discussing how the understanding of experiences allow for stories of identity to be told and this can manifest into the validation of a transformed self. Vogt's (1976) study on wandering youth discusses how travel experiences are specifically sought out as opportunities for personal growth and transformation.

Identity involves the connections between individuals and society as well as individualistic senses of person (Desforbes, 2000). This is reiterated by Galani-Moutafi (2000) who argues that self-identity through the tourist experience is linked to the comparison between the individual and the 'other'. Therefore, the evaluation of the identity of other cultures is a way to then formulate the tourist's own identity.

The relationship between identity and travel has been empirically researched in long haul tourist groups. White & White (2004) studied older adults, finding that travel can facilitate transition during periods of life change, suggesting that tourism serves as a right of

passage as individuals move from an old way of life to new ways of living. Desforbes (2000) interviewed long haul tourists from the UK and concluded that the experiences of tourism are used to narrate and represent identity. More research is needed on the relationship between self-identity and the tourist experience within other tourist groups.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has provided an overview of the tourist experience, presenting definitions of this area and four dominant perspectives (definitional approach, post-hoc satisfaction approach, immediate approach, and business or attraction approach) which have developed through the examination of leisure and tourist experience research. This overview has demonstrated that though interest in the tourist experience is increasing in the academic literature in recent decades, there are still numerous areas which require further investigation to have a better understanding of this phenomenon. One under-researched area in tourism is the immediate or in the moment evaluation of experiences. Recent advances in mobile technology offer opportunities to tap into these tourism experiences while they are occurring. Currently, the authors are involved in a research project that uses such technologies within the educational tourism context.

The previous discussion of the various influences and outcomes presented in Figure 2.1 is based on a summary of those aspects most often associated with the tourist experience in the literature. However, this model is not meant to be all encompassing, as the tourist experience needs further investigation to discover and document the complexities and relationships of these various elements. More in depth research is needed on how physical settings, social settings, and product/service attributes can affect an experience. There is also



considerable disagreement in the literature as to how experiences are evaluated by the tourist.

More research is needed to:

- determine the extent to which satisfaction is an appropriate measure of experiences in tourism;
- examine how authenticity is involved in the tourist experience;
- evaluate how knowledge or learning relates to experiences;
- examine the importance of internal and external factors in influencing quality tourism experiences;
- understand the affective dimension of the tourist experience including how emotion interacts with expectations, perceptions, and the evaluation of events; and
- examine how positive and negative experiences vary for different types of tourists

This chapter intended to present the various dimensions involved in the tourist experience, providing a summary of those dimensions and relationships in the tourist experience conceptual model. Many of the ideas and arguments presented in this chapter will be addressed in more detail throughout this text.

## **Chapter 3: The Experience Sampling Method: Examining its Use and Potential in Tourist Experience Research**

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### **The Tourist Experience**

Tourist experiences are highly personal psychological phenomena based on the subjective interpretation of occurrences at tourism destinations (Larsen, 2007; Volo, 2009). Expectations, social interactions, and memory influence these experiences which are then interpreted and integrated into individual knowledge and recollection processes (Larsen, 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Volo, 2009), subjected to continual cycles of (re)production and (re)creation through narrative and storytelling (Cary, 2004; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

Researchers have pointed to gaps in knowledge and the need for different methodological considerations in tourist experience research. There is a call for tourist-centered research methods examining the voices, meanings, and experiences of individual encounters with destinations (Jennings et al., 2009; Selstad, 2007). Lindberg, Hansen and Eide (2014) argue for a multirelational approach that addresses four core components: (1) time as a dynamic and influencing phenomenon; (2) context related to physical, social, and cultural space; (3) the body which captures sensations, attention, and movement; and (4) the external and internal interactions which take place during a tourist experience. As early as 1987, Mannell and Iso-Ahola discuss how momentary on-site experiences are largely ignored

in tourism research. Twenty years later, Larsen (2007) reiterates this, suggesting that investigating immediate experiential elements in tourism would provide a more valid measure than recall methods. There is a loss of data between the on-site experience and its representation captured later (Cary, 2004). Everett (2010) argues that tourist meaning is shaped by seemingly insignificant moments and research should acknowledge the influence of spontaneous decision-making and emotional reactivity on tourist knowledge construction.

These various arguments regarding tourist-centred methods, core research components, and momentary research can all be addressed through Experience Sampling Method (ESM) designs. ESM captures momentary on-site real time data on subjective experiences of individuals imbedded within time and contextual factors. The purpose of this paper is to evaluate ESM and explore the feasibility of its use in tourist experience research.

### **The Experience Sampling Method (ESM)**

ESM captures information on the individual context and content of lived experiences over time (Hektner et al., 2007; Shiffman et al., 2008). Since the first published paper employing ESM (Csikszentmihalyi et al., 1977), it has steadily grown into a widely used and validated method to study individual perceptions of subjective states by gathering self-reports throughout a given time period (aan het Rat, Hogenelst, & Schoevers, 2012; Courvoisier, Eid, & Lischetzke, 2012; Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987). ESM involves three core features:

- in situ data collection in natural real world environments during naturally occurring situations;
- repeated real time momentary assessments over a given time period; and
- a focus on the subjective experience of momentary states.

The other common name for this method is Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA), which is a term more often used in psychology (aan het Rat et al., 2012). The two terms (ESM/EMA) are frequently used interchangeably (aan het Rat et al., 2012; Barrett & Barrett, 2001), however ESM is generally a technique that measures subjective states, while EMA studies can include physiological and/or behavioural measures (Hektner et al., 2007; Shiffman et al., 2008; Stone et al., 2007). Because this paper focuses on the sampling of subjective experiences in tourism, we will refer to the technique as ESM.

### *ESM design*

ESM involves a range of assessment goals and data collection techniques (questionnaires, programmable watches, beepers, ambulatory monitoring devices, telephones, diaries, personal digital assistants, mobile phones etc.) to investigate experience-based phenomena (Shiffman et al., 2008; Stone et al., 2007). A typical ESM study involves a short self-report (<2min) completed when randomly signalled 7-10 times per day over 7 days, with signals at least 15-20 minutes apart (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Hektner et al., 2007; Stone et al., 2007). Questions are tailored to each studies' research objectives but generally ask about physical and social context, activities, thoughts, feelings, and cognitive or motivational self-assessments (Hektner et al., 2007). For overviews on ESM (or EMA) designs see Connor Christensen et al. (2003), Hektner et al. (2007), Scollon et al. (2003), and Shiffman et al. (2008).

Traditionally there are three different sampling procedures used (Wheeler & Reis, 1991 provide a comprehensive overview): Interval contingent sampling is based on regular, predetermined time intervals; signal contingent sampling is based on fixed and/or random

schedules where participants remain unaware of when they will next be signalled; and event contingent sampling is based on completing a self-report when a pre-defined event occurs. In reviewing the literature, there is arguably a fourth sampling procedure. Place contingent sampling involves participants completing a self-report when they have reached a specific location or spatial marker (Jones, Hollenhorst, & Perna, 2003; McIntyre & Roggenbuck, 1998) allowing researchers to assess the same environmental or situational attributes amongst participants (Stewart & Hull, 1996). These four sampling procedures are involved in ESM designs which aim to address the limitations of other research techniques (Barrett & Barrett, 2001).

Firstly, ESM minimizes recall bias because it does not require the retrieval of information from memory. It captures on-site perceptions during experiences, which differ from recalled evaluations due to the processes of memory decay, alteration, and interpretation where the delay between the experience and the reporting of the experience affects accuracy (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Lee et al., 1994; Stone et al., 2007). Secondly, ESM is argued to have ecological validity, capturing real life situations in their naturally occurring environments rather than in laboratories, so the data apply to real world contexts (Scollon et al., 2003; Shiffman et al., 2008; Stone et al., 2007). Thirdly, ESM can study dynamic microprocesses by capturing multiple sampled points across time and space, allowing for the examination of complex interactions between person and context, including intra-subject variation in different situations and inter-subject variation within the same situation (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987; Scollon et al., 2003; Stewart & Hull, 1996). These core benefits account for ESM's widespread use but as with all methods, there are concerns.

Table 3.1. A summary of ESM research findings on compliance and response rate relationships with participant and time-based variables.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Research finding</b>
Behaviour	High novelty seeking behaviour and poly drug use linked with nonresponse (Messiah, Grondin, & Encrenaz, 2011)
Demographics	No significant relationship between compliance and demographics (Courvoisier et al., 2012; Hartley et al., 2014)
Mood	Tiredness associated with lower compliance rates (Borrie, Roggenbuck, & Hull, 1998; Courvoisier et al., 2012) Tense mood associated with lower compliance rates (Courvoisier et al., 2012)
Psychopathology	Increased scores in schizotypy, depression, and hypomania increase likelihood of nonresponse (Silvia et al., 2013) No significant relationship between compliance and psychosis or symptom severity (Hartley et al., 2014)
Sex	Men are less likely to respond to signals than women (Messiah et al., 2011; Silvia et al., 2013)
Study Period	Lower response at the end of study period (Courvoisier et al., 2012; Reid et al., 2009) Lower response at the beginning and end of study period (Messiah et al., 2011; Silvia et al., 2013)

Compliance measures whether a participant responds to assessment signals and whether a participant completes all assessment questions (Stewart & Hull, 1996). Low compliance rates in ESM studies can bias the understanding of experiences (Shiffman et al., 2008). Table 3.1 summarizes factors found to be related to ESM compliance rates. Sex, behaviour, and mood are associated with compliance with some conflicting findings on psychopathology symptoms. In investigating missed signals, Silvia et al. (2013) found that participants with higher feelings of enthusiasm during one signal were significantly less likely to respond to the next signal, hypothesizing that engaging in a fun activity might interfere with completing self-reports. Several studies found lower compliance rates at the end of study periods.

Another concern is balancing intrusiveness with a good coverage of experiences though Borrie, Roggenbuck, and Hull (1998) argue that ESM could be seen as less intrusive because it does not involve the presence of a researcher. Mittelstaedt (2001) reported that 90%

of participants would be willing to do another ESM study, indicating that the method was not viewed as overly burdensome. Cerin, Szabo, and Williams (2001) studied signalling during challenging experiences, finding that ESM did not significantly affect negative mood patterns.

Reactivity is when the act of assessment alters experiences (Shiffman et al., 2008). ESM participants are subject to repeated sampling which may increase their awareness or sensitivity to moods or experiences over time, altering the reporting on these elements (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Borrie et al., 1998; Scollon et al., 2003; Wheeler & Reis, 1991). Yet, based on reviews of the literature, Hormuth (1986) and Stewart and Hull (1996) argue that enhanced self-awareness could improve self-report accuracy. ESM participants have to be aware of and able to communicate their conscious experience (Barrett & Barrett, 2001). The degree to which reactivity affects research objectives has not yet been directly tested though Shiffman et al. (2008) found little or no evidence of reactive effects reported in the literature.

Another concern is that ESM does not address how immediate experiences are cognitively organized into knowledge (Conner Christensen et al., 2003). This is why many ESM studies include a post-experience method. Each research technique provides only one way of viewing a research problem which is why multiple methods collecting different types of data are important in social science research (Hormuth, 1986; Mittelstaedt, 2001).

Other possible challenges discussed in the literature are those of self-selection bias (Cerin et al., 2001), accessibility and special populations (Hartley et al., 2014; Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013), participant attrition (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Conner Christensen et al., 2003; Hektner et al., 2007; Scollon et al., 2003) and the involvement of participants in their own data collection (Hormuth, 1986). As with all methods, researchers must consider both the benefits and limitations of their approach. However, the richness of data obtained on

experiences across time and context has made ESM a worthwhile and well used investigation method (Hektner et al., 2007; Wheeler & Reis, 1991).

### *Digital ESM and the Smartphone*

In the last 15 years, ESM has had a technological rebirth, moving from pagers with stacks of forms to digital technology (see comprehensive overviews by Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Scollon et al., 2003). The digitization of ESM designs can accurately track compliance (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Scollon et al., 2003), provide more control over timing options for signalling (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Conner Christensen et al., 2003; Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013), offer participants options through snooze or skip functions (Doherty, Lemieux, & Canally, 2014; Quinlan Cutler, Carmichael, & Doherty, 2014), and provide flexibility in self-report design which can accommodate both closed and open ended questions, decision trees to trigger questions, and assessment personalization (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013; Reid et al., 2009). Data collected can be directly transferred to analysis software reducing human error and time (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Conner Christensen et al., 2003; Hektner et al., 2007; Scollon et al., 2003). Recent technological developments have led to the possibility of using smartphones as an ESM tool (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). Research methods using smartphones are still rare in social science (Raento, Oulasvirta, & Eagle, 2009) with few ESM studies involving designs which expand beyond the use of calls or texts (see Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013).

Smartphones combine the functionality of hand held computers with advanced communication technologies, and additional features able to capture sound, photographs, videos, locations, and movement (Dickinson et al., 2014; Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). Mobile



phone use is a socially accepted and common place activity integrated into daily experiences in both developing and developed countries (Srivastava, 2005; Tussyadiah, 2014a), making this a less burdensome (Scollon et al., 2003) and relatively invisible data collection tool compared to handheld computers or paper forms (Koro-Ljungberg et al., 2008; Raento et al., 2009). The possibility of remote communication also minimizes researcher-participant contact reducing participant apprehension (Raento et al., 2009). Koro-Ljungberg et al. (2008) reflected on ESM using mobile phones and answering machines, arguing that the absence of the researcher can shape the data. They found that some participants personalized their interactions and left messages as if in conversation.

Remote data transmission can allow for location independence, where the researcher and participant do not have to be in the same place (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). MacKerron and Mourato's (2013) large scale ESM study on environmental links in subjective wellbeing recruited participants throughout the United Kingdom through Apple's App store. Precise location was gathered for each self-report using satellite positioning (GPS). GPS and other automated data capture can be recorded without participant action. This passive data collection can be used to track participants or trigger sampling in place contingent sampling designs, allowing for flexibility in adapting questions to spatial contexts. However, consent documents need to be very clear regarding ethical issues surrounding the possible uses of automated data capture (Raento et al., 2009). Doherty et al. (2014) piloted ESM smartphone software with automated GPS and accelerometer data capture to study perceived health benefits. The method was not seen as burdensome by participants who reported skipping prompts due to a lack of change in experience or environment since the last self-report, rather than due to intrusiveness.

Smartphones can present some challenges in research design, such as the need for custom-written software (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Hektner et al., 2007). However, the widespread use of ESM has led to the streamlined development of programs (see Conner, 2013 for smartphone software providers). As with all wireless technology, there is a privacy risk involving the possible theft or hacking of data that needs to be addressed through password protection and encryption (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013; Raento et al., 2009). There are also concerns surrounding the possibility of technological error through lost data connections, corrupted data or software, and limited coverage areas if using internet browsers or GPS (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Hektner et al., 2007; Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013; Raento et al., 2009).

The research tool should be the participant's main cell phone, rather than using a secondary tool (Raento et al., 2009). This can present challenges if participants have differing data/call plans or operating systems (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013) and requires a high level of ownership and technological literacy in the population under study (Kuntsche & Labhart, 2013). However, smartphones are a widely used and steadily growing technology, making it an increasingly accessible research tool (Dickinson et al., 2014). In using personal smartphones, evidence suggests that people can have an emotional attachment to these items (Srivastava, 2005). Tussyadiah (2014a) argues that mobile phones are associated with anthropomorphism, where users attribute humanlike traits to these devices. In social science research, the potential implications of this personal relationship between subject and smartphone have yet to be investigated.

The lack of ESM studies in tourism experience research is puzzling given its long history in leisure and recreation. Through an extensive search in the tourism literature, we found only a handful of ESM studies, with just three based on multi-day tourist experiences. Borrie & Roggenbuck (2001) examined wilderness experiences with day and overnight visitors, finding different dynamic and evolving states of mind related to emotions and personal meaning associated with on-site tourist environments. These findings indicate that pre and/or post experience methods may not be able to capture the perceptual changes and dynamic nature of experiences at natural sites. Delle Fave, Bassi and Massimini (2003) examined the perceptions and quality of high altitude rock climbing experiences, finding differences between risk and challenge in adventure sport and opportunities for personal development. Quinlan Cutler et al (2014) examined mobile versus destination experiences, highlighting perceptions of personal growth, identity, and pain. Overall the lack of ESM designs in tourism research leaves much to be explored.

### **Research Methods investigating ESM**

The purpose of this paper is to examine the operationalisation of ESM and evaluate the methodological implications of this data collection procedure in tourist experience research. To do this, we pulled data from a broader study investigating momentary and memorable tourist experiences and explored those data for ESM related material.

## *Participants*

An opportunity sample of 21 upper year Canadian university students on an educational tour in Peru were originally involved in the wider ESM study but data from three participants were eliminated due to technical issues, leaving 13 female and 5 male participants. Table 3.2 outlines the trip itinerary. The group was together for the nine day trip with the exception of day 6-8 when 15 participants hiked the Inca Trail while three participants stayed in Cusco. All names of participants have been changed to protect privacy.

Table 3.2. Peru trip itinerary

Day 1	Flight from Lima to Puno, overnight in Puno
Day 2	Lake Titicaca boat tour to Taquile Island then Amantani Island, overnight in Amantani
Day 3	Lake Titicaca boat tour to Uros Island then Puno, overnight in Puno
Day 4	Bus from Puno to Cusco, overnight in Cusco
Day 5	Bus tour to Ollantaytambo and Sacred Valley, overnight in Cusco
Day 6	Bus to Inca Trail, overnight camping (three participants remained in Cusco)
Day 7	Inca Trail, overnight camping (three participants in Cusco)
Day 8	Inca Trail to Machu Picchu (three participants travel to Machu Picchu) returning to Cusco
Day 9	Flight from Cusco to Lima

## *Procedures*

The data sets used to examine the mechanics of ESM include: ESM data, semi-structured interview data, and post trip email survey data. To benefit from a greater flexibility in ESM design procedures and to create a more portable and usable data collection tool for the participant, a programmer was hired to develop ESM software for smartphones. Figure 3.1 provides a visual example of this ESM software. Participants were trained on and provided with smartphones for the duration of the trip. A research assistant accompanied the participants to aid in trouble-shooting and to carry a large portable battery for charging in

remote locations.

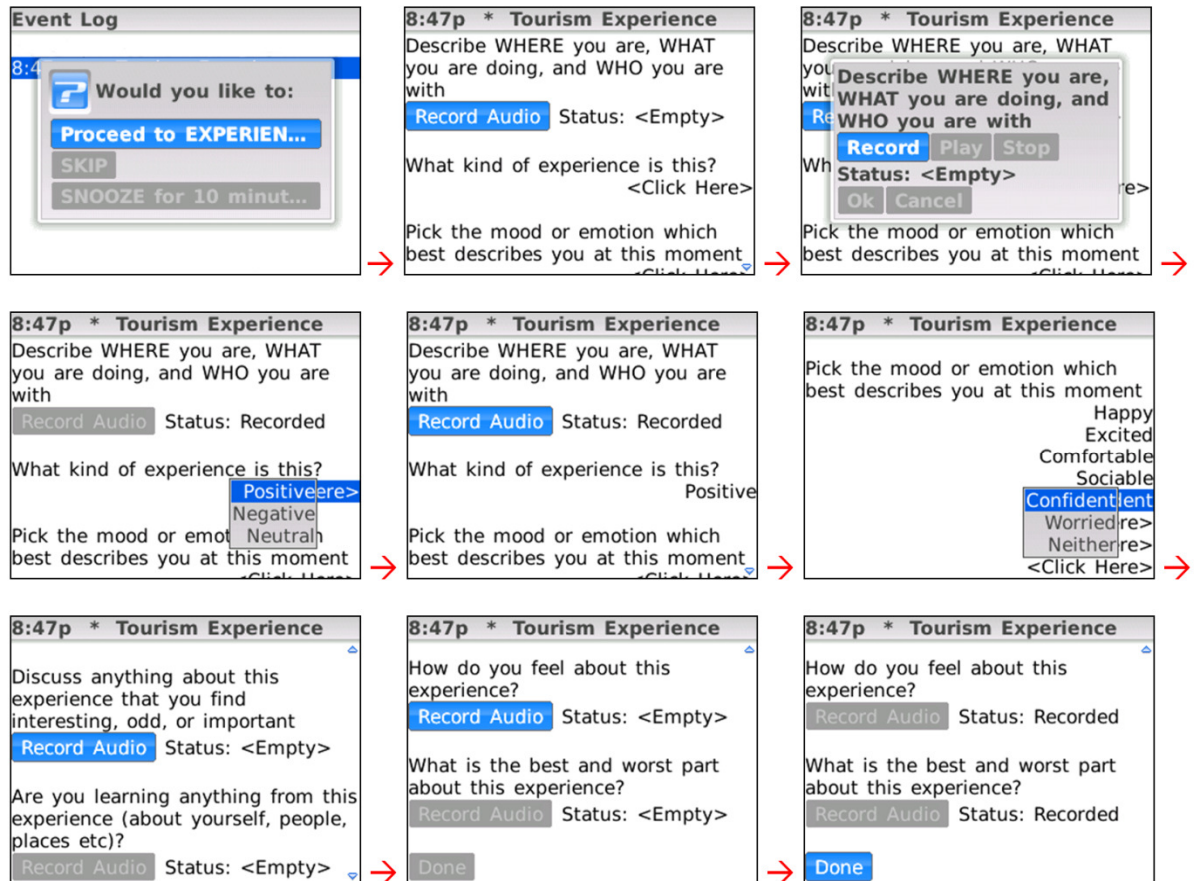


Figure 3.1. Screen shots of software for a signal contingent self-report.

The ESM design involved two sampling procedures. Event contingent sampling captured moments when participants felt they were having a significant experience. This definition was left open to interpretation to empower participants to decide what was significant to them. Signal contingent sampling ran during normal awake times (approx. 8am to 10pm) based on a randomized formula with at least 60 minutes between signals. The program included options for participants to skip or snooze a signal for 10 minutes. Because there was potential for self-reports to take longer than 2-3 minutes, participants were signalled

five times per day to address participant burden (Conner Christensen et al., 2003; Hektner et al., 2007; Scollon et al., 2003).

The act of collecting data was similar to talking and texting on a mobile phone, making it a less conspicuous process for participants. The self-report involved five open-ended questions answered via voice recordings to capture discussions on immediate experiences. Answering questions with a verbal response was thought to allow for more open expression (Lee et al., 1994), reduce potential reflection time (it is quicker to talk than to type), and reduce limits on response lengths that might otherwise be inferred by text box size. The questions asked about location, activity, and social context; interesting, odd or important experiences taking place; learning experiences; emotional experiences; and the best and worst part of current experiences. Participants were also asked to choose the option that best corresponded to their current mood using drop down menus which presented choices based on dichotomies of overall positive/overall negative, happy/sad, bored/excitement, comfortable/uncomfortable, sociable/unsociable, confident/worried, confused/clear, relaxed/stressed, involved/detached, and frustrated/calm. Mood questions aimed to capture lower intensity ongoing affective states while the open-ended question on emotion aimed to capture momentary emotional reactions to experiences.

To determine if there were any recollected perceptions of ESM, data from post-trip methods were used. In the original study, semi structured in-depth interviews were done three to four months after participants returned from Peru to collect data on short term tourist experience recollection. Participants were asked to share their thoughts about trip experiences, stories of their trip, and memories of Peru. Open-ended email surveys were conducted 16-17 months after participants returned from Peru to capture long term recollection. Survey

questions repeated those asked in the interviews. Email was the best way to reconnect with participants, many of whom had finished university and moved to other regions or countries since completing the initial ESM data collection.

### *Analysis*

All verbal data captured in the ESM program were transcribed and imported into qualitative data analysis software (NVivo) along with transcribed interview data and post trip email surveys. Qualitative data content which related to the research design was analysed to examine the momentary perceptions and memories related to ESM. Quantitative data on mood and ESM log data for each self-report was imported into statistical analysis software (SPSS) where an algorithm was used to transform voice recording file size into seconds recorded. These quantitative data were analysed to better understand the operationalization of the ESM.

## **Results: ESM design**

### *Experience Sampling Method*

During the nine day trip, 18 participants logged 892 self-reports with 57% ( $N=509$ ) being signal contingent and 28% ( $N=248$ ) event contingent. There were data transfer errors with the remaining 15% ( $N=135$ ) where only voice files were transferred without associated log data. For these self-reports, time and date information were manually entered based on voice file data and overall positive/overall negative mood was determined using verbal discussions on emotional experiences. The sampling type and all other mood dichotomies remained unknown.

The software recorded 23 skipped self-reports but did not log snoozed or unanswered signals (if any). The 18 participants should have been signalled a total of 810 times during the trip. There were 509 signal self-reports leading to a compliance rate of 63%, but this ignores the unknown self-reports. If we assume these have a similar sampling rate as known self-reports (248 event vs 509 signal or 1:2), this leads to a compliance rate of 74%. This is more consistent with other ESM studies (see Courvoisier et al., 2012; Doherty et al., 2014; Reid et al., 2009; Silvia et al., 2013).

Skipped self-reports were higher on day 7 (30%,  $N=7$ ) and 8 (22%,  $N=5$ ) but there were more event sampling self-reports initiated on day 7 (17%,  $N=43$ ). Overall, nine self-reports were skipped within a 20 minute window before or after an event self-report. Compliance in assessment completion showed 84% ( $N=753$ ) of self-reports were fully completed, 10% ( $N=89$ ) had one missed element, and 6% ( $N=50$ ) had two or more missed elements. To examine non-compliance, we grouped the skipped self-reports with self-reports missing two or more elements ( $N=73$ ). Figure 3.2 shows the number of non-compliant self-reports throughout the trip, demonstrating a peak in non-compliance on the first and seventh day.

There were significant differences found comparing self-report type by location ( $\chi^2(4, N=757)=16.31, p=.003$ ). Event self-reports were more frequent in natural areas (33%,  $N=82$ ) and on transportation (23%,  $N=57$ ) but less frequent in urban areas (23%,  $N=58$ ) compared to signal self-reports (35%,  $N=176$ ).



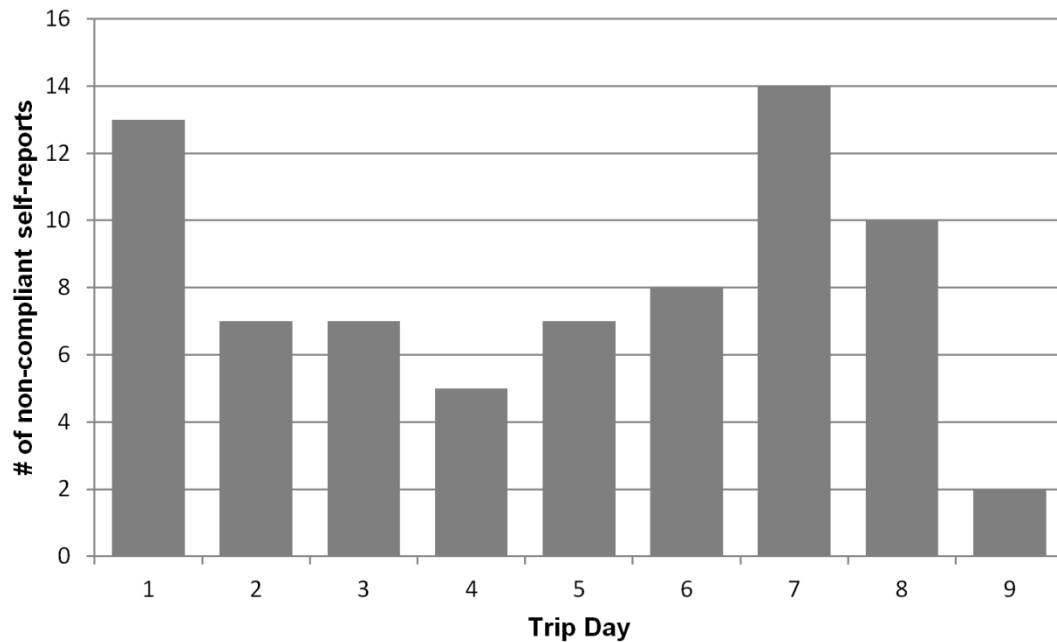


Figure 3.2. The number of non-compliant self-reports by trip day.

### Voice recording data

Each self-report has up to five voice recordings. In total there were 4,221 voice recordings from 883 self-reports (the remaining nine contained only quantitative mood data) leading to 18h 43m 23s of qualitative data. Table 3.3 provides examples of voice recording responses to ESM questions. Technical errors occurred in 8% ( $N=326$ ) of recordings where participants were cut off before finishing sentences. Transcription difficulties occurred in 10% ( $N=427$ ) of recordings where there were one or more unidentifiable words.

Table 3.3. Total number, mean length, and examples of qualitative ESM verbal data in self-reports.

Question	N	Mean length (and range)
Describe where you are, what you are doing, and who you are with <i>We are in the centre square of the island Taquile. I'm with half our group and half are still walking and we're just chilling here. I'm taking a lot of pictures. (Hannah, Day 2)</i> <i>I'm currently sitting on the bus with the whole group, I'm sitting beside Emily and we are maybe about half an hour into our six hour bus ride and we are driving through a very rural part and I thought it would be interesting to log because it's quite, quite different from the city, the houses are significantly more run down, there's a lot of garbage everywhere, like spilt all over the ground, the houses look like they're crumbling and I heard someone describe it as looking like a war zone. (Olivia, Day 4)</i>	875	17s (5-47s)
Discuss anything about this experience that you find interesting, odd, or important <i>Interesting, everybody seems to be, some people seem pretty tired, I don't know I'm kind of getting pumped up for this thing, looking forward to it (Tom, Day 5)</i> <i>It's really crazy how the porters got here so quickly and had time to set up the tent and get the food ready and everything and the amount of stuff that they actually carry on their back, two porters, two cooks, two assistant cooks and two guides, four guides and yeah it's really interesting it's really informative, and really really awesome. (Rebecca, Day 6)</i>	858	20s (6-52s)
Are you learning anything from this experience? <i>I need more exercise, I need to acclimatize better (laughs). (Rebecca, Day 2)</i> <i>We learned a lot from this experience. Our guide gave us a bit of, a bunch of tips about the culture afterwards. He taught us a bunch of things that were really interesting. Like they have three main rules on this island, don't be lazy, don't steal, and don't lie and I think those are important things for any culture. And I think that's good for their country. He also taught us about their political structure a little bit, and he said that every year they have an election and they do their election by show of hands, which is very simple, and they said it's because nobody has paid for the election. They don't take handouts from Peru, even though the Peru government pays for teachers to come here. (Victoria, Day 2)</i>	821	15s (3-44s)
How do you feel about this experience? <i>I'm a little bit... confident I am also a little bit worried. We've got 5 km, my feet are killing, blisters are hurting and... I can do it though, to the destination, got a target to go towards so we'll make it. (Heather, Day 8)</i> <i>it's been an okay experience, it kind of feels stressful cause you don't really want to be blatantly ripped off but you wanna, I just wanna pay a fair price, I want to know that my prices what it's worth, and it's fun to bargain a bit but you also feel kind of bad bargaining too much because I obviously have so much more than I ever would need and my money can go a lot further here and be more helpful but it's not a nice feeling to know that you're getting kind of ripped off. (Olivia, Day 5)</i>	833	12s (3-38s)
What is the best and worst part about this experience? <i>Best thing about our trip I'm learning a lot from our tour guide, worst part is I'm still not feeling well (Victoria, Day 4)</i>	834	14s (4-42s)

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*The best part of this is seeing everyone, or seeing all the different vendors, how they're set up. Seeing all the different items that they have for sale. The worst part is probably that we didn't have too much time to look at all the stuff so I didn't get a chance to look at everything. And... worst part is that we had to leave so soon and we're going to have to take another hour bus ride to get to lunch. I was actually pretty kind of hungry, before we went to the market, I thought we were going to go there, and now we have to wait another hour. (Amber, Day 4)*

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Mean self-report recording length was 1m 16s, ranging from 3s to 5m 47s. Figure 3.3 shows mean self-report recording lengths over the nine day trip. An analysis of variance showed statistical significance in daily mean length,  $F(8, 874)=2.5, p=.009$ . A Bonferoni post-hoc test indicated that self-reports on day 9 were significantly shorter than those on day 2 ( $p=.03$ ) and day 4 ( $p=.007$ ). Self-report recording lengths also varied significantly by location ( $F(4, 878)=4.1, p=.003$ ). A Bonferoni procedure showed that self-reports on transportation were significantly longer (87s) than those in natural areas (69s,  $p=.002$ ) and urban areas (74s,  $p=.036$ ). In examining specific destinations, self-reports were longest while on Taquile Island (90s,  $N=25$ ) and Uros Island (83s,  $N=12$ ). The shortest self-reports were recorded at the Sun Gate overlooking Machu Picchu (72s,  $N=12$ ), on the Inca Trail (72s,  $N=214$ ), at Machu Picchu (63s,  $N=25$ ), and in Lima (62s,  $N=46$ ).

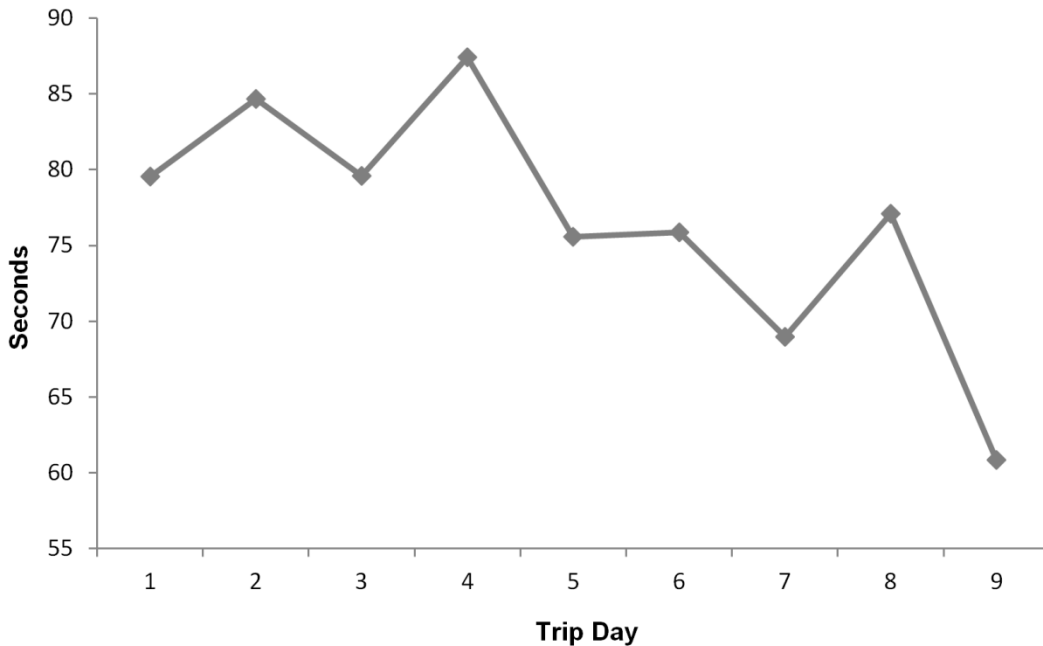


Figure 3.3. Mean length of verbal self-report data on each trip day.

#### Quantitative mood data

Figure 3.4 illustrates reported mood fluctuations during the trip. Positive moods peaked on day 2 (lake Titicaca and Amantani Island), day 5 (Ollantaytambo and the sacred valley), day 6 (first day of Inca Trail for 15 participants) and day 8 (visit to Machu Picchu). Less positive moods were reported on day 7 (hiking day on Inca Trail for 15 participants). Five mood dichotomies showed significant differences in reported moods by trip day: Overall positive/overall negative,  $\chi^2(16, N=883)=56.2, p<.001$ ; excited/bored,  $\chi^2(16, N=747)=98.1, p<.001$ ; comfortable/uncomfortable,  $\chi^2(16, N=745)=75.99, p<.001$ ; sociable/unsociable,  $\chi^2(16, N=742)=60.21, p<.001$ ; relaxed/stressed,  $\chi^2(16, N=738)=44.78, p<.001$ ; and involved/detached,  $\chi^2(16, N=738)=46.79, p<.001$ . In determining where the differences lay, participants reported more overall positive and excited

moods on day 2 and fewer on day 9. For the other mood dichotomies, day 7 showed the most difference in mean, where participants reported less feelings of comfort, socialness, relaxation, and involvement.

Participants reported more positive moods in rural settings. When looking at specific locations in Peru, the most positive moods were reported at the Sun Gate, Uros island, and Amantani island. The least positive moods were reported during travel from Machu Picchu to Cusco, in Lima, and on Lake Titicaca.

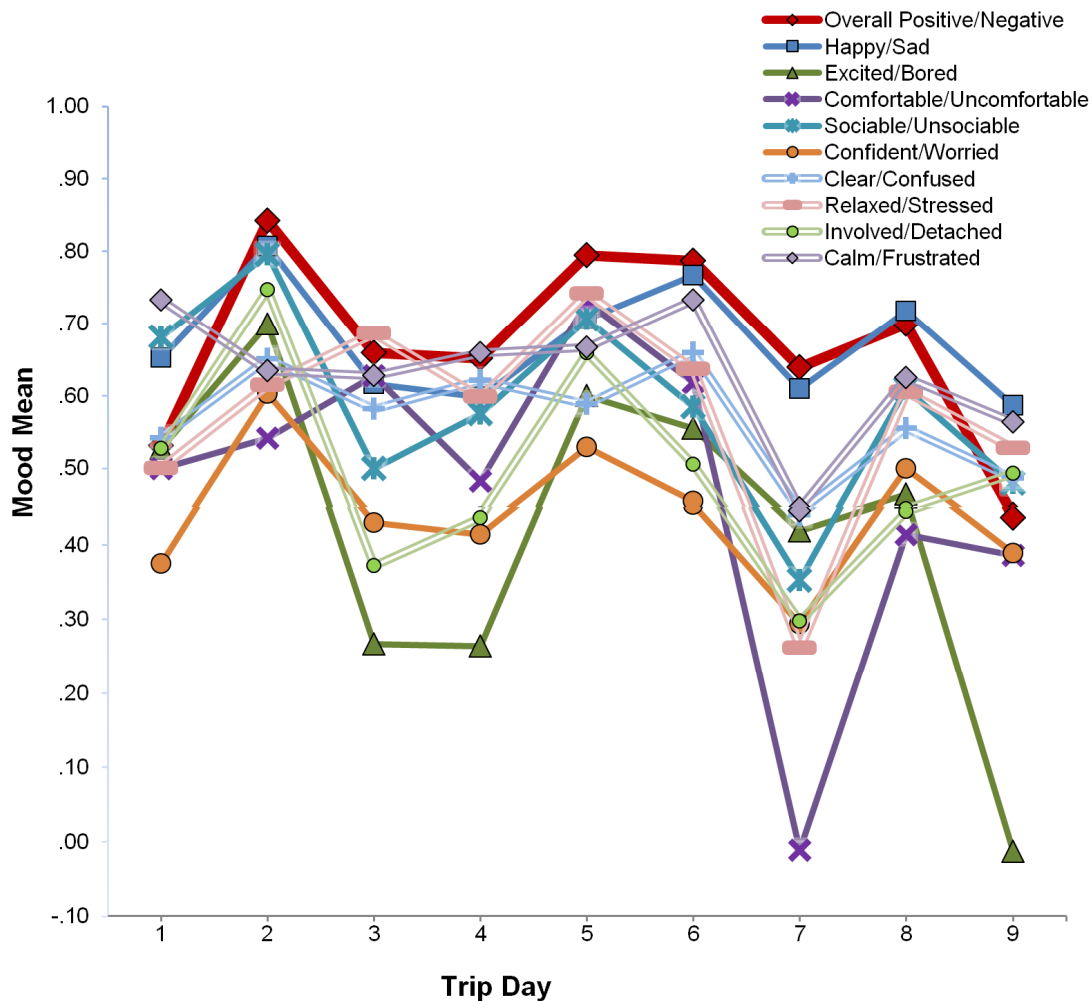


Figure 3.4. Daily reported mood mean during Peru trip. Note: positive moods scored as 1.0, neutral moods scored as 0, and negative moods scored as -1.0.

Significant differences between mean verbal recording lengths were found with mood dichotomies of excited/bored ( $F(2, 872)=6.767, p=.001$ ), relaxed/stressed ( $F(2, 729)=4.396, p=.013$ ), and involved/detached ( $F(2, 729)=6.295, p=.002$ ) where self-reports logging neutral moods had the longest recording mean. Neutral moods were also associated with the longest recording means for confident/worried, clear/confused, sociable/unsociable, and comfortable/uncomfortable dichotomies while positive moods had the longest means for overall positive/overall negative, happy/sad, and calm/frustrated dichotomies, but these differences were not statistically significant ( $p>.05$ ).

#### ESM content analysis

We analysed ESM verbal data to detect any content related to the research design and found 108 statements (3% of voice recordings) by 13 participants which mention the method. Table 3.4 presents the results of this content analysis, with statements grouped into subject categories. Ten participants made 34 negative statements (<1%) related to problems associated with smartphones, repetitiveness, negative feelings associated with ESM, and safety concerns.

Table 3.4. ESM research method content listing subject categories with examples, the number of participants who discussed each category, and total statements in each category.

Subject Category	Number of Participants	Number of Statements
Repetitive <i>My last recording wasn't too long ago, so nothing really has changed at this current point. We're all just kind of relaxing and we're going to out and see the town. Explore the culture and the bars a little bit. (Jessica, Day 4)</i>	9	21
Neutral discussion <i>The best part of this experience is I get to be here first hand, and the worst part is probably that I'm standing really close to the speakers that's what I'm yelling into the BlackBerry, also I'm kind of tingling all over. (Hannah, Day 2)</i>	10	18
Negative emotion (annoyance, embarrassment, detachment) <i>It's interesting to note that the minute I pick up my BlackBerry I kind of start feeling detached from the rest of the group (giggling) and record this information. I'm trying to order pizza and the little buzzer just went off so I had to answer my experience question. (Rachel, Day 3)</i>	5	18
ESM tool <i>I'm just chilling out in my tent with Emily, just lying down, I'm a little worried because event log is not working so I just hope it didn't delete everything. (Lauren, Day 7)</i>	5	7
Humour regarding ESM <i>I am in the front lobby of our hotel with Chris who is extremely drunk with his red face, he drank a whole bottle of wine, and Daniel, he's drunk too, and Olivia, who is high on life. We're gonna go, [comments from others] Okay guys, I'm on my cell phone here - settle down [laughs], okay so were just about to...(Lauren, Day 3)</i>	4	5
Logging as activity <i>Let's see, sitting inside the dinner tent, about 45 min. till dinner, just making a log. (Tom, Day 7)</i>	5	7
Excitement <i>...when they get married they join islands, Reed islands with another person and then they just grow from there, and they come to be really big, and the same thing happens if they get a divorce or get in a fight they can just separate. It will be really interesting, hopefully I will get buzzed again so I can explain how it is later, I'm sure I will actually...(Olivia, Day 3)</i>	2	4
Safety concerns <i>I'm learning that the Inca trail won't be as scary since I can manage this and it's kind of not the safest thing for me to be on the BlackBerry as I'm walking down the steps, I might have to get off now. (Hannah, Day 5)</i>	2	3

Though issues of reactivity were not specifically sought in the verbal data, evidence of reactivity emerged in 154 recordings (4%) by 17 participants. In these discussions, participants would state they had no thoughts regarding the question asked, but followed this

with a discussion on new thoughts, demonstrating potentially altered reporting on experiences, or participants would discuss a heightened consideration of the experience due to the research method.

Nothing too interesting about this experience, we're just sitting and talking, waiting for our flight...

I thought it was interesting that Brandon got caught, got stuck, and then his duct tape was taken, he wasn't allowed to take it across but you're allowed to take bottles of water where is like, in

Toronto you're not allowed to bring any bottles... (Amber, Day 9)

I'm not learning anything in particular but it's .. Just that tourists are expected to be treated better than the living standards of people here. (Rebecca, Day 1)

Some participants also demonstrated reactivity through a heightened sensitivity to potential discussion questions through anticipation or predicting experiences.

... Nothings really odd or interesting right now it's just kind of nice to be back in the hotel, kind of feels like home, to come full circle. Besides that everything is pretty good. Maybe if I get buzzed later I'll have something more interesting to say about the town, right now it's a beautiful sunny day or afternoon and yeah I'm excited to go explore. (Olivia, Day 3)

Following this, we counted 241 (6%) voice recordings by 17 participants which demonstrated non-reactivity, where participants state they have no comments regarding the question and do not alter their answers. These types of statements spiked on the last day with 69 non-reactive recordings.

In reading through the qualitative data for content on ESM, some discussions pointed to the development of a personal relationship between participant and researcher. Participants were aware their verbal ESM data were recorded and stored for later analysis; they were not talking to anyone directly. Also, the primary researcher had met with participants only once during an orientation session a few months before the trip. Yet a third of participants had



statements that reflected a sense of familiarity or even comradery towards the primary researcher. This relationship was expressed in several ways. There were discussions where the participant was aiming to please or help in some way.

Learning about myself? The current moment, pretty much nothing. I think I'm dealing with heartburn but that's already been logged. I'm enjoying reading the *Bourne identity*, I don't know if that helps? (Tom, Day 7)

There were also emotional statements which demonstrated an annoyance with the researcher (or research tool).

Anything interesting about the situation? Basically, there is not too much interesting, I'm eating alpaca sausage on my pizza, I guess that's somewhat interesting, I don't know, I don't know what you find interesting blackberry. But [talking to others: "What? Why can't we mock the blackberry?"] [Other voice "don't mock her"]... There is not too much odd about the situation, I'm eating. (Daniel, Day 3)

Some discussions were apologetic, where participants were contrite.

... we're just cleaning up, using face wipes and baby wipes in our tents and just getting ourselves organized and stuff. And then we're going to have dinner in a bit - sorry I'm distracted, someone is calling my name - and then yeah, so staying organized, cleaning, sorry, sorry totally distracted. So yeah, day one finished. (Olivia, Day 6)

There were also a few statements involving humour, where participants were joking with the person they perceived to be at the other end of the smartphone.

I'm learning that I've did 34 hours of the hike and I'm still going, good accomplishment for me. If you don't hear more from me you'll know I died, or passed out or something along the trail cause it's too difficult [laughs] (Hannah, Day 6)

One participant began using a more intimate language of friendship with the researcher during the trip.

... I'm taking a lot of pictures for you Sarah, I know the pictures don't do it justice but we'll take it and I'll take a video for you and try and have it on video which is kind of neat too... (Heather, day 5)

... It's so beautiful. I know Sarah that you'd appreciate it, wish you were here... (Heather, Day 7)

### *Post Trip Recollection*

The post trip data were used in this paper only to determine if and how ESM data collection procedures were discussed in trip recollection. Methods-based discussions were found in the semi-structured interviews, conducted with all participants 3-4 months after the trip. No methods-based statements were present in the post-trip email survey, which was completed and returned by 15 participants (83% response rate), 16-17 months after the trip.

In the interview data, eight participants mentioned research methods. Many of the mentions were reemphasizing what was said in situ. "...You probably heard me say that 100 times on my [smartphone]..." (Heather). One participant discussed how sometimes she felt the self-report signals were too close together so the experience hadn't changed. A different participant stated that it was sometimes difficult to hear the signal or feel the smartphone vibration.

There are some statements related to the overall data collection. One participant did discuss how it felt odd to use advanced technology, especially in remote areas.

I guess it was odd that we were travelling around, like going to more remote places and yet we have these [smartphones] and satellite devices with us – we're talking into a cell phone the whole time so other people are like - really, are they really talking on their cell phones like while their climbing? - so that felt kinda weird. (Olivia)

Another participant discusses the connection between immediate experiences and memory.

I think that now when I try and think back on it I can't remember those, those little times of being scared or feeling nervous. I remember recording it [giggles] but like I don't remember actually feeling those feelings when I was there. Just the excitement is still overriding I guess. (Michelle)

## **Discussion: ESM and the Tourist Experience**

### *ESM response and verbal data*

Compliance rates have been examined in other ESM studies (see Table 3.1). In this study, event contingent self-reports were done right before or after some skipped reports. Comparable results were found by another study using similar software (Doherty et al., 2014). Lower compliance rates have been found at the end of ESM sampling periods (Courvoisier et al., 2012; Messiah et al., 2011 ; Reid et al., 2009; Silvia et al., 2013) but as shown in figure 3.2, day 1 (a travel day) and day 7 (a difficult hiking day for 15 participants) had the highest non-compliance rates. However, in Figure 3.3, the lowest mean recording lengths were on the last day of the study period. This could be an indication of an increased annoyance with ESM or a lack of interesting experiences taking place while packing and travelling to fly home. If the ESM was burdensome, we would have expected to see both a decrease in recording length and in signal response. However, participants answered signals and completed event self-reports, though their discussions were brief. Other studies found relationships between compliance and tiredness (Borrie et al., 1998; Courvoisier et al., 2012). Tiredness could have been a factor with many participants having just completed the Inca Trail, but we did not collect data on tired/wakeful moods.

The length of self-report verbal data showed no relationship with mood intensity. Mood dichotomies with statistically significant differences showed that longer responses were

recorded during neutral moods (neither excited nor bored, involved nor detached, relaxed nor stressed). Feelings of enthusiasm and tenseness in self-reports have been associated with lower compliance rates (Courvoisier et al., 2012; Silvia et al., 2013). In this study, discussion length on subjective states relates more to having impassive experiences.

For both event and signal self-reports, verbal responses were longer on transportation than in rural, natural, or urban environments. Furthermore, the number of event self-reports were higher on transportation than for other locations. These findings suggest that transportation experiences present an opportunity for more lengthy and welcomed self-reporting. The self-report could have been a way to pass the time during travel, but moods of boredom or relaxation were not associated with longer verbal responses. More research on transportation experiences might provide answers. The integration of GPS in ESM software can provide an opportunity to trigger self-report signals when location and movement speed between data points indicate a transportation event.

### *ESM challenges and opportunities*

One of the major ESM challenges faced in this research was technical error. Though software was pre-tested and a research assistant travelled with participants, data was lost due to devices and downloading errors in the field. Digital ESM is meant to reduce data transfer errors, so this was a disappointing result. We could have addressed this with more pre-trip testing of downloading protocol and by supplying the research assistant with spare devices. We also experienced both recording errors and transcription issues in voice recordings. Using qualitative data to investigate methodological implications is rarely done in the ESM literature. In using voice recording software, it is subject to participant care, talk speed, and

environmental variables such as background noise. Despite the errors, the ease of use and the ability for participants to verbally express their subjective state was beneficial in incorporating qualitative data collection into the ESM design. The use of more advanced voice recording software in future studies could improve recording and clarity issues.

Participant burden or intrusion was a second challenge addressed by examining discussions related to ESM procedures. Ten participants made negative statements about ESM, but this was present in less than 1% of total voice recordings. Many of the negative statements related to smartphone problems, question repetition, and negative emotions associated with data collection. The issue of repetitiveness was also mentioned in short term recollection data, where sometimes experiences between self-report signals had not changed. Lack of change in experience and/or location has been linked to skipped prompts, though this could be addressed by including both temporal and spatial algorithms to limit repeat signalling during experiences at one location (Doherty et al., 2014).

Negative emotions associated with data collection related to feelings of annoyance, detachment, and embarrassment in completing self-reports. Feelings of annoyance were not present in recollection data. This could indicate that annoyance with ESM is short lived or it could be related to the presence of the researcher during recollection interviews, which could have inhibited complaints about the research design. However, in the long term recollection survey, the researcher was not present and there were no ESM statements, indicating that the research design did not leave a lasting impression. In examining feelings of detachment using the involved/detached dichotomy, mean results were positive throughout the trip, giving no indication that this variable was affected by ESM procedures.

Mobile phones are argued to be socially acceptable, making it a reasonably invisible data collection tool (Koro-Ljungberg et al., 2008; Raento et al., 2009). However, feelings of embarrassment were discussed in ESM data and reiterated in a post trip interview relating to the use of technology while at an underdeveloped rural island and during hiking experiences. Though smartphone use is increasing globally, their use in more remote, less developed areas could attract attention as a demonstration of wealth. Mobile phone use could also be awkward or incongruent when participating in adventure sports. Embarrassment towards the use of smartphones could result in shortened self-reports. This emphasizes the need to include snooze or skip options in ESM designs to empower participants with alternatives to potentially embarrassing situations. However, this would mean that these situations may not be as prone to sampling – which should be considered in analysis.

A third challenge we explored was the issue of reactivity, which is rarely found in ESM studies (Shiffman et al., 2008). A strong linear relationship showing more reported positive or negative moods as the trip progressed might have pointed to ESM reactivity (or annoyance) but we were not able to detect any increased mood sensitivity over time. We did find evidence of reactivity in qualitative data, where participants revised their discussions during the answering process, suggesting altered experiential reporting. There was also evidence of anticipation or prediction of future self-reporting, implying a heightened sense of awareness regarding the research method. However, this increased awareness may assist in improving the accuracy of self-reports (Hormuth, 1986; Stewart & Hull, 1996). Participants involved in ESM research are asked questions which require them to consider their experiences more closely, capturing thoughts and feelings that may normally go unnoticed. Without increased awareness, seemingly insignificant momentary experiences might be processed without

acknowledgement, though they could be involved in constructing tourist knowledge (Everett, 2010). In ESM studies, a heightened awareness could be of benefit, allowing participants to notice the (normally) unnoticeable or semi-conscious elements of experience. One participant touched on this, noting that she did not remember feeling certain momentary emotions, but she remembers recording them. This suggests recollection methods would not capture the range of on-site momentary emotions present during tourist experiences. It also indicates that, for her, heightened awareness due to ESM was not long-lasting. We did not find an increase in reactive content over the course of the trip though more research on its possible significance is warranted.

The final challenge we explored was the relationship between the participant and the smartphone data collection tool. There is evidence of a developing relationship, where participants treat the verbal data collection as a conversation, similar to findings by Koro-Ljungberg et al. (2008). Some participants seemed to humanize the smartphone, apologizing to it and joking with it. Other scholars have argued that people can have emotional connections with their phone, anthropomorphizing this technological tool (Srivastava, 2005; Tussyadiah, 2014a). The smartphone could be acting as an extension of the researcher in a way that paper questionnaires could not. This presents a challenge in how to address this in an ethical way and an opportunity in employing this tool to collect qualitative data on tourist experiences. In using personal smartphones, participants are not only familiar with their functionality but would also be cognitively and emotionally accepting of their presence. This might mean higher levels of trust involved in data collection procedures, where the phone does not possess the verbal or visual cues of a human researcher that could bias answers. The

anthropomorphism associated with mobile phones could mean that participants would be less guarded and more willing to have open discussions on subjective experiences.

### *Tourism ESM Research Agenda*

ESM is a highly validated and tested method in other academic areas. Though its use in tourism research is rare, the potential is palpable. Incorporating ESM into research designs supports the study of momentary tourist experience phenomena. In using a multirelational approach which examines time, context, person, and experiential interactions, we can learn more about the subjective meanings and dynamic nature of experiences (Lindberg et al., 2014). Coupling ESM with recollection methods can allow for a better understanding of how on-site tourist experiences translate into experiential memory. The literature on ESM along with the results of this study demonstrates the potential of this method in capturing rich and relevant data on real time real world tourist experiences. We suggest the following research areas.

#### Location

Future ESM research could explore place contingent sampling designs. GPS location devices in smartphones could be used for spatially triggered self-report signals to capture data at special interest places (Doherty et al., 2014). GPS data could also help detect certain experiences (such as transportation) that might be of sampling interest, or enable flexibility in software to recalculate signalling protocol when participants remain at one location, addressing issues of repetitiveness.



## Mood

Momentary moods and emotions in tourist experiences are under-researched. More in-depth study on in situ affect coupled with recollection data could help to determine any mood markers that relate to memory. The relationship between mood and ESM qualitative data length as well as links between tiredness and compliance warrants more research.

## Qualitative Data

The use and evaluation of qualitative ESM data is lacking in the literature. In this study, we captured over 18 hours of qualitative momentary discussions using voice recording software and evaluated both the length and content to examine ESM operationalization. Future tourist experience research could incorporate ESM as a qualitative option. This option could include decision trees algorithms to trigger qualitative follow up questions, related to mood choices or shorter responses, to encourage longer discussions.

## Smartphones

These devices offer an accessible and widespread technology which can be used to sample tourist populations. Smartphone software can allow for numerous possibilities in signalling and question options housed in a portable and mobile device which can connect researchers to participants remotely, limiting bias due to researcher presence and allowing for location independence. The possibilities and meanings related to the potential human-phone relationship found in this study require further investigation, especially in qualitative inquiry.

## **Conclusion**

The purpose of this paper was to examine ESM and its methodological implications in tourist experience research. Previous research demonstrates evolving processes of emotion and meaning over the course of a tourist trip (Borrie & Roggenbuck, 2001; McIntyre & Roggenbuck, 1998) and the importance of momentary experiential data (Cary, 2004; Larsen, 2007; Lindberg et al., 2014; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Quinlan Cutler et al., 2014). The findings of this study point to improvements in ESM design and future areas of investigation. Because ESM involves a range of techniques and allows for a variety of assessment goals, it is a good fit for research on subjective tourist experiences. This method can capture perceptions of experiences over an entire trip and allow for the exploration of subjective states within different social and spatial contexts. In using smartphones, future ESM studies would benefit from using a mobile data collection tool that can accommodate quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method designs.

This paper contributes to both ESM and tourist experience literature in evaluating this research method as a way to capture in situ tourist perceptions of experiences. This study is original in its evaluation of ESM operationalization using qualitative data. We assessed both the length of qualitative responses and content of tourist discussions. Data on verbal response length demonstrated relationships with variables associated with compliance, emotion, and location. The content analysis on participant discussions led to findings on reactivity, ESM intrusiveness, and a developing participant-researcher relationship via smartphones. This research was also novel in analyzing both ESM and recollection data to explore discussions on enduring aspects of data collection procedures. In adapting ESM to emerging smartphone

technology, this study further contributes to both ESM research and to methodological discussions on the use of these devices in tourism research. This is also one of only a few studies which employed ESM in tourist experience research, despite being a highly validated and much used method in the fields of leisure, recreation, and psychology. In presenting this study on ESM, we hope to further the inquiry on the use of this research method in exploring momentary experiential phenomenon in tourism.

## **Chapter 4: Immediacy, Photography, and Memory: The Tourist**

### **Experience of Machu Picchu**

Citation: Quinlan Cutler, S., Carmichael, B. & Doherty, S. (in press) Immediacy, photography, and memory: the tourist experience of Machu Picchu. In Bourdeau, L., Gravari-Barbas, M., & Robinson, M. (Eds) *World Heritage, Tourism and Identity*. Farnham, UK: Ashgate Publishing.

#### **Introduction**

This chapter addresses the complex nature of the tourist experience at World Heritage Sites (WHSs), focusing on the use of different research methods in exploring encounters with sites of exceptional cultural and natural significance. Currently, little is known about immediate reactions to WHSs, the capturing of site images, or memories of the visit. This chapter will examine the experience of educational tourists at the Historical Sanctuary of Machu Picchu, Peru and discuss how WHSs can acquire more diverse information employing research techniques which have received little attention in tourism research.

#### *Machu Picchu as a World Heritage Site*

Machu Picchu is Peru's most popular destination due to its cultural importance, architectural significance, and the existence of rich flora and fauna within the surrounding natural area. In 1983, the 32,592 hectare site was designated as a WHS due to its outstanding cultural and natural value (UNESCO, 2009). The ruins at Machu Picchu are thought to be a village or royal retreat occupied by the Incas in the 1400 and 1500s (WCMC, 2011), which remained relatively undisturbed until 1911 when a local Peruvian, Melchor Arteaga, led

archaeologist Hiram Bingham to the area (Lumbreras, 2005). Hiram recognized the archaeological importance of the site and is often credited with its rediscovery.

Access to the site is relatively restricted; it can be reached by train from Cusco or Ollantaytambo to Aguas Calientes followed by a bus journey or hike to the site or by hiking the Inca Trail over 2 to 4 days. Despite its remote location, as of 2009 Machu Picchu received 815, 268 visitors (MINCETUR, 2011). This has numerous implications for conservation and site management but also impacts upon the tourist experience.

### *The Tourist Experience*

Experiences occur within a person who is engaged with an event on an emotional, physical, spiritual, or intellectual level (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). As an element of tourism, this involves everything that happens at a destination (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003), indicating that the tourist experience is an intricate psychological process. In this chapter, the tourist experience is understood as the events and activities which take place during a tourism episode, the influences involved in shaping that episode, and the personal outcomes of that episode.

### **Researching the Tourist Experience at World Heritage Sites**

Despite over three decades of research on the tourist experience, there are numerous gaps which should be addressed for a more comprehensive understanding of this area. More specifically, there is a lack of research on the experience of World Heritage Sites and how these are understood during the visit and remembered by the visitor. This research aims to address these gaps.

## *2.1 Immediacy*

The immediate conscious approach involves on-site, real time reactions, capturing raw emotions and thoughts which have not yet been contextualized within a whole travel event (Larsen, 2007). Research involving immediacy has become popular in leisure studies, demonstrating that evaluations of experiences change over time (Lee et al., 1994). However, experiential data collection in tourism has mainly involved research relying on the recollection of experiences.

In leisure studies the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) is often used to capture immediate experiential data. This method is based on the repeated administration of self-reports designed to capture the perceptions of ongoing experiences by prompting subjects to answer questions at random points throughout a given time period within a natural setting when thoughts and feelings are fresh (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Cerin et al., 2001; Hektner et al., 2007; Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983). Previous studies have found that this approach can minimize memory distortions and allow for more in-depth examinations of experiences, relying on repeated measures throughout a prescribed time period rather than a single assessment (Cerin et al., 2001; Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983).

Recently there has been a move towards more computerized ESM data collection. Computerized procedures can allow for greater flexibility in question presentation, more precise control of timing, the ability to track compliance, and reduction in human error when managing data (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Hektner et al., 2007; Stone, Kessler, & Haythornthwaite, 1991). There is also opportunity for alternative types of data capture such as voice, picture, and video. In using this approach at sites with World

Heritage status, it can capture raw responses to experiences during the experience itself, providing valuable data on the types of experiences, emotions, and learning opportunities taking place. This can provide insight into experiences that ultimately shape individual perceptions of WHSs and can also indicate areas that require attention. In this study immediate reaction data is captured using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) modified for use on hand-held smartphones.

## *2.2 Photography*

Photography and tourism share an intimate relationship. During a trip, the tourist selects images which will provide tangible evidence of his or her experience of a destination. After returning home, though the tourist experience has ended the photograph will still exist, giving these images and the event importance and immortality (Sontag, 1978). Assessing the images which are chosen to preserve and narrate tourist experiences can illustrate the travel environment and help to further understand the experience itself.

There have been very few studies which empirically investigate tourist photography as experiential phenomena (Albers & James, 1988; Larsen, 2006; Markwell, 1997). Research shows that there is a consumptive photographic pattern where tourists capture idealized images (Markwell, 1997) and a focus on social relationships within tour groups (Larsen, 2006). The lack of further research interest in this area seems odd as the relationship between photography and tourism has always been stressed as an important one (Albers & James, 1988; Chalfen, 1979; Sontag, 1978). The integration of photography as a method of data collection in studies on WHSs is important as many of these sites involve highly aesthetic visual elements and iconic features which represent entire destinations (i.e. Stone Henge,

Uluru, or the Egyptian pyramids). Static images provide information on the elements tourists seek from the site and the attributes which are seen as important enough to preserve. They also act as a marker of the experience, showing the tourist standing within an interesting physical or cultural landscape. In this study, photographs taken by participants are analysed for content, context, intention, and photographic density, and then related to photographer specific variables to explore the images of site experiences.

### *2.3 Memory*

Memory is an important element associated with the tourist experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Larson (2007) argues that memory could be the most influential aspect of tourism experiences, since memory will be what remains after the experience has ended and this can have a strong influence on the perception of destinations. Tung's (2009) study on memorable tourism experiences found that they are comprised of five dimensions: affect, intentionality, expectations, consequentiality, and recollection, in the context of the destination. The importance of affect is reiterated by Trauer and Ryan (2005) who argue that emotional elements create memory and these memories can reinforce personal intimacies where places are seen as a centre for emotional exchange. This idea of memorable information can be related to both positive and negative experiences. Therefore memories can be defined as filtering mechanisms which link the experience to the emotional and perceptual outcomes of a tourist event (Oh et al., 2007).

Though memory is seen as the outcome of experience, it can also be actively involved in the interpretation and transformation of experience through narration (Cary, 2004; Selstad,



2007). The narration of memory allows experiences to change, indicating that experiences are active items which continually evolve within tourist discourse.

Previous research measuring tourist experiences often involves post-travel questionnaires or interviews which ask subjects about their trip (Barrett & Barrett, 2001). This can be problematic as memories and perceptions of sites can be inaccurate - fading, evolving, and changing over time (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Fridgen, 1984). This emphasizes the importance of additional data collection, such as immediate reactions and photographs, to provide a more accurate understanding of site experiences. In this study, tourist memories of Machu Pichhu are evaluated to better understand memorable aspects the site and to allow for the methodological evaluation of changes in experience perception over time.

### **Research Methods and Analysis**

This research involved immediate experience data, photographic data, and recollection data. Immediate experience data was collected using In Situ Tourist Experience Logging (ISTEL) software, a modified version of the Experience Sampling Method (ESM), deployed on a BlackBerry™ smartphone (model 8330), as shown in Figure 4.1. Each participant was given a smartphone with ISTEL software designed to alert participants approximately 5 times per day at random intervals via device vibration, prompting them to complete a tourist experience log. Each log involved a series of questions regarding their current experience which participants answered using a combination of pull-down lists and prompted voice recordings.

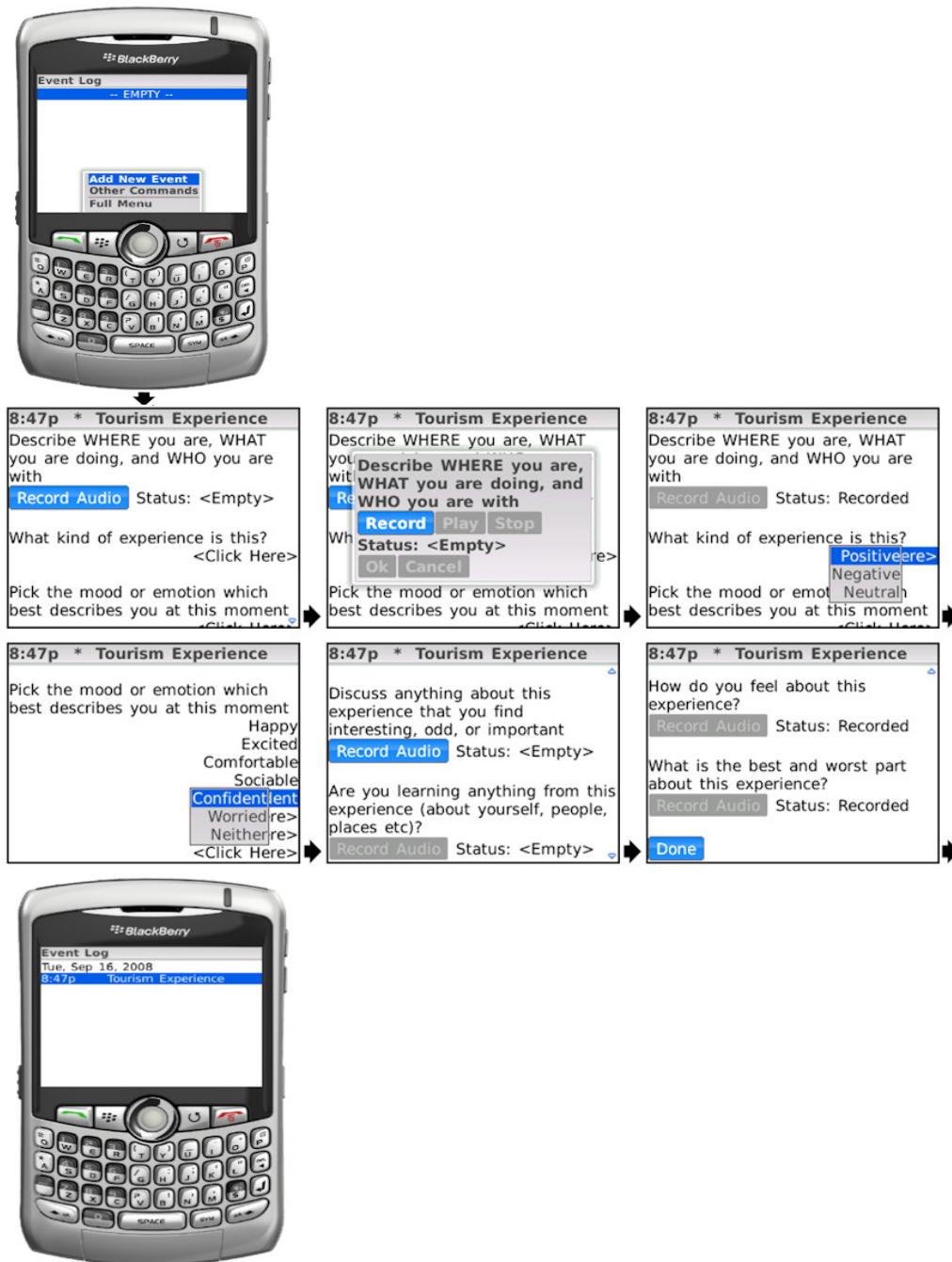


Figure 4.1 ISTE Software snapshot depicting "Tourism Experience" randomly generated prompt

Photography data involved the collection of tourist photographs with their consent once participants returned from their trip. Participants were unaware of this element of the

research during the trip so as to not bias individual choices in photography. All images were digital and subject to a process of visual analysis. Visual analysis involves a search for meaning and patterns through the examination of content and context of images which, in this case, reflect visual experiences (Collier, 2001).

The collection of data on tourist memories of Machu Picchu was done using two different methods. In-depth interviews were conducted three to four months after the site visit, asking participants to reflect on their travel experience. Trip participants were later sent an open-ended email survey 16 months after the site visit, again asking them to discuss their experience of the destination.

Immediate reactions and in-depth interviews were transcribed and imported into NVivo software along with email surveys to allow for computerized coding and content analysis. Content analysis evaluates the elements of human communication and is defined as a way to extract desired information from material through the systematic identification of specific characteristics, words, or meanings (Babbie, 2001; Smith, 2000). Once the data sets were coded, the analysis of themes, concepts, categories, and meanings were compared to examine immediate reactions and memorable experiences. Results were also used to further understand photographic relationships involved in the tourist experience which emerged from visual analysis.

### **The Tourist Experience of Machu Picchu**

A purposive sample of 21 educational tourists from Canada participated in this study. The group consisted of 14 females and 7 males who travelled to Peru in August 2008. The Historical Sanctuary of Machu Picchu was accessed by this group in two different ways;

eighteen participants arrived after completing the Inca Trail hike and three participants arrived by train to Aguas Calientes and took a bus to the site. Both the hikers and day visitors were with guides and spent an equal amount of time at the site (approximately 2.5 hours) though the day visitors arrived earlier in the day and spent more time exploring the main ruin complex at a relaxed pace. Results indicate that Machu Picchu was an emotional, educational, and personal experience which became an icon of Peru and a memorable event for many of the trip participants.

### *The Immediate Experience*

16 participants (13 hikers and 3 day visitors) produced 35 logs using the ISTEEL software. The data does not include 5 participants due to lack of software prompting during this time and unexpected data corruption issues. Overall the descriptions of Machu Picchu tended to be very positive. Of the 51 references describing the site, only one was in a neutral tone. This indicates that in the moment, participants were having positive reactions to the WHS. Participants also focused on learning, with one-third of participants discussing site history and Incan culture, and another third discussing learning about self and personal accomplishment. When asked about negative aspects of the experience, half of the participants mentioned having to go home or leave the site. There were three mentions of insects and four references to the trail regarding physical soreness or injury. Other mentions included weather, waiting, and missing certain people.

Hikers had more limited discussion on the historic qualities of the site compared to day visitors. Their discussion involved group pride and accomplishment in having completed the Inca Trail, revealing a shared experience of achievement with the site representing

triumph over physical and mental challenges. The dialog was more emotional and personal than that of day visitors. This implies that immediate experiences of Machu Picchu are dependent upon the method of arrival, which has implications for site managers. If educating visitors about culture and history is a WHS priority, these lessons may be lost on hikers who, having battled fatigue and potential injuries, are not giving that their full attention. However, for hikers the site is discussed with greater emotional and personal emphasis, which could make it more memorable.

### *Photographing Machu Picchu*

Eleven participants (7 females and 4 males) provided a full set of unaltered digital photographs, leading to a collection of 820 images taken during the Machu Picchu visit. On average, participants were taking 30 photographs per hour. This reveals the importance of photography as an on-site activity for visitors and also emphasizes the significance of the site visit for the individual. Table 4.1 shows the number of photographs taken and the main subjects by each participant.

Table 4.1 Total number and main subject of photographs taken by participant photographers at Machu Picchu

<b>Participant*</b>	<b>Number of photographs taken</b>	<b>Main Subjects of Photographs (&gt;5%)</b>
Amber	257	48% ruins, 21% social setting, 16% landscape
Rachel	94	77% ruins, 16% social setting
Matt	87	53% social setting, 24% ruins, 14% plants
Heather	79	68% ruins, 10% social setting, 9% landscape
Laura	78	50% ruins, 32% social setting, 13% landscape
Tom	72	58% ruins, 25% social setting, 6% animals
Michelle	55	53% ruins, 36% social setting, 6% landscape
Hannah	46	65% ruins, 15% social setting, 9% landscape
Blaire	26	75% ruins, 8% landscapes, 8% social setting
Tyler	14	67% social setting, 33% ruins
Sam	12	71% social setting, 21% animals, 7% ruins

\* All names have been changed to protect the privacy of the participants of this research

Examples of photographs are provided in Figure 4.2. In examining the main subjects depicted in the photographs, over half are of the Machu Picchu ruins (52.8%). Though many ruins were photographed, few close shots were taken of Incan architectural features. This is interesting as Machu Picchu is protected as a site which exemplifies Incan building techniques.

The images also captured social settings (26%) and natural landscapes (9%). This demonstrates that the social group visitors arrive with more important than the physical setting of the site. Results indicate that males took fewer photographs of landscapes ( $N=4$ , 2%) and ruins ( $N=63$ , 36%) than expected, but much more of people ( $N=80$ , 45%), suggesting that Machu Picchu was a social experience. Females focused more on ruins ( $N=357$ , 58%) and landscapes ( $N=69$ , 11%) with fewer social setting photos ( $N=123$ , 20%) than expected, signifying that the history and beauty of the area was important. However, in reviewing the people-centred photographs, males took more group shots ( $N=56$ , 66%) than expected and fewer self shots ( $N=4$ , 5%). Females took more self shots ( $N=22$ , 16%) than expected and fewer group shots ( $N=53$ , 39%) than expected. This implies that males tended to frame Machu Picchu as a group experience, highlighting the importance of the people who came to the site with them. Females framed Machu Picchu as an individual experience, where they are standing alone in front of the ruins (see figure 4.2d). This reveals that, for some participants, encounters with this site were personal, involving the individual wanting to capture the intimate experience of self in place. This also suggests a need to demonstrate 'I was here', having the photograph act as evidence of travel history and accomplishment.



Figure 4.2 Representative examples of tourist photographs taken at Machu Picchu

In examining photographs it is important to note not only what is photographed but also what is not. There were few photographs of other tourists at the site outside of the group; therefore participants were limiting images to inanimate objects or known people. There were no photographs of transportation, tourist infrastructure, or tourist services outside of guides. The overall tendency was to capture ruins as if they were undisturbed and remote. This is similar to findings by Markwell (1997) who noted that tourists reinforce idealized images of the destination in pictures.

### *Memories of a World Heritage Site*

In-depth interviews were conducted with all 21 participants three to four months after their visit. Overall, discussions of the site were positive, with Machu Picchu highlighted as a significant memory, the best part of the trip, or the image most associated with Peru. There were some negative associations with the site mentioned by six participants, mostly related to bug bites.

An email survey was sent out 16 months after the trip and was returned by 15 participants (71% response rate). Ten respondents used positive descriptions of the site such as amazing, impressive, and beautiful but six participants did mention negative attributes including insects or how the site was ‘just another ruin’. Machu Picchu did feature strongly in participant memories of Peru. The site was a significant memory for nine respondents and an iconic image of Peru for eight respondents. Five respondents discussed the site as the best part of the trip and it features in stories that four respondents tell to others about their experience of Peru.

In comparing memories of Machu Picchu over time, responses indicate that memories on the whole became more positive. The site became more central to the experience, as part of stories told, the imagery of place, the best part of the trip, and as the most significant memory. Discussion of Machu Picchu is more frequent in the later survey with more mentions of specific positive and negative elements as well as more discussion on what was learned.

### *Examining Immediacy, Photography, and Memory*

Participants who discussed positive immediate experiences tended to discuss strong lasting positive memories of the site in interviews and in surveys, whereas those with more



neutral immediate reactions to the site had more neutral memories or mixed memories of Machu Picchu with both positive mentions (i.e. relating to accomplishment) and negative discussion (i.e. relating to bug bites). This demonstrates that trip memories are related to immediate experience emotions, perhaps becoming more prominent due to the presence of photographs of the site or through the retelling of vacation details with friends and family. This confirms discussions by Selstad (2007) and Cary (2004) that tourists are involved in the production of trip meaning and the continual evolution of trip memory.

Results revealed a strong relationship between travel memory and photography. Those who remember Machu Picchu as the best part of their trip, a significant memory, or an iconic image of Peru were those who took more pictures of the site. This could indicate that memory is coloured by the amount of photographs, with photographs acting as souvenirs of the trip and emphasizing that which was photographed over that which was not. There could also be other factors at play. If immediate experiences of a site are positive, individuals may take more pictures to capture this, and the on-site importance is what establishes travel memory, with photography acting as an indicator of immediate positive experiences. More research is needed to better understand this relationship.

One consistent element among all research methods has been the implications of hiking the Inca Trail on the understanding of the site. In immediate reaction data, the hike itself was given importance with many of the references to Machu Picchu describing it as a reward.

I'm totally excited about this experience, this is the experience we've all been waiting for to reach the sun gate - to overlook Machu Picchu. It's great. This is definitely probably one of the climaxes of the

trip. Although Machu Picchu was supposed to be amazing to see, I think the most exciting part is to see it from up here. (Olivia, tourist experience log)

This links Machu Picchu to the Inca Trail and suggests that reaching the site is an important peak event but that the qualities of the site itself are not important. Day visitors referred to the site as awesome and interesting with no discussion of Machu Picchu as beautiful or as the best part of the trip, indicating that for them the qualities of the site were of interest, but it was not necessarily a peak event.

In photographs, hikers had many individual and group photographs taken when they first saw Machu Picchu. In the post trip interviews hikers discussed how the journey to Machu Picchu was important. The WHS became associated with personal achievement and overcoming difficulties experienced during the Inca Trail.

I think finishing the Inca Trail and getting to Machu Picchu. And just standing there – well sitting there – of course. And just looking down at that, 3 days of hiking, 3 days of agony and finally gotten, like you're there, just knowing that if you push through even when you think that you can't that there's a reward at the end. (Michelle, post trip interview)

I play a lot of sports and I feel like I'm pretty physically fit and it [the trail] was pretty gruelling on me and then when you get to the top and you see Machu Picchu, it's pretty satisfying that you hike this whole trail and you get to see this... this wonder of the world. (Alex, post trip interview)

Though Machu Picchu was discussed as a highlight or an icon, it was a goal rather than a tourist destination. It marked the end of physical and mental testing. This was also evident in the post trip surveys, which reveals Machu Picchu as a lasting memory of accomplishment. This indicates that the method of arrival can impact on the experience of Machu Picchu. Hiking is the avenue of arrival for as many as 500 visitors per day so understanding how this shapes the experience of the site is important. Findings demonstrate

that it can lessen the emphasis on Machu Picchu as a distinct experience, where visitors are not as concerned with the reasons for site protection as they are with their own accomplishment. However, findings also indicate that this gives the site an aura of awe and amazement, promoting a more personal connection with the World Heritage area.

In comparing the various data sets, another interesting aspect emerges relating to social relationships. During the immediate experience of Machu Picchu, participants do not discuss other people as being the best part of the trip, but this was a major area of post travel discussion. The importance of the group was also demonstrated in the photographic data where a quarter of all photographs captured a people-centred experience, rather than a site-centred experience. This reinforces the importance of social aspects of travel and relationship formation within groups which has been discussed by other tourism researchers (see Selstad, 2007; Trauer & Ryan, 2005). It is important to note however, that as the Machu Picchu experience was at the end of the group trip, the data is indicative of relationship strengthening rather than formation.

## **Conclusion**

The findings for Machu Picchu have implications for other World Heritage Sites. The ESM data collection method deployed on smartphones revealed complex visitor understandings of Machu Picchu. WHSs can benefit from this immediate approach and modify the questions to suit management goals. The software helped to isolate positive and negative experiences, allowing for site elements to be broken down and understood individually as well as within the context of the whole experience. These results can be used in planning and management to provide for better visitor experiences through reshaping

interpretation programmes and in addressing more complex questions involved in managing on-site experiences.

This research demonstrates that photography is strongly related to WHS memories, indicating that site managers need a better understanding of photographic activity and images tourists seek to capture. As described by Tung (2009), planners and managers can identify and promote memory points in areas which house iconic features. At Machu Picchu, though participants photographed ruins, they did not specifically focus on architectural elements, and it did not feature in immediate reaction data or as a memorable aspect of the trip. If this is an element that managers wish to stress, interpretation services could be modified to better highlight this and representative examples of architectural techniques can be presented to visitors as a photographic opportunity.

The importance of social relationships emphasized in the data indicates that the site was a place where personal relationships within the group were reinforced. This presence of strong social elements is important for site managers to recognize. WHSs are not only important cultural or natural experiences but also social experiences. Managers can seek to augment this element, providing physical and temporal spaces for social interaction and interpersonal connections, which can help shape the on-site experience and augment site memory.

Overall, the findings of this research demonstrate that the tourist experience of WHSs is complex and cannot be fully understood using traditional recollection research methods. The ISTEEL software and tourist photography data in combination with recollection methods allow for a more comprehensive and rich data set which highlights positive and negative site attributes, demonstrates important experiential site elements, and achieves a greater understanding of visitor experiences in sites of global significance. This understanding can be

used to better direct World Heritage Site planning, policy, and management to augment the tourist experience and shape travel memory of these exceptional places.

## **Chapter 5: The Inca Trail Experience: Does the Journey Matter?**

Citation: Quinlan Cutler, S., Carmichael, B. & Doherty, S. (2014) The Inca Trail experience:

Does the journey matter? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 45, 152-166.

### **Introduction**

Tourism involves movement. It is one of the few agreed upon elements in tourism definitions, yet the experience of movement receives little attention in the tourism literature. This movement is a phenomenon in its own right, involving the experience of dwelling in motion (Haldrup, 2004; Urry, 2007). The importance of this paper lies in its emphasis on mobile practices in tourism both in implementing a novel research design and in drawing attention to the relationship between mobile tourist experiences and the experience of self. In understanding tourist experiences, we need to investigate how the qualities of tourism practices and landscapes are involved in the (re)development of self-identity (Desforges, 2000). Peru's multi-day Inca Trail hike, ending at the Historical Sanctuary of Machu Picchu, presents an excellent opportunity to research the tourist experience of mobility and self due to its prominence as a mobile tourist space and because it combines the experience of a journey with the experience of a destination.

In this paper, we start by discussing the literature on mobility in tourism and the tourist experience of self. This is followed by a description of the research methods used to capture immediate and recollected understandings of the Inca Trail and Machu Picchu experience. In the results section we present findings on immediate experiential reactions and memories of experiences. This leads to a discussion of how these findings relate to mobility

and tourist experience research. The emphasis of the discussion section is on the experience of self, the experience of routes versus destinations, and the implications for tourist experience management. We conclude with how this study advances knowledge on mobile tourism experiences and what research is needed to further develop this topic area.

### *Mobility in Tourism*

In tourism research, the act of travel has historically been treated as a basic requirement involved in getting to or around a destination (Haldrup, 2004; Johnson, 2010; Urry, 2007). Treating travel time as a requirement, or as empty voids in itineraries, fails to recognize the impact of mobility on our understanding of identity, places, and lived experiences (Urry, 2007). Tourism does not simply happen in spots; it consists of movement through geographical space (Adler, 1989). The concentration on destinations as the site of experiences overlooks the practices of movement that are omnipresent in tourism.

Mobility in tourism is a spatialized way of encountering destinations. Tourists navigate, inhabit, and prescribe meaning to spaces based on multi-sensory experiences (Haldrup, 2004). A mobilities perspective in tourism research explores the practices that take place during movement (Johnson, 2010). This offers a way to explore the tourist experience of travel within tourism. There is a growing body of research on mobility in tourism (see Haldrup, 2004; Johnson, 2010; Spinney, 2011) and this study contributes to this by focusing on the earliest form of movement - walking.

On the subject of transportation, nothing predates walking (Siddall, 1987). For much of human history walking was the only way to travel over land. When quicker and more convenient forms of transportation started to appear (such as railways and automobiles), the

act of walking was no longer a necessity for travel. This freed up walking to be a leisure choice for those interested in experiencing the landscape on foot (Siddall, 1987) or as put by Urry (2007, p. 79) “walking became a way of being and not simply a means of travel”. Walking can be a way to rediscover the senses, where the body is freed from everyday life to explore individuality and undertake self-development (Edensor, 2000). The act of walking can also connect us with history and culture. Arellano (2004) discusses the Inca Trail hike as a rite of passage, enabling tourists to revive and experience ‘real Incaness’.

Based on a review of literature on mobility in tourism, Haldrup (2004) argues that pleasure is experienced in the act of moving through space from practices such as sightseeing or hiking. The body experiences the world by moving and being within it and this worldly experience can shape self-perception. The understanding of self through walking practices is a theme eloquently discussed in other papers (see Adler, 1989; Edensor, 2000; Roberson & Babic, 2009; Wylie, 2005). Moving through and with landscapes can allow for self-reflection, self-reliance, and sensual experiences of place (Edensor, 2000; Urry, 2007; Wylie, 2005). However, this movement also evokes a sense of self through corporeal (bodily) experiences. Walking is a practice that draws attention to the physical self. The individual must use physical senses to navigate the landscape and avoid bodily harm (Wylie, 2005). This experience of the self within the practice of walking (or hiking) in a tourist setting is deserving of more research attention.

### *The Tourist Experience*

The tourist experience is a complex phenomenon that involves an array of different psychological abilities associated with the experience of place. Pine and Gilmore’s (1999)



work on experience economies discuss experiences as something that occurs within an individual who is engaged with an event on a physical, emotional, spiritual, or intellectual level. One interesting aspect of tourism experiences that has emerged is how these relate to or influence the understanding of self. This research adds to this line of inquiry by exploring the tourist experience of self in motion through identity (the perceived self) and corporeality (the tangible self).

Self-identity is who we perceive ourselves to be. Because tourism is seen as an experience that can affect how we understand our own identity (Desforges; Selstad), the tourist experience can then shape our daily life after we return home through changes in self-perception (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). Several studies have found that tourist experiences are incorporated into narratives of self-identity, acting as evidence of a transformed self (see Arnould & Price, 1993; Desforges, 2000; Neumann, 1992; Noy, 2004). Desforges (2000) explores the concept of personhood and self-identities in biographies of British long-haul tourists who travelled in Peru. The author argues that concepts of self-identity can be used to understand the geographies of tourist consumption. For these British tourists, the trip is discussed as a marker of self-identity and this is communicated through touristic stories. Arnould and Price's (1993) research on extraordinary experiences in river rafting also found themes related to personal growth and rediscovered self-identity in post trip discussions. Recollections of the rafting experience involved mentions of self-awareness, skill development, renewal, testing of personal limits, and achievement. The authors suggest that more research is needed into how these sorts of consumer experiences transcend traditional commercial interactions, arguing that the confirmation of expectations was less important than the experience of something extraordinary. This argument is related to one presented by

Ryan (2002a), who discusses how even difficult experiences can morph into personal trophies of achievement. Arnould and Price (1993) conclude that rafting is seen by participants as being an emotionally charged experience which becomes more prominent and memorable over time.

Tung and Ritchie's (2011) in-depth study examined the aspects of tourism experiences that enable them to become memorable. Their study revealed four key dimensions of memorable experiences. The first is affect, which encompasses the emotions associated with experiences. These were found to be overwhelmingly positive in nature. The second is expectations, which involves the fulfilment of intentions. Tung and Ritchie do reiterate Arnould and Price's (1993) discussion that sometimes unexpected surprises can be important markers of memorable experiences. Consequentiality is the third dimension relating to the perceived importance of tourist experiences such as the enhancement of relationships, the acquisition of knowledge, changes to perceptions, and overcoming physical challenges. The fourth dimension is recollection, which involves the efforts made to remember and share the experience, including storytelling.

Neumann (1992) studied reflections on the experience of hiking the Grand Canyon and also found that individuals assigned significance and meaning to post-trip stories. These stories involved a new sense of self that emerged from the hike through discussions on perseverance, struggle, and accomplishment. Neumann's findings demonstrate how the perception of identity is found or lost during tourist experiences, where the physical journey acts as an opportunity to discover or transform the self. This self is then (re)told in touristic stories. These stories present the details of what an individual experienced when they are away, but as Neumann (1992) argues, they can also reveal the moment where the landscapes

of place and mind intersect. This moment can be psychological, when we perceive our own identity, or it can be physical, when we encounter our bodily self. Urry (2007) describes this kind of physical awareness as kinaesthetic, where the sensations of movement in the joints, muscles, and tendons informs the cognitive self of what the physical self is doing. These moments when the mental self is obliged to acknowledge the physical self are ones of awareness, confrontation, and reflexivity (Edensor, 2000). These physical senses can relate to feelings of physical strain, when the body is forced to cope with pain or difficulty (Edensor, 2000).

The relevance and role of pain in leisure is understudied, with most discussion found in health oriented social science (Green, 2011). Rarely, if ever, is the role of pain discussed in tourist experience research despite recognition of its presence. According to Urry “travel always involves corporeal movement and forms of pleasure and pain” (2007, p. 48). However, pleasure tends to be the dominant focus. This research addresses this gap by exploring physical tourist experiences and bodily pain. For the purposes of this paper, pain is understood as a subjective measure of a negative sensory experience of physical discomfort or damage.

The practice of hiking or walking involves effort and can test physical fitness levels (Edensor, 2000; Urry, 2007). Arellano (2004) asks why tourists would seek physical challenges, exhaustion, and pain in hiking the Inca Trail. The author suggests that it is because beyond the stretching of our physical abilities we reach a place of confidence in self. Urry (2007) argues that it is physical exertion and the overcoming of pain that allows a tourist experience to be properly appreciated. In testing what we can physically endure we come to understand our own body in a way that is animalistic and genuine. Abrahansson and Simpson

(2011) argue that finding and experiencing the limit of what our bodies are capable of is imperative in understanding what it is to be human.

In Wylie's self-narrative on coastal walking, he discusses how the "surrounding environment is wholly eclipsed in the shadows of the footsore body" (2005, p. 244). He describes how the presence of pain blocks the ability to be one with the landscape, separating the self from the environment. Green's (2011) study on mixed martial arts reveals how pain is a path to the basic elements of self, arguing that in the moment of pain we temporarily encounter our core. This is more than flow or absorption in an activity. When the body reaches a physical limit of what it can do or accept, this is when we feel alive and reunited with our basic physical self (Green, 2011). This type of self-encounter is very different from the psychological encounter involving perceived self-identity. Stories or narratives of encounters with self-identity are based on values, beliefs, and characteristics of an individual, whereas the physical (sometimes painful) encounter of self refers to the corporeal tangible elements of being. In both cases, the moment when the self is either physically or psychologically encountered is a notable experience. This suggests that physically demanding experiences in tourism provide the opportunity for a meaningful experience of self, through two modes of encounter. This research focuses on one such experience - the Inca Trail hike.

## **Research Methods**

This phenomenological research explores a mobile tourist experience by investigating immediate and remembered perceptions of hiking the Inca Trail. To do this, the qualitative research method design builds on previous tourist experience studies and addresses challenges in mobility research. The design captures immediate experiential reactions and post trip

experiential discussions of the Inca Trail experience, comparing this with the experience of the destination of Machu Picchu. This study was approved by a University Research Ethics Board.

### *Study Site*

The Inca Trail is a small portion of the extensive Inca road system that once covered a 900,000 km<sup>2</sup> area of South America (Observatorio Turistico del Peru, 2008). The traditional Inca Trail tourist route is a 43 kilometre stone path which passes several archaeological remains and diverse natural landscapes on the way to the World Heritage Site of Machu Picchu (Observatorio Turistico del Peru, 2008). In 2008 131,222 tourists undertook this challenge (MINCETUR, 2012), including the fifteen participants in this research. In this study, the Inca Trail experience extended over three days from the arrival at the trail head to the arrival at the Sun Gate, which overlooks the destination. Figure 5.1 shows a detailed cross section of this Inca Trail hike, identifying the altitudes of the terrain. The Machu Picchu experience involved a three hour site visit.

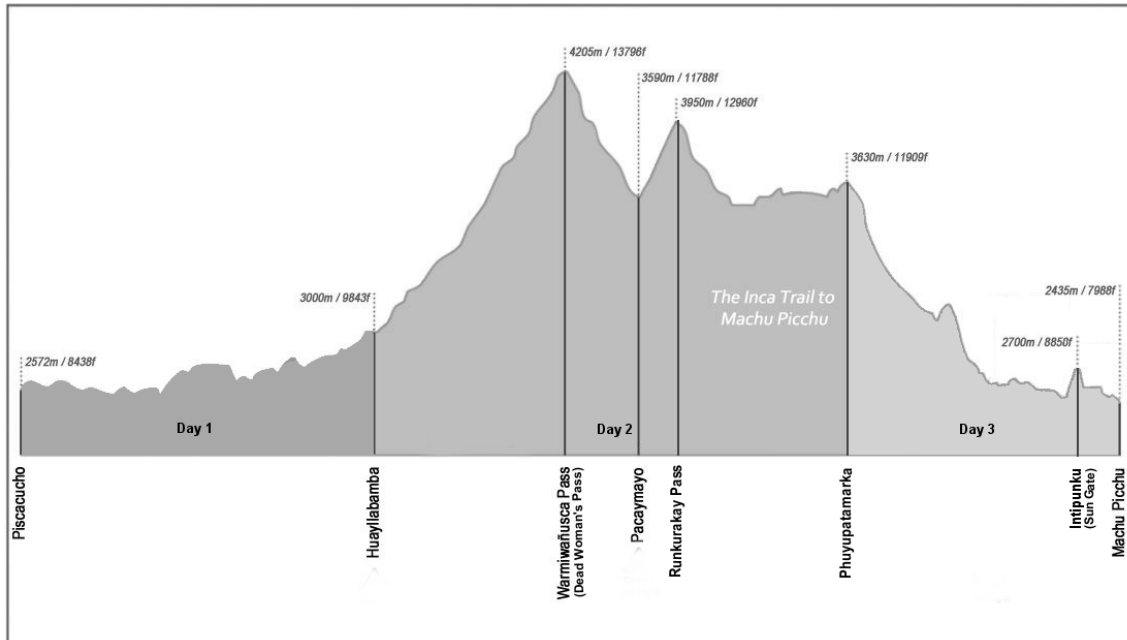


Figure 5.1. Elevation map of the Inca Trail hike undertaken by participants in this study. Adapted from Inca Trail elevation profile, in Peruvian Soul, n.d. Retrieved August 7, 2012, from [http://www.peruviansoul.com/external/Inca\\_Trail\\_Blog/Inca\\_Trail\\_Elevation\\_Profile.jpg](http://www.peruviansoul.com/external/Inca_Trail_Blog/Inca_Trail_Elevation_Profile.jpg). Adapted with permission.

### *Data Collection*

Similar studies on tourist experiences have used post trip in-depth interviews to capture participant memories (see Arnould & Price, 1993; Desforges, 2000; Noy, 2004; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). This method allows for story telling in an unstructured way (Desforges, 2000), capturing the narrative qualities of experiences central to the evaluation of a trip (Arnould & Price, 1993). We built on this by examining both short term and long term experiential memories using in-depth interviews and open-ended email surveys. However, as summarized by Feldman Barrett and Barret (2001), it has been well documented in psychology research that reliance on experiential memory can be problematic. People are influenced by a host of personal and event based characteristics that limit accurate

recollection of experiences. To address this, we examined immediate reactions to current experiences along with recollection data. However, our first problem was how to collect this immediate reaction data with participants who are moving. It is difficult to capture, record, and analyse the complex and transient experiences of subjects who are on the move (Spinney, 2011). Therefore the data collection method for immediate reactions had to be a mobile method, able to capture data during the hiking experience. Participant observation is a method used by other researchers to inform or augment recollection data (Arnould & Price, 1993; Desforges, 2000). This can be a mobile research method, but the researcher is limited to participant discussions with others and interpretations of behaviour. Walking interviews are another mobile research method (Roberson & Babic, 2009) but this requires the presence of the interviewer during the experience, which can be laborious for the researcher and obtrusive for the participant. Our research needed a method that allowed moving participants to discuss personal perceptions without really interrupting their experience.

Another challenge identified in the mobilities literature is how to explore both active and passive mobile experiences. Bissell (2010) points out that mobile research tends to focus on active experiences only, missing passive ones such as fatigue, hunger, or discomfort. Therefore this research needed to address how to collect data on a variety of experiences. Consequently, a new research design for immediate mobile tourist experiences was developed to address all these challenges by adapting an Experience Sampling Method (ESM) approach.

The ESM comes from leisure research where it is used to capture the perceptions of current experiences in natural settings through the repeated administration of self-reports (Hektner, Schmidt & Csikszentmihalyi, 2007; Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983). This minimizes the cognitive biases of retrieving data from memory by accessing more accurate

information and immediate perceptions on experiences (Barrett & Barrett, 2001). Though previously done using paper questionnaires, there has recently been a move towards digital data collection which provides more flexibility in questionnaire design, more options in timing, the ability to track compliance, and reduced human error when managing and transferring data (Barrett & Barrett, 2001; Hektner et al., 2007). This research followed the digital trend by adapting the ESM to allow deployment on a smartphone.

In modifying the ESM for smartphones, we created In Situ Tourist Experience Log (ISTEL) software to capture real time reactions of participants whilst in motion along the Inca Trail and at Machu Picchu. The ISTEL software is designed to prompt participants (via device vibration and audio chime) to complete a log five times a day at random intervals, coinciding with Hektner et al.'s (2007) advice to signal participants fewer than seven times per day if the collection method extends beyond three minutes per event. Random prompting, rather than activity-based, also allowed for the chance to capture both active and passive experiences. Participants were also able to manually initiate a smartphone log if they were experiencing something that they wanted to discuss. Each log asked a series of open-ended questions that the participants answered using prompted voice recordings, capturing descriptive qualities of the participant's perception of the experience. Participants would read the question on the screen, press a "Record" button, and then talk into the phone to record their answer. The questions asked about the current location, who the participant is with, the activity the participant is undertaking (if any), any emotions felt at that time, any learning experiences taking place, any general experiences worthy of note, and the specific positive and negative aspects of the current experience. The audio data was then stored on the smartphone until it could be downloaded. Given that participation in data collection during an experience can



interfere with the experience itself, participants were able to skip or snooze the ISTEEL log if they were unable or unwilling to complete a log at the time of prompting. However, participants were able to complete logs without interrupting even strenuous activities, such as hiking. To the casual observer the participant is simply talking into a phone, allowing for a more covert data collection process.

Along with immediate data, short term and long term recollected data was captured using two different methods. Short term recollection data consisted of recorded in-depth interviews that took place three to four months after the participants returned home. Participants were asked about their impressions of Peru, stories they tell about the trip, significant memories of the trip, best and worst parts of the experience, important learning experiences, any differences they noticed in themselves after the trip, general impressions of the experience, sensual memories, emotions related to the trip, reasons for visiting Peru, any plans to return to the country, and if they would encourage others to travel to Peru.

Long term data collection involved open-ended email surveys 16-17 months after the trip to ask the participant to again share memories of their trip. The survey questions repeated the in-depth interview questions and also asked about any further travel that had occurred after returning from Peru. Both recollection data methods asked about the trip overall and did not specifically ask about the Inca Trail. This was done to allow participants to interpret their own experience of the trip and any significant or memorable elements. Investigating post experience memory in the short and long term provides a basis for assessing how interpretations of tourist experiences change over time.

As with any study, there are limitations to this research design. With long term data collection, a second in-depth interview would have been preferred but this research was

limited by the availability of and access to the original participants. Many participants changed their contact details or place of residence within the 16 month period after returning from Peru. With immediate experience data collection, the use of a modified ESM program is more limited compared to in-depth interviews in capturing qualitative discussion because the program does not allow for probing questions. However, the use of smartphones addresses common concerns regarding changed behaviours or answers due to the presence of the researcher during data collection. Another concern with smartphone use is that training is needed to teach participants how to use the software. One of the co-researchers accompanied the participants on the trip to aid in trouble shooting any data collection issues. This co-researcher did not conduct any interviews or examine the data after the trip to address any preconceptions or influence on data analysis due to personal relationships that may have developed. The researcher responsible for data analysis did not travel to Peru for this research and did not have any personal relationships with participants.

### *Data Analysis*

All audio data from the ISTEEL program and in-depth interviews were transcribed and imported into NVivo software along with the email survey responses to create three data sets: Immediate experiential data, Short term recollection data, and Long term recollection data. NVivo is a data organization software that allows researchers to sort and classify data based on the specific aims of the analysis process (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In this research the goal was to explore a mobile tourist experience, so a conventional content analysis approach was used. This approach derives coding categories directly from the data; where data sets are repeatedly read to gain a sense of the whole and then read to derive codes that capture key

concepts from the text (Hannam, Butler, & Paris, 2014). These emergent codes are then categorized and grouped in a meaningful way. Each data set underwent this process of content analysis. A summative evaluation of the data sets was then used to compare overarching categories to better understand the underlying contexts in all three data sets.

### *Participants*

ESM studies are generally based on small sample sizes due to the specific focus of the research and the considerable effort required for data collection. Hektner et al. (2007) argue that studies with ten participants (or less in some cases) can still yield rich data sets. This study is based on an opportunity sample of fifteen upper year university students who travelled to Peru in August 2008 on a ten day educational tour which included the Inca Trail hike to Machu Picchu. Each participant was given a smartphone with the ISTEEL software. It was essential to find participants who had the technical abilities to use the smartphone and who could return it to the researchers afterwards. Some of the participants knew each other before the trip while others met during a trip orientation and training session on using the smartphone software. There were eleven female and four male participants ranging in age from 20 to 28. All names of participants have been changed to protect privacy.

### **Results**

This section presents the findings of the content analysis in three parts. The first part focuses on the immediate experiential reactions during the Inca Trail hike. The second part describes the immediate reactions to Machu Picchu. The final part presents results from the short term and long term recollected data on the Inca Trail and Machu Picchu experience.

### *Immediate Experiences of the Inca Trail Journey*

A total of 229 immediate experience logs were recorded during the three day hike with each participant recording an average of 15 total logs (range: 5-21). The logs were completed during active and passive events such as resting, hiking, eating, socializing, washing, preparing for sleep, or observing ruins. Discussions on these experiences were grouped into overarching categories based on emergent coding related to emotional experiences, learning experiences, physical experiences, and perceptions of Machu Picchu.

When participants were asked about emotions, both positive and negative feelings were discussed. Feelings of excitement were most common on the first day of the hike then declined on the second, where participants were more likely to feel exhaustion. Excitement increased again on the final day with participants heading towards the destination. Most feelings of accomplishment and pride were found on the second day and associated with reaching the trail peak of Dead Woman's Pass (see Figure 5.1).

I feel great about this experience, it's really great to be here and to make it, not only through the hardest day but to keep on going on our hike through the hardest day, really amazing experience. And I feel great, really proud of myself for doing it; it's not an easy climb, probably one of the hardest climbs ever in my life (Olivia, Inca Trail, Day 2)

There were more negative feelings discussed on the second day, which were associated with physical attributes such as pain and exhaustion rather than emotions. Nervousness was highest on the first day, when participants were trying to gauge the difficulty of the hike and their own physical fitness levels. Overall, the majority of discussion on emotion was positive. These positive feelings remained relatively consistent throughout the three days.

Along with emotions, participants were asked to discuss if they were learning anything. The most common theme, found in almost half the logs, was learning about self. “I’m learning that if you just push through you can accomplish anything” (Emily, Inca Trail, Day 2). These discussions about self-learning involved themes of personal abilities and accomplishment, physical fitness levels, and personal limits or endurance with a few logs also touching on enjoyment and learning related to emotions. More than half the logs on self-learning were recorded on the second day, which was the day with the highest ascents (see Figure 5.1). Along with self-learning, there were numerous logs discussing culture and history. “Currently learning a lot about the Inca culture, how they developed, how they settled, why they settled, the fact that Machu Picchu is so big is because the Spanish, they never found the development” (Jessica, Inca Trail, day 1). These discussions tended to be vague with more than half taking place on the first day. There were also a similar number of logs with discussions on learning about other tourists in the group or the porters and guides. These learning experiences related to the preferences of others, shared feelings of exhaustion, supportiveness, or physical fitness levels. Participants also acknowledged times when they were not learning anything. There were a few limited discussions on learning related to practical skill building, geography, leisure, ecology, climate, language, food, and health.

Questions were asked regarding emotions and learning experiences but there were no questions asked about physical experiences or mobility, other than asking participants to describe their current activity. Despite this, participants often discussed physical experiences noting movement as well as pain and struggle. Some discussions cited physical movement as the best part of current experiences. “The best part of this experience is just hiking up the trail and being able to do it” (Blair, Inca Trail, Day 1). More often hiking was discussed as a

negative experience. “The worst part is that there's three more hours to hike” (Rachel, Inca Trail, Day 2). In a few of the logs hiking was both the worst and best part, seen as a beneficial experience but physically difficult. Participants also discussed physical movement in terms of hiking skills and strategies and the difficulties associated with hiking activities, such as pain.

More than half of all logs during the Inca Trail experience contained discussions on pain and struggle. “The mountains are starting to wear us down. Everyone’s dead tired from the last climb, not much left in us.” (Chris, Inca Trail, Day 2). Participants talked about this in terms of how it related to exhaustion, injury, physical difficulty, discomfort, and limitations of the body. Feelings of exhaustion were specifically described by all of the participants during the hike. “I’m very excited that we’re almost done, I can’t wait to get to the end, I’m tired, exhausted, beyond exhausted” (Michelle, Inca Trail, Day 3). Pain was also discussed by all participants at least once during the three day journey. “Worst part of the experience was hurting my ankle and not wanting to get to the top cause it hurts so much” (Hannah, Inca Trail, Day 2). Other physical discomforts discussed included feeling cold, having additional health issues, annoyances involving insects, and tripping or stumbling along the path. Furthermore, participants identified personal physical limitations. “I am learning that I am coming to my limits. Body feels like a train wreck.” (Chris, Inca Trail, Day 2).

Though the logs did not ask any questions about the destination of the hike, all but one of the participants mentioned Machu Picchu. This coded category emerged as a frequently discussed element. Most of the Machu Picchu mentions were very general, referring to it as the destination. “Apparently today we could make it to Machu Picchu if we wanted to but we might be staying in camp overnight” (Emily, Inca Trail, Day 3). Almost a third of the Machu Picchu discussions were related to the achievement of hiking to the destination. Some of the

mentions do involve imagery, describing the visual qualities of the destination. These discussions were more abundant at the Sun Gate where participants had the first glimpse of the destination. “It's interesting to see Machu Picchu in real life, like I can Google image it so many times but this is the first time I've actually seen it and it's pretty cool” (Rachel, Inca Trail, Day 3). The arrival at the Sun Gate marked the end of the Inca Trail hike.

### *Immediate Experiences of the Destination of Machu Picchu*

A total of 20 immediate experience logs were recorded by 14 participants during the three hour Machu Picchu visit. In summarizing these logs, the perceptions of the experiences were grouped into three central categories. The first related to emotions where positive feelings were most often recorded with participants discussing feelings of amazement, relief at finishing the trail, a sense of accomplishment, and happiness. There were some reports of mixed emotions where awe in reaching Machu Picchu was discussed alongside the exhaustion felt after completing the Inca Trail. The second category was related to learning with half of these discussions centred on history and Incan cultural heritage. A third of the learning-based discussions were about self, but in many cases this was associated with the trail rather than Machu Picchu. “I'm feeling pretty powerful right now... I definitely feel I can do pretty much anything ... with having done the trail” (Rebecca, Machu Picchu). Other learning experiences included discussions about other tourists and contemporary Peruvian culture. The third central category found was the relationship between the destination and the hike. During the Machu Picchu visit ten participants discussed the hike in their logs. Most of these discussions were centred on emotions related to pride and/or accomplishment. “About myself I learned I can do

something like this [Inca Trail hike], it's pretty cool. Yeah so I'm just so proud of everyone” (Jessica, Machu Picchu).

### *Memories of the Journey and Destination*

Both short term and long term post trip experiential perceptions of the Inca Trail and Machu Picchu were analysed to explore the memory of these experiences. All 15 participants were interviewed three to four months after the trip to capture short term recollection data. In short term recollection, the experience of the Inca Trail is heavily discussed. Twelve of the fifteen participants discussed the trail as a memorable story involving difficulty and perseverance while only a couple of participants mention Machu Picchu. The trail was also discussed by eight participants as the most significant memory of the trip. Though six participants discussed Machu Picchu as a significant memory, five talked about the site as a destination of the hike. Eight participants discussed the hike as the best experience of their trip while seven discussed it as the worst. For two participants, the hike was both the best and worst experience. Five participants mentioned Machu Picchu as the best part of the trip.

Participants did not clearly connect Machu Picchu with discussions on identity but the Inca Trail is discussed as a marker of self-change, with six participants mentioning this element.

It [Inca Trail] was one of the hardest things I've ever had to do in my life. But I mean, I'm stronger because of it. And I'll always remember that and how I can do anything now. ... And I think that's really one of the big things that I learned from that trip. I learned about myself and what I can do if I put my mind to something without anyone else, cause it was all me. I had, I mean I had people there to support me but I had, it had to be my decision to keep going and I had to get out of there and I had to walk. (Blair, short term recollection)



Physical pain and hardship featured strongly in Inca Trail memories. Eleven of the fifteen participants associated the trail with feelings of difficulty, pain, limitations, and sickness. The recollection of physical difficulty also involved stories of perseverance and triumph in completing the trail.

Well I mean now that I can hike through extreme pain. And kind of like the motivation, I can get through. I haven't been travelling a lot so this trip has been a new experience for me in that kind of sense. But to just know that I can still go through physical pain like that and still hike. (Hannah, short term recollection)

It got to a point where your body just got numb, you didn't feel any more pain and then, there was this hill, I think it was up to Dead Woman's Pass, where your hiking and hiking and hiking and literally every 10 steps you have to stop and take a break. But, I don't know if it's because you're so tired or just because yeah, well the altitude too, but then it just became a mind game. (Michelle, short term recollection)

In long term recollection the Inca Trail was still prominent, but Machu Picchu became a stronger memorable experience. These recollections were from open-ended email surveys that were returned by 12 participants (80% response rate) 16-17 months after the trip. When participants thought of their time in Peru, eight thought of images involving the Inca Trail and seven thought of Machu Picchu. In the stories that are still told to friends and family about the trip, eight participants discussed the trail while three discussed Machu Picchu. Stories of the trail focused mainly on perseverance, though a few participants did mention landscape, services, and porters. Seven participants referenced the trail as a significant memory mainly related to feelings of accomplishment. Half the participants discuss Machu Picchu, but much of this discussion focused on its association with finishing the trail. "Machu Picchu leaves

images in my mind that will never leave and the sense of accomplishment will live with me forever” (Laura, long term recollection).

Memories of physical pain and hardship associated with the Inca Trail remain present in long term recollection for half of the participants.

The most intense part of my Peru trip was hiking the Inca Trail. I remember going every few steps with my puffer in hand, taking a few puffs every few minutes. I was pretty short of breath, and the physical exertion of this pretty much killed me. (Jessica, long term recollection)

... The pain in my muscles as I walked up the mountains. While every time you round the peak of one mountain, another one was just around the bend. At certain points along the climb I needed to stop every 10 steps. We literally had a count off ten steps! The altitude made your legs so tired so quickly, and it felt like a million bricks laying on your chest. (Michelle, long term recollection)

For four participants, Machu Picchu is remembered as the best part of the trip to Peru, whereas three participants discussed the Inca Trail.

In the long term recollection surveys, participants were asked if their experiences in Peru had changed them in any way. For many participants, the Peru experience highlighted the differences between home and away, making them more appreciative and aware of their everyday lives and home country. For some participants, the trip encouraged them to do more travel outside North America and to go outside their own comfort zones. The trip is also related to wanting to learn more about the world or pursuing further education in other countries. These discussions are linked to the experience of Peru as a whole. In long term recollection none of the participants specifically credit the Inca Trail or Machu Picchu experience as a catalyst for self change.

## Discussion

In this section the overarching themes that emerged from the results are discussed and linked back to tourism research literature. The three major areas of discussion focus on the self in mobile tourism experiences, the comparisons between mobile experiences and destination experiences, and the implications of this research in managing tourism experiences.

### *The Journey into Self*

The focus on the self has been part of other tourism studies which demonstrate links between identity and tourist experiences (Arnould & Price, 1993; Desforges, 2000; Neumann, 1992; Noy, 2004; Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Selstad, 2007). This study adds to this literature by revealing a strong focus on the emotional self, self-learning, and the corporeal self in immediate reactions to the Inca Trail experience. This is coupled with participant memories emphasizing physical challenges and accomplishment in stories of self-transformation. Desforges' (2000) study reveals a strong connection between tourism and self-identity for British tourists who visited Peru. This connection is reiterated in our research on Canadian tourists who undertook a physically challenging mobile experience, which acted as a peak event. These types of peak events exhibit an unplanned intensity and, as argued by Neumann (1992), become markers for stories on profound experiences of tourism. These events are discussed by Arnould and Price (1993) as extraordinary experiences. Findings from our research corroborate their discussion on how extraordinary experiences lead to themes of personal growth and a rediscovered self in trip memories. While hiking the Inca trail, participants discussed skill building, a testing of limitations, and feelings of achievement.

These discussions, related to personal growth, did not fade over time. The memories of the hiking experience emphasize achievement and the overcoming of both physical and mental obstacles. The completion of the trail becomes evidence of new personal abilities. However, where Arnould and Price (1992) and Desforges (2000) focus on the perceptions of self and narratives of identity based on tourist experiences, this research departs from these earlier works in also exploring themes of mobility.

Urry (2007) argues that in tourism, mobility can impact our understanding of self, place, and experience. This is confirmed in our research where the Inca Trail hike was not seen by participants as merely a way to get to Machu Picchu. The hike was a journey where participants prescribed meaning to their encounter with the trail. These findings mimic conclusions from Neumann's (1992) Grand Canyon research where hiking experiences, emphasizing physical and mental struggles, resulted in stories of endurance, perseverance, and accomplishment. In both Neumann's research and our research, participants placed value on the difficulty of the trail and the endurance needed to prevail. Our findings reinforce Neumann's conclusions that these experiences reveal complex relationships between the physical landscape and the individual. While on the trail participants focused on the corporeal experience and their reactions lacked reflective dialogue. In both short and long term recollection, stories and discussions about the hike suggested that the physical experience of space had shaped self-perceptions. The trail experience emerged as a significant memory of self-change in short term recollection. This adds to the body of evidence on the relationship between walking (or hiking in this case) and the understanding of self (Adler, 1989; Edensor, 2000; Neumann, 1992; Roberson & Babic, 2009; Wylie, 2005). However, it was in exploring

these ideas of mobility that the results of this research reveal an alternate way of knowing the self through walking practices, and that is through the experience of corporeality.

All participants recognized and discussed the experience of the physical self on the trail in both immediate reactions to the experience and in post trip recollections, though open ended questions did not prompt for this kind of information. These concepts of corporeal self emerged as a notable part of the participant's perception of their experience with special attention paid to pain and struggle. Green (2011) describes how pain unites the physical self in space and time as the individual focuses on the discomfort. The focus on physical discomfort during the hike demonstrates how distracting physical needs can be, potentially preventing higher levels of thinking or reflection on experiences.

I think the one thing I'm learning from this experience is that regardless of pains in your knees or your shoulders or blisters on your feet, you just got to forget about it and keep on going and you'll be good and the pains seems to subside, although when you keep thinking about it and keep complaining about it, you slow down and you don't enjoy the journey as much. (Heather, Inca Trail, Day 3)

Wylie (2005) argues that pain in walking distracts one from having a more sublime experience, forcing the individual to be conscious of the present. This could be why participants in this study were less focused on historical, cultural, or even natural qualities of the trail. Most mentions of history or culture were on the first day of the hike, where participants encountered the easiest terrain. The physical challenges of the second day seemed to eclipse any historical or cultural experiences, with participants focused more on corporeality and self-learning. Their conversations demonstrated an emphasis on pain and physical fatigue, which may not have allowed their minds to wander to a more imagined space. This supports discussions by Wylie (2005) on self and landscape but differs from

Arellano's (2004) study where the Inca Trail is discussed as a way to perform or sense the Incas. Though there was a respect or admiration for the physical fitness levels needed to hike the route, there was limited discussion by participants on reviving any 'Incanness'.

During hiking, pain and physical struggle seemed to push the individual into a more visceral or primitive experience of a body moving through landscape. Arellano (2004) discusses how many hikers on the Inca Trail are not experienced, making the trail a unique challenge where tourists confront physical thresholds. Both during and after the trip, some participants in this study discussed their bodily limits, recognizing how unprepared they were for this physical experience. This experience of limits is acknowledged as not only a physical test but also a mental test, where boundaries are met and pushed. There were incredible highs (both in emotion and altitude) and incredible lows (in mood and physical pain). Abrahamsson and Simpson (2011) argue that experiencing the limits of the body is related to our understanding of the human experience. In our research, there are hints that this holds true. These meetings of the body, of limits, and of ability were a strong theme during the hike and remained as vivid and lasting memories where the corporeal experience of the trail transformed into an understanding of self.

Participants indicated that the experience of the trail was life changing in terms of how they now understand their own character and abilities. "From this experience I've learned... what I can endure" (Jessica, Inca Trail, Day 3). This is not just applicable to physical activity. Participants discussed how the ability to overcome struggles and push limits became a lesson in how to approach future challenges. "It was so empowering to finish, I can do anything, especially going into your fourth year of university, you're like okay, I can climb that - I can climb life" (Rachel, short term recollection). The body is celebrated and the overcoming of

physical struggle on the hike is a metaphor for overcoming all obstacles. The presence of pain and exhaustion are a way to connect with strong emotions of pride and accomplishment leading to memories of the Inca Trail as a journey of resilience and triumph. This creates an almost pleasurable association with pain, where the struggle becomes a source of strength or as Ryan (2002a) states - a trophy of the trip.

This sense of accomplishment and self-change remains strong in the months following the trip but becomes vague in long term recollection. This could provide evidence that the effects of these kinds of peak experiences in tourism have few lasting consequences on identity. However, there are alternative explanations. In returning to everyday life, participants have few opportunities to face challenges similar to a three day mountain hike. The chance to test and reaffirm the change in self is not available as work and social time become the focus, rather than the pursuit of the extraordinary. This may be why long term recollections do not seem as passionate regarding the Inca Trail. Another possibility is that over time, the changes in identity due to this experience have been adopted and are no longer a new discovery worthy of discussion. The lessons learned have become part of the self, taken for granted rather than voiced as remarkable elements credited to a remarkable event.

I'm not a huge story teller. When I travel I only seem to remember snippets and not whole stories. I have a great time on my trips but I guess my memory fails me - or the story just becomes a part of who I am. (Lauren, long term recollection)

Though not explicitly credited to the Inca Trail experience, long term recollections do hint at increased levels of self-assurance and self-reliance. The yearning for new challenges and the confidence in one's ability to negotiate other destinations and unfamiliar situations does indicate that participants have internalized elements of their Peru experience.

### *The Journey and the Destination*

In this study we examined Inca trail data as well as Machu Picchu data to gain a broader understanding of mobile experiences by relating these to destination experiences. We found that the hike is connected to the ability to enjoy Machu Picchu, which is described often as an ending of the trail. In immediate reactions, the trail held more personal experiences of self and a wider range of emotions, both positive and negative. The multifaceted and sometimes conflicting emotions felt along the trail reveal an emotional intensity associated with the physical qualities of the experience. Participants felt excitement and nervousness starting the trail, exhaustion related to hiking, and pride in reaching peaks. At the destination participants were mostly positive, discussing amazement and relief. Machu Picchu is a place of history and cultural learning rather than self-evaluation. Any immediate reactions on the self during the site visit were associated with the trail. Though participants were at a prominent World Heritage Site, much of the discussion was still centred on the hike rather than the qualities of the destination.

Inca Trail stories were dominant in short term memories of the trip. The elements of the trail itself acted as triggers of memorable experiences. First, participants spent three days on the trail compared to the three hours at Machu Picchu. This difference in time span influences the amount and type of experiences that can take place. Second, many aspects of the trail experience coincide with Tung and Ritchie's (2011) dimensions on memorable experiences in tourism. For many participants the hike surpassed expectations or provided surprises, which relates to the expectations dimension. However, many memories are linked to negative surprises about physical struggle or pain. These negative aspects do not adhere to



Tung and Ritchie's findings where memorable experiences were overwhelmingly positive. This indicates that the elements of expectations need to be more carefully considered. Perhaps it is the intensity of the surprise rather than the positive or negative aspect that leads to memorability. Aspects of the Inca Trail experience also relate to the perceived importance of the experience. The trail experience led to memories of self-discovery and pride in overcoming physical challenges. According to Tung and Ritchie (2011) this is a sub-element of the consequentiality dimension. These physical challenges are emphasized in both short and long term memories of the trail. "It was very difficult at times, but the sense of accomplishment attained from completing the hike influences my perspective now." (Daniel, long term recollection). In evaluating trip memories, the experience of the trail is important because of the physical hardships. These hardships are not present at Machu Picchu, yet the challenge of the trail infiltrates into the memories of the destination. Machu Picchu is remembered by participants as a historic icon but also a site of triumph.

I didn't think the Inca Trail would be that difficult. And I play a lot of sports and I feel like I'm pretty physically fit and it was pretty gruelling on me and then when you get to the top and you see Machu Picchu, it's pretty satisfying that you hike this whole trail and you get to see this, this wonder of the world. (Alex, short term recollection)

And obviously I think the hike was awesome because it was just so enduring but at the same time it was rewarding to finish it and it was rewarding to get there [Machu Picchu], there was some sort of like prize at the end. (Daniel, short term recollection)

At Machu Picchu, the trail has been conquered and the conqueror can now walk through his or her just reward. The self, having defeated the landscape, retreats safely back into the role of spectator. Emotions were less raw and variable in immediate reactions. Discussions were calm and thoughtful drawing attention to culture and history. Short term

memories of Machu Picchu centred on beauty and historical interest. However, the significance of the destination became stronger over time. Long term memories were still tied to the Inca Trail experience but the emphasis shifted to the destination. “I always have the picture of walking through the Sun Gate and seeing Machu Picchu. I don’t know why because I felt like Machu Picchu looked like all the other ruins on the way - but I appreciate it a lot more now” (Lauren, long term recollection). The reasons for this shift are not readily apparent but may be related to other dimensions of memorable experiences that were not investigated in this study.

### *Tourist Experience Management*

The themes that emerged from this data contribute to the body of research on tourism experiences and mobility, but these results can also be examined in terms of potential practical implications in tourism. The participant focus on physical struggle can be developed further regarding how this relates to elements of expectation and memorability in managing tourism experiences.

Previous research on the tourist experience considers how meeting or going beyond expectations plays a role in creating lasting positive memories (Arnould & Price, 1993; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In looking at the experience of the Inca Trail, expectations were exceeded but in a negative way. The trail was harder and more painful than individuals had expected, and yet this still resulted in a heightened and memorable experience. This is related to discussions by Arnould and Price (1993) who argue that trip satisfaction in extraordinary experiences is not based on meeting expectations. The consumer experience is much more complex. This complicates the management task of meeting or responding to the desires of

tourists. Desforges (2000) concludes that understanding the desires of tourists should involve a recognition of the ways in which tourism can be a meaningful part of identity. This research demonstrated a relationship between tourism experiences and identity, yet it was not the experience of pleasure that was communicated as meaningful. Pain and hardship emerged as important elements of this mobile tourist experience. Painful experiences were given a great deal of attention in immediate reactions and were marked as moments of personal growth. This ability to overcome a physical challenge evolved into salient memories of accomplishment in post trip narratives, incorporated into stories of self-identity and self-transformation.

In applying this result to managing and planning for memorable and satisfying tourist experiences, should we consider pain or hardship? It seems counterintuitive to the more traditional tourism management emphasis on providing positive experiential elements such as relaxation, education, and enjoyment. In Tung and Ritchie's (2011) discussion on memorable experiences, they encourage tourism planners to deliver positive memorable surprises. Yet our results suggest that memorable experiences are more complex than providing pleasure. Memorable experiences in this research relate to surprises based on intense challenges. Results indicate that it was the moments of difficulty, of overcoming pain and struggle, which led to deep understandings of self and more meaningful and memorable tourist experiences. For destinations that cater to more adventurous tourists, this becomes an interesting idea leading to questions on experience provision. Should we plan for experiences of difficulty? Since memorability is argued to rely on the unexpected, should tourists remain unaware of the difficulties that come with an experience? On a certain level, this seems to be what happens in the Inca Trail experience. Even with all the information available about the trail in

guidebooks, on trip websites, or through guides on site, each of the participants found that it was much more difficult than expected. There is nothing to indicate that this is a purposely planned element of the Inca Trail. If it were, it would be an example of a novel management design that went beyond traditional thinking on providing for meaningful and memorable experiences in tourism.

## **Conclusion**

This paper considered the experiential aspects of mobility in tourism by examining experiences of the Inca Trail hike. The meanings produced in the moment and the memories that remain of the hike suggest that the Inca Trail is a fluid space where perceptions of identity and corporeality are confronted and explored, attributing value to this mobile tourist experience. This research indicates that this iconic tourist route was a significant experience that impacted on understandings of self.

Results of this research demonstrate that the experience of Machu Picchu is eclipsed by the emotional, educational, and physical journey of reaching it. This journey is shown to be an important marker of identity and personal growth which is highly related to the experience of pain and difficulty along the trail. In integrating immediate and recollection data collection methods, this research provides a broader view of what these participants experienced along the trail and at the destination. The qualitative research design using methods that addressed difficulties in mobilities research allowed for insights into how this mobile experience in tourism is understood in the moment and remembered over time.

This study yields interesting results that require investigation beyond this one sample and demonstrate the need for several future avenues of inquiry regarding tourist experiences.

First, future studies should examine both real time and recollection data to connect the qualities of in situ experiences to lasting tourist memories in a wider variety of tourist situations. Second, the examination of mobile experiences in tourism is lacking and requires more attention to investigate the complexities of tourist movement in both active and passive experiences. Future studies using this research design could help to validate mobile research methods and expand our understanding of how tourists perceive 'travel' in tourism. Third, more research is needed on the experience of pain and difficulty in tourism. This is a new area of investigation in examining tourist experiences and memorable experiences. This could also be translated into other experiences of discomfort, such as experiences of emotional pain or experiences of cognitive discomfort from cultural experiences, where the individual's patience or sense of safety reaches its limits. Fourth, though hardship was a major topic of discussion, the memorable narratives were related to accomplishment because participants successfully completed the Inca Trail. What would the result be if someone did not complete it? Future research focusing on failed challenges in tourism could shed new light on the complex relationship between tourist experiences and self-identity. Fifth, more work needs to be done on how to incorporate results on mobile experiences and challenges in tourism into the planning and management of memorable tourism experiences. Last, research into how tourist experiences translate into long term changes in identity warrants further study as this relationship is complex but lacks strong empirical evidence in the literature.

## Chapter 6: Conclusions

Cumulatively, the chapters presented here explore the subjective aspects of tourist experiences through the development of a research design which captures data on the perceptions of momentary and memorable experiences of an educational trip to Peru. The data was examined to discern themes that describe the perceptions of educational tourist experiences in the moment and how these perceptions change over time. This doctoral dissertation responds to gaps in the literature regarding:

- the definitional elements of tourist experiences;
- the immediate in situ experiences of tourists;
- the use of momentary methods in tourist experience research;
- the use of smartphones as a data collection tool in social sciences;
- the experience of a World Heritage Site (WHS);
- the study of mobility and mobile practices in tourism; and
- the study of pain and corporeality in tourist experiences.

Overall, this thesis addresses these knowledge gaps by examining understudied aspects in tourist experience research using a tourist centred research design. Chapter 2 summarizes the dimensions and relationships involved in the tourist experience, providing a literature review of this phenomenon. This is done by tracing research on definitional approaches, experiential phases, influences, and personal outcomes involved tourist experiences. Chapter 3 describes the immediate in situ approach used in this dissertation, focusing on the operational aspects of the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) and its application on smartphones. Chapter 4 examines the experience of a WHS, revealing complex

visitor understandings of Machu Picchu through immediate reactions, photography, and memory. In Chapter 5, the mobile experience of hiking is examined in the moment and in memory, with a focus on the experience of identity through the perceived self and the tangible self. Together, these chapters explore the subjective experiences of tourists to provide a better understanding of the aspects involved in tourist experiences, the research design developed to capture immediate and memorable experiences, the perceptions of momentary in situ tourist experiences, and how tourist experience perceptions change over time.

### **Key Research Findings**

The findings of the manuscripts relate to both the research phenomenon and research process. Chapter 2 provides a literature review of tourist experience research, addressing the first objective of this dissertation by exploring the subjective aspects involved in these experiences. Though this paper is not based on findings and discussion from the empirical examination of data, it provides the context for this research by bringing phases, influences, and outcomes together into a tourist experience model. The overall conclusion of the paper is that there are still numerous areas of inquiry needed into the complexities and relationships involved in this phenomenon.

Chapter 3 examines the use of ESM as a momentary research approach to the study of tourist experiences. The findings reveal a complicated relationship between the research procedure and the capturing of tourist experiences based on the length of discussion, the presence of ESM challenges, and the use of digital ESM on smartphones. In evaluating the qualitative ESM data, the length of momentary discussion is linked to neutral moods and transportation events. Intensity in mood has no significant impact on the extent to which

participants share their momentary experience. The end of the study period marks a decrease in voice recording length but not ESM compliance. Challenges associated with ESM burden and intrusions are supported, where participants acknowledge technical issues, repetition, and negative emotional reactions associated with data collection procedures. There is also evidence of reactivity in momentary data collection. However, the possible increase in reactivity due to the ESM process is argued to be of benefit, where increasing self-awareness could improve self-reporting on subjective states. Despite the potential for error reduction in using digital ESM on smartphones, both technical and translation errors impact a portion of the data. The evaluation of the use of smartphones in data collection reveals that though they are touted as a less intrusive tool, their use is linked with feelings of awkwardness and embarrassment. However, evidence of a developing relationship, between the participants and the researcher through the use of smartphones, also emerges. ESM discussions demonstrate a humanizing of the research tool. Overall, this chapter addresses the research objectives by discussing the development of the research design and evaluating the mechanics of ESM.

The experience of Machu Picchu is examined in Chapter 4 through immediacy, photography, and memory. The findings emphasize the significance of social context and personal encounters with the site as demonstrated in photographic images and momentary discussions. Findings also show that these discussions, in situ and in memory, are heavily influenced by the method of arrival to the site, with the perceived significance of the WHS growing stronger over time.

Though social relationships and social context do not feature prominently in ESM discussions, it is a major area of post trip discussion and is visible in tourist photographs. The photographs also reveal a more individual encounter with Machu Picchu. They provide



evidence of travel accomplishment through the capture of the self in place and with idealized images of the destination, showing ruins in seemingly remote landscapes, omitting signs of other tourists or tourism infrastructure. Results also indicate that participants who took more photographs of Machu Picchu had strong positive memories of the experience.

The personal significance of the site was dependent upon the method of arrival. Those arriving by train and bus discuss distinct site characteristics of Machu Picchu, showing interest and amazement related to history and culture. Those who arrived after hiking the Inca Trail focus less on heritage qualities but demonstrate a more intimate connection with the site as a space of accomplishment. This bond endures, resurfacing in both short and long term recollection data. For all participants, the memory of Machu Picchu becomes more positive and prevalent over time.

Chapter 5 delves deeper into the experience of the Inca Trail where findings reveal an emphasis on the experience of self through the mobile practice of hiking. This paper examines the perceptions of momentary experiences along the Inca Trail and compares these with the perceptions of momentary experiences at Machu Picchu. The short and long term memories of those experiences are analysed to understand how perceptions of mobile practices and site experiences change over time. All participants discuss their physical self in momentary data, stressing pain and hardship in the trail experience. The physical difficulties encountered along the trail become a way to confront and transform the self, highlighting the mobile journey as an experience of accomplishment and personal growth. The importance of the hiking experience features heavily in momentary reactions and short term memory but is less prominent in the long term recollection data, where the experience of the destination of Machu Picchu is highlighted.

In amalgamating the research findings from all manuscripts, this dissertation provides a better understanding of the nature of educational tourist experiences. Results demonstrate subjective aspects of experiences through the research on defining elements involved in the tourist experience, the use of tourist centred research methods, the examination of site experiences, and the analysis of mobile experiences. The research methodology used to capture subjective experiential data is explored through the evaluation of ESM mechanics and its implementation in investigating experiences at a WHS and along a heritage trail. The research design demonstrates an ability to capture both qualitative and quantitative data on momentary experiences through the use of a digital and mobile data collection tool, allowing for comparisons to be made with recollection data to show changes over time. Investigation into the perceptions of momentary experiences reveals meanings and relationships, which emerge from mobile and site-based experiences. The multiple phases of the data collection, involving short and long term recollection, capture how mobile and site-based meanings and relationships change over time.

### **Practical and Theoretical Implications**

This doctoral thesis advances knowledge on the complexities involved in subjective tourist experiences through the examination of educational tourists in Peru. The major contributions of this thesis to the tourist experience knowledge base are on the capture and examination of in situ experiences.

In developing an immediate approach to tourist experience research, this work addresses challenges in momentary data collection through the creation and testing of an

adapted ESM design on smartphone technology. This adaptation advances theory on momentary experience sampling procedures and issues of mobility in research designs. This research approach also modifies a valid and widely used experience-based method to emerging technology. The design of ESM using voice recording software allows for the capture of qualitative data on experiences in tourism, contributing to the technological and methodological advancement of this research procedure. In examining the operationalization of an ESM application in the study of tourist experiences, this research raises awareness on this method's potential in tourism studies. The evaluation of the method's mechanics results in discussions on the use of smartphones in data collection procedures, demonstrating the presence of reactivity and acknowledging the potential benefit of heightened awareness in experience sampling. These discussions develop and advance knowledge on the digitization of research methods and the opportunities and challenges this can bring to research approaches in the social sciences. Findings on the humanization of the smartphone could have significant ramifications in using this tool for research and data collection purposes, and this needs to be examined further.

This research expands tourist experience theory through the examination of moment-by-moment in situ experiences, providing another way of engaging in and understanding tourist experience research. There have been calls for tourism research into immediate conscious experiences for several decades, to gain a better understanding of the whole tourist experience. However, few researchers have used in situ methods to study tourist experiences. The additional capture of recollected tourist experience data allows for comparisons to be made between momentary and memorable tourist perceptions of trip events. This holistic approach to tourist experience research provides insight into how experiences are understood

in the moment and remembered over time, expanding theory on the dynamic nature of human experiences in tourism. Comparing ongoing real time data capture within naturally occurring contexts with data capture on experiential memory allows for the in-depth examination of two tourist events.

In exploring experiences of a WHS in situ, in photography, and in memory, this research contributes to improving knowledge on the experiences of sites of global significance to better understand individual perceptions of iconic places. The use of verbal and visual momentary data from ESM and tourist photography provides insight into actual experiences on site, which differ from remembered experiences and the significance later attributed to the Machu Picchu WHS.

In exploring experiences along the Inca Trail, this research informs theory on tourism mobilities and mobile practices. The overall findings corroborate research on themes of personal growth and self-identity in tourism but expand on these by emphasizing the significance of corporeality in tourist experiences. The qualitative research design addresses difficulties in mobilities research methodology and advances knowledge on how hiking experiences in tourism are understood in the moment and remembered over time. Through these various contributions to knowledge, the total research effort addresses gaps in tourist experience literature and informs practice on immediate research approaches.

Finally, this research contributes to new understandings on tourist experiences and mobilities through the emphasis on pain, physical challenge, and discomfort in tourism. Tourism as an industry tends to focus on pleasure and satisfaction, exploring positive emotions and aspects involved in experiences. Only recently has there been developing research on tourist bodies (Veijola & Jokinen, 1994) and sensual experiences (Edensor, 2000;

Matteucci, 2014) but there is very limited discussion on pain. This study makes a strong contribution in this area by empirically exploring pain and corporeality along the Inca Trail, demonstrating the importance of negative physical experiences in the perception of self-identity and in experiential tourist memory.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

All research is based on choices. These choices involve the phenomenon under study, the purpose and objectives of the research, and the research methodology employed. Each choice limits the researcher to more specific areas of study and data collection, which focus on accomplishable tasks. Research procedures and analysis also reveal limitations in method and theory as the researcher hones his or her skills and recognizes the challenges that arise, adapting to foreseeable and unforeseeable circumstances. When openly presented and discussed, the limitations and challenges provide learning opportunities for future research efforts. There were several challenges faced in this doctoral study with regard to research design, implementation, and analysis.

During the first year of doctoral studies, the opportunity to sample a group of final year university students arose. The research design had to be done quickly to gain ethics approval and develop software for use with this participant group. This put time constraints on the research design process, where choices had to be made, with limited opportunity for reflection and revision. In developing ESM software for smartphone use, the software recorded skipped signals but was not programmed to recognize and log missed signals or snoozed signals. This omission made evaluation of ESM compliance a more difficult task. The software development also focused on qualitative data collection through voice recording

and, though there was an inclusion of quantitative mood items in drop down lists, this inclusion should have been better researched. It would have been useful to include more widely used tourist experience emotional scales or models in determining the mood dichotomies. Also, the use of a five to seven point Likert Scale to capture more exact variables would have provided a better measure of experiential mood. It was also found that the voice recording questions could have been worded more carefully. Upon being signalled, the first question asks participants to describe what they are doing. If answering literally, the participants could have responded by saying “I am completing a self-report”. The design should have made it clearer that the questions were directed at the experiences they were having the second before they were signalled.

Because this research focused on the phases in tourist experiences, it could have been beneficial to have conducted semi-structured interviews with participants before they left for Peru. Surveys are useful instruments but they are limited in the collection of in-depth discussion. Interviews could have collected more detailed data on expectations and motivations for later analysis and comparison with momentary and memory data. Long term recollection data would have also benefited from a more in-depth interview procedure but due to the scattered locations of the participants, an email survey was used. The final design limitation encountered was the use of students as research participants. Students are an over-sampled population in ESM and tourism studies due to ease of access. The use of different tourist populations could have enhanced the understanding of meanings in subjective tourist experiences.

The implementation of the research design and data collection procedures met with other challenges. This research was conducted in 2008 and we were limited to 2008

technology and software capability. Three smartphones did not perform well in the field and the research assistant was not supplied with extra devices to address this problem. Technical error was also experienced during data transfer, where voice files were transferred but log and quantitative information for 135 self-reports was lost. This led to increased time spent in data organisation where self-reports had to be recreated using time and date information from voice files. Approximately 8% of the voice files had discussions cut off; leaving thoughts unfinished, “the worst part of this experience is [cut off]”. It is not known why this happened but the use of updated voice recording software could alleviate this issue in future studies. There were also many short answers to open-ended ESM questions. The software was not designed to have prompt questions triggered by shorter responses (i.e. >5s) to help capture more in-depth discussions on momentary experiences. Future studies could include this. Another challenge was that the interruption of signalled self-reports led to participants discussing intrusion and annoyance related to data collection (as discussed in Chapter 3). This was also related to the issue of repetition where participants felt, that in some instances, they were being signalled even though experiences had not changed much since the last self-report. In future, this could be addressed with revised signal schedules that contain both temporal and spatial algorithms (using GPS) to limit signals during experiences at the same location. In reference to the tool, participants did discuss feelings of embarrassment in using smartphones in less developed rural areas and safety concerns in using smartphones during difficult hiking experiences. One of the reasons that smartphones were chosen for data collection was because they were considered a less intrusive tool compared to paper questionnaires, so this finding was disappointing. Finally, in the ESM data, the issue of reactivity emerged. Reactivity could impact ESM responses if participants are more self-aware due to the repeated use of self-

reports. However, the issue of reactivity is also touted as an opportunity, allowing participants a better grasp on their conscious experience leading to better reporting on that experience.

The research analysis involved challenges due to transcription error, choices in manuscript focus, and limitations in data gathered. Transcription error occurred in 10% of voice recordings where there were one or more words used by participants that were not identifiable. This information gap made the data more difficult to code if it affected the overall meaning of a sentence or statement. Improvements in voice recording software in the last five years could increase the accuracy of data transcription. In using a manuscript option for this dissertation, each manuscript was limited in word count necessitating choices on which information to present and which information to omit. The photographic data was cut from the manuscript in Chapter 5 due to the word limit for this journal but the exploration of experiences through images could have furthered the understanding of the Inca Trail experience. Another challenge was that this research was limited to the analysis of participant perceptions. Pre-trip surveys, ESM, and post trip interviews and surveys all relied on the subjective perceptions of the participants sampled. Therefore this research only captured what was in the participant's conscious awareness and what could be verbally reported. Other forms of data, such as that collected through participant observation, could have informed the self-report experience data and addressed the limitations present in using participant driven data collection. A more thorough process in recognizing reflexivity could have aided in the qualitative analysis process. Reflexivity is a way to examine the researcher-research relationship and reflexive practices encourage opportunities for reframing questions and themes as the research unfolds. In content analysis, processes of reflection were used to develop ideas and themes and to refine meanings which emerged from the participant



discussions, however many of these processes were not explicitly noted. In future explicit notation on reflexivity, which would capture emerging thoughts, decisions, or emotional responses that occur during data collection, transcription, and analysis, would help to better understand bias or influences involved in the active research process.

There is a final overarching limitation that impacted this dissertation, and that was the timeline of the doctoral research. This data was collected in 2008. At that time, the use of digital ESM and smartphones in research was an innovative practice in tourism studies. Due to maternity leaves taken over the course of this doctoral degree, the publication of manuscripts which outlined this data collection method took several years. In the last six years, there have been publications on studies which have adapted ESM for smartphone use (Doherty et al., 2014; MacKerron & Mourato, 2013; Raento et al., 2009) or which examine the use of smartphones in tourism (Tussyadiah, 2014a; Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2014). Therefore, though the published and in press manuscripts presented in this dissertation are still an early voice in this research approach, they are not a primary source of this type of research design.

Despite these challenges and limitations, the manuscripts in this dissertation do explore the subjective experiences of educational tourists and present some research directions on where to go from here to improve our current understanding of tourist experience phenomena.

#### *Future Research Recommendations*

Tourist experience research needs further investigation to discover and document the complexities and relationships involved in this study area. Each manuscript included in this

dissertation outlines the need for future research to address existing gaps in methodology and theory, and the principal future research recommendations are outlined below.

- Tourist photography: The incorporation of tourist photography as a way to sample in situ experience is addressed in Chapter 4. Results indicate that photography is an important on-site activity at Machu Picchu and the data from photographs taken can be used to visually describe experiences. The photographs act as evidence of travel history and reveal a relationship between memories of Machu Picchu and photographic practices. Despite the importance of photography as a tourist activity, there has been little research done using tourist photographs as experiential data. More is needed on this area: What tourism variables or experiences are related to photographic practices? How do photographic practices differ by tourist type or destination type? How can tourist photographs be analysed for both manifest and latent content? What is the relationship between photography and tourist memory?
- ESM in tourism: The use of ESM in tourism research is rare (see Chapter 3), yet this research demonstrates that the real time collection of momentary experiential data is valuable in exploring tourist experiences. Chapter 3 outlines benefits of ESM in research designs, Chapter 4 demonstrates its application in the study of WHSs, and Chapter 5 discusses its usefulness as a mobile method in tourism. This validated method is widely used in leisure studies and psychology and is adaptable to many different research objectives. This doctoral research demonstrates its value as a qualitative research method, capable of capturing qualitative momentary perceptions of experiences. This research approach can also be adapted to address

destination management goals by capturing specific experiences or experiences at specific sites using place-based designs. Future research incorporating ESM to investigate a wider range of tourist events or with different tourist groups (such as independent tourists) would advance theory on tourist experiences.

- Smartphones in data collection: The benefits in using smartphones as data collection tools are discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 and 5 demonstrate the application of ESM software on smartphones in capturing perceptions of momentary experiences. Smartphone software, coupled with the use of auxiliary features (such as photographs, video, voice recordings, and GPS), allows for numerous possibilities in data collection design, connecting the researcher to the participant remotely. The potential implications of capturing spatial data (through GPS) need further investigation. The use of emotional mapping or experiential mapping could offer an alternative way of exploring and understanding tourist experiences at destinations. The advancing technologies related to smartphone development warrants further investigation into the usefulness and limitations of this tool in social science research. Results from Chapter 3 also reveal a developing human-phone relationship. More research is needed on how anthropomorphism impacts data collection and how this humanization of the research tool could shape perceptions of trust in the collection of personal discussions in qualitative research designs.
- Learning experiences in tourism: More is needed on the educational and learning aspects involved in tourist experiences. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the research on this area, but there is still a lack of insight into the kinds of learning or

knowledge development (if any) that takes place at destinations. Learning experiences related to the visit to Machu Picchu are briefly discussed in Chapter 4, where participants discuss history and culture as well as personal growth during the site experience. Learning experiences are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5, where learning about the self is a main topic of discussion for participants hiking the Inca Trail. These momentary discussions on self-learning during the hike lead to narratives of self-transformation in post trip interviews, providing evidence of personal development through learning experiences along the Inca Trail. More is needed on the relationship between tourism and learning: What is learned during different tourist experiences? What destination aspects or practices heighten educational experiences? How are these momentary experiences processed over time? How do tourist experiences lead to cognitive, affective, psychomotor, or personal development? How are momentary experiences of learning in tourism incorporated into new knowledge after tourists return home?

- Affective experiences in tourism: Tourism is comprised of complex emotional experiences involving emotional memories, personal relationships, and attachments to place (see overview in Chapter 2) that we are only beginning to investigate. This study demonstrated variability in mood throughout the Peru trip (see Figure 3.4). However, the links between immediate conscious affective states and affective memory are unclear. In Chapter 4, results indicate an emotional attachment to Machu Picchu as a site of triumph and social bonding. In Chapter 5, the results demonstrate a wide range of multifaceted and conflicting emotions connected to the Inca Trail hiking experience. The discussion hints at a

relationship between emotional and physical intensity. This research has led to several questions on affective tourist experiences: Are there mood markers in momentary experiences that relate to trip memory? Are there affective trends or themes related to tourist sites or tourist types? How are destination attributes or trip aspects connected to emotional experiences? Do intense emotional experiences (such as the experience of emotional pain) lead to emotional memory or themes of self-transformation?

- Pain in tourism: One of the unanticipated findings that emerges in Chapter 5 is the emphasis on pain and discomfort in hiking experiences. These experiences of pain are associated with experiences of self, perseverance, and accomplishment. The theme of pain or discomfort in tourism is rarely addressed in the academic literature and more research is needed to understand this area of interest: What are the significant experiential qualities of pain in tourism? How are tourist experiences of social, cultural, or emotional discomfort understood in the moment and in memory? How do tourist experiences of pain or discomfort affect or alter the perception of self?
- Tourist experiences of self-identity: Research has demonstrated connections between self-identity and tourism (see literature reviews in Chapter 2 and 5), where tourist experiences can shape our understanding of ourselves. This is emphasized in the results found in Chapter 5 where completing the Inca Trail led to feelings of accomplishment that affected narratives on self-identity. The discussions in this doctoral research indicate that more is needed on the complexities of this relationship: What momentary tourist experiences are strongly

associated with self-identity? How are destination attributes or trip characteristics connected to perceptions of self-identity? Are experiences of self-identity strongly related to tourist demographics or life stages? Do tourist experiences related to self-identity lead to long term changes in an individual's sense of self? Can planning and management at destinations manipulate experiential elements to encourage more intense and memorable experiences of self?

## **Closing Thoughts**

*We shall not cease from exploration, and the end of all our exploring will be to arrive where we started and know the place for the first time. (T. S. Eliot)*

These manuscripts evolved over an extended period of time and document not only the advancement of knowledge on tourist experiences, but also an advancement of knowledge on the doctoral research experience. My extended and unusual PhD experience has been rewarding in providing new insights and understandings which have matured over time.

In chronological order, Chapter 2 was the first publication, drafted in 2009. This paper is a review of the literature and included to provide a summary of the tourist experience research to date. Chapter 4 was the second paper, prepared in 2010. This paper explored a portion of the data collected in Peru, focusing on the experience of Machu Picchu. Through the analysis of data and writing of this research, I had my first opportunity to explore how momentary and memorable data could be examined and presented in a 'usable' way. Chapter 5 was drafted in 2012 and revised in 2013. Though some of the data used overlapped with the research discussed in Chapter 4, maturity and previous experience with the data allowed for a different perspective in analysis. With the open analysis of the verbal content of momentary

data, the issue of corporeality and pain emerged. This pulled me into new exploratory research directions to better understand the meanings arising from participant perceptions on experiences. Chapter 3 was drafted in 2014. This paper examined the research method used and the operationalization of this method. In hindsight, it could have been beneficial to have written this paper before writing the manuscripts for Chapter 4 and 5, because it gave me a more intimate understanding of the methodological nuances involved in the research design. However, as a final paper it was quite cathartic to shift perspective on the data from the focus on its meanings regarding tourist experience phenomenon to its use as a way to understand the research and investigative process. Overall this dissertation, and the research involved, has led to a better understanding of tourism research design and tourist experiences, enriching my knowledge of the research area and inspiring me to delve deeper into this phenomenon.

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## Chapter 5: The Inca Trail Experience: Does the Journey Matter?

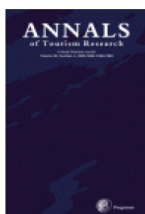


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**Title:** The Inca Trail experience: Does the journey matter?

**Author:** Sarah Quinlan Cutler, Barbara Carmichael, Sean Doherty

**Publication:** Annals of Tourism Research

**Publisher:** Elsevier

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## Appendix B: Ethics Information and Consent Documents

### WILFRID LAURIER UNIVERSITY INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Tracking the Tourist Experience:  
Exploring the relationships between location, reaction, re-creation, and recollection

Principal Investigator: Sarah Quinlan Cutler  
Doctoral Candidate, Dept of Geography and  
Environmental Studies  
Wilfrid Laurier University

Research Assistant: Eric Sadowski  
Master's Candidate, Department of Geography and  
Environmental Studies  
Wilfrid Laurier University

Faculty Supervisor: Barbara Carmichael  
Professor, Dept of Geography and Environmental  
Studies  
Wilfrid Laurier University  
Tel: (519) 884-0710 ext. 2609  
E-mail: bcarmich@wlu.ca

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Sarah Quinlan Cutler as part of her Doctoral research in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Wilfrid Laurier University under the supervision of Dr. Barbara Carmichael. The purpose of this study is to explore the tourist experience of educational tourists. Participants in this research will be tourists involved in an educational trip to Peru.

#### **INFORMATION**

This research involves a pre-trip questionnaire, the tracking of participant using GPS technology, the monitoring of heart rates, the capturing of immediate experiential reactions using Blackberries, and a post-trip interview. If you agree to participate, you will be provided with a BlackBerry™ to carry with you during your trip. *This equipment must be returned at the end of the trip.* This device will be tracking your location. The BlackBerry™ will also be used to collect data from you regarding your immediate experiences using signal contingent sampling and event contingent sampling. With signal contingent sampling you will be randomly buzzed 5 times per day and asked a series of questions which you can respond to verbally and digitally using the BlackBerry™ – you will receive training on how to use BlackBerry™ technology. Response times will range from 5 to 10 minutes, therefore total daily participation will range from 25 to 50 minute. Event contingent sampling involves asking you to log any significant events or experiences that happen to you during the trip. Logging these events involves activating a BlackBerry™ program which will then ask you the same series of questions you have answered during signal contingent sampling (lasting 5-10 minutes). Four participants will be asked to wear heart rate monitors for 6-10 hours per day for several days during the trip. If you are one of these four, you will be asked to wear the heart rate probes which attach to the BlackBerry™. If your heart rate increases significantly, you will be asked to indicate (on a BlackBerry™ program drop down menu) what you are doing at that moment. This process will take less than 1 minute. Approximately 30 to 60 days after you return from Peru, you will be asked to participate in an interview lasting 20 to 40 minutes, at a convenient location. This interview will involve questions about your experiences on the trip. You can refuse to answer any of the interview questions if you wish. You can also decide to withdraw from the interview at any time without any problems by telling the researcher. With your permission, the interview will be tape-recorded. There will be approximately 20 participants involved in this research.

Audio recordings taken during the trip and during the post trip interview will be transcribed and undergo content analysis to assess themes and meanings related to the tourist experience. Audio information will be

used for research or lecture purposes only. Once collected, data will be transcribed by the researcher and/or a transcriber, who will keep all information on the tapes confidential. Only the primary researcher, research assistants, and transcribers working with this project will have access to the raw data. The tapes or raw digital data files collected during this study will be kept for 2 years in a locked office, then destroyed. If a participant chooses to withdraw from this study all tapes and digital data associated with the participant will be destroyed. Transcribed data resulting from this study will be stored in a secure database system and subject to further analysis. Signed consent forms will be stored separately from the data provided by the participant.

In the future, Dr. Sean Doherty and Dr. Barbara Carmichael may access GPS data and processed data (which will not be associated with student identity). Information resulting from this data may be used in a thesis, future reports and publications, presentations, and lectures. The research project can not be fully described at this time, but at the conclusion of participation, an explanation will be provided.

### **RISKS**

There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. We ask that you be aware of the device you are carrying and make smart decisions as to its storage and use to minimize damage and theft. A research assistant will be available to charge and maintain the device for you during your field trip. If over the course of the trip you find that the signal contingent program on the BlackBerry™ is becoming cumbersome, please speak with the research assistant (Eric Sadowski) or a member of faculty accompanying you on this trip.

### **BENEFITS**

The results of this study will allow for a better understanding of the experiences of educational tourists while validating the use of innovative data collection technology. It is hoped that this research will contribute to the body of knowledge on tourism, educational field trips, and experiential research.

### **CONFIDENTIALITY**

All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will initially be recorded, but will then be associated with an alternative identity. The record associating your name to the alternative identity will be destroyed at the end of the study and will only be available to the primary researcher. The alternative identity will be the only marker connected with the data for future research purposes. Your name will not be related to your responses in any published or presented information. Research results will be published in a doctoral thesis and may also be used in publications, reports, presentations, or lectures. Please note that quotations may be taken from verbal data; however these quotations will remain anonymous and will not contain any information that allows participants to be identified.

Raw data and consent information collected during this study will be kept for 2 years in a locked office, then destroyed. Processed data resulting from this study will be stored in a secure database system for research purposes only. Only the primary researcher and research assistants working with this project will have access to the raw data. Dr. Sean Doherty and Dr. Barbara Carmichael may access GPS data and processed data in the future but this data will not be associated with the participant's identity.

### **CONTACT**

If you have questions about the study or the procedures you may contact the researcher Sarah Quinlan Cutler by email at [quin1670@wlu.ca](mailto:quin1670@wlu.ca) or talk to Eric Sadowski (the research assistant accompanying you on this trip). You can also contact Dr. Barbara Carmichael at (519) 884-0710 ext. 2609 or email [bcarmich@wlu.ca](mailto:bcarmich@wlu.ca). This project has been reviewed and approved by the University Research Ethics Board at Wilfrid Laurier University. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. Bill Marr, Chair, University Research Ethics Board, Wilfrid Laurier University, (519) 884-0710, extension 2468.

### **PARTICIPATION**

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which

you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed. You have the right to omit any question(s)/procedure(s) you choose. Decisions not to participate in this study will have no impact on field trip evaluations.

#### **FEEDBACK AND PUBLICATION**

The results of this research will be written up in a doctoral thesis and may be used in subsequent journal or book publications, conference presentations, and/or lectures. If you wish, a written summary outlining the results of this study will be sent to your email address (if provided) at the conclusion of this study in 2011 or 2012.

#### **CONSENT**

I have read and understand the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Participant's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator's signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

*I would like to receive a written summary outlining the results of this study. Please send this summary to the following address:*

\_\_\_\_\_  
Email Address

**WILFRID LAURIER UNIVERSITY**  
**DEBRIEFING STATEMENT & PHOTOGRAPH CONSENT FORM**

Tracking the Tourist Experience:  
Exploring the relationships between location, reaction, re-creation, and recollection

It is the intention of this research to evaluate the images of experience using photographic data. Therefore you are asked to share your photographs of your trip for research purposes. If you agree, you will be asked to provide a copy of your digital photos or a copy of your printed photos to Eric Sadowski (the research assistant who accompanied you on your trip). You were not informed of the possible use of photographs previously as the researcher did not want to bias image choices. This deception was neither arbitrary nor capricious.

**CONFIDENTIALITY**

The photos taken during the trip will undergo visual analysis to assess themes and meanings related to the tourist experience. All photographs will be used for academic or research purposes only. Only the primary researcher and research assistants working with this project will have access to the photographs. The raw photographs collected during this study will be stored digitally in a secure database system to allow for further analysis.

**PARTICIPATION**

The sharing of your photos is completely voluntary; you may decline to share photos without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. If you withdraw from the study your photos will be returned to you or destroyed.

**PUBLICATIONS**

In the future, the researcher may use photographic examples for academic purposes to demonstrate research findings or discussions in reports, publications, presentations, or lectures. All recognizable faces within photographs will be manipulated or distorted (fuzzed out) to protect the identity of the person/people in the photograph. The photos will not be used for any additional purposes without your additional permission.

-----  
If my photographs are used as examples in reports, publications, presentations, or lectures:

- ☐ I would like to be credited (example: Photo by S. Cutler, 2008)
- ☐ I would like to remain anonymous (example: Photo by student x, 2008)
- ☐ I would not like my photographs used in any reports, publications, presentations or lectures.

**PHOTOGRAPH CONSENT**

I have read and understand the above information. I agree to share my photographs with the researcher.

Participant's Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Participant's signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator's signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

**WILFRID LAURIER UNIVERSITY  
POST TRIP EMAIL SURVEY SCRIPT**

Dear [Student Name]

In 2008 you were invited to participate in a research study conducted by me (Sarah Quinlan Cutler) as part of my Doctoral research in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Wilfrid Laurier University under the supervision of Dr. Barbara Carmichael. The purpose of the study was to explore the tourist experience of educational tourists. In addition to previous data collection, I would like to ask you some questions about the trip, now that it has been over a year since you returned home.

As outlined in the previous consent form given to you in August 2008, all information you provide is considered completely confidential and your name will not be related to your responses in any published or presented information. Please note that quotations may be taken from your email questionnaire responses; however these quotations will remain anonymous and will not contain any information that allows participants to be identified.

**CONTACT**

If you have questions about the study or the procedures, or if you would like more information about your rights as a participant, please contact me by email at [quin1670@wlu.ca](mailto:quin1670@wlu.ca). You can also talk to Dr. Barbara Carmichael at (519) 884-0710 ext. 2609 or email [bcarmich@wlu.ca](mailto:bcarmich@wlu.ca). This project has been reviewed and approved by the University Research Ethics Board at Wilfrid Laurier University. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. Bill Marr, Chair, University Research Ethics Board, Wilfrid Laurier University, (519) 884-0710, extension 2468.

**PARTICIPATION**

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed. You have the right to omit any question(s)/procedure(s) you choose.

If you agree to participate in this additional questionnaire, please answer the questions below and return them to me at your earliest convenience. If you do not wish to participate, please return my email to me unfilled so that I know that you have received this email but do not wish to participate.

Sincerely,  
Sarah Quinlan Cutler

## Appendix C: Pre-trip questionnaire

Student Number:

1) Age:\_\_\_\_\_ years

2) Sex: M F

3) Have you ever travelled outside of Canada or the US?  
Yes (proceed to next question) No (go to question 5)

4) Travel History: Please list the international destinations you have travelled to in the past 5 years starting with your most recent experience.

Destination(s)	# days at destination	Travel Date	Main vacation type*
<i>i.e. Scotland</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>June 2005</i>	<i>Family vacation</i>

\*Possible vacation types: Backpacking, Family vacation, Package vacation, Educational field trip, Volunteering, Visiting friends and family (VFF), Business travel, etc.

5) Why did you sign up to go on this trip?

6) How do you feel about this upcoming trip?

7) What are your expectations for this upcoming trip?

8) What do you think Peru is like as a country?

9) What do you think Peru is like as a tourist destination?

10) What are you looking forward to the most?

11) What are you looking forward to the least?



## Appendix D: Experience Sampling Method Questions

### a) Signal contingent recording (Experience Sampling Method):

The participant will be buzzed 5 times daily at random intervals when the machines are turned on (between approx. 8am and 10pm). With each signal participants will answer the following:

1. Describe WHERE you are, WHAT you are doing, and WHO you are with

*Voice recording triggered*

2. a) What kind of experience is this?

Positive

Negative

Neutral

- b) Pick the mood or emotion which best describes you at this moment (tick boxes):

Bored

Excited

Neither

Comfortable

Uncomfortable

Neither

Irritable

Cheerful

Neither

Sociable

Lonely

Neither

Confident

Worried

Neither

Confused

Clear

Neither

Relaxed

Stressed

Neither

Ashamed

Proud

Neither

Involved

Detached

Neither

Frustrated

Calm

Neither

3. Discuss anything about this experience that you find interesting, odd, or important

*Voice recording triggered*

4. Are you learning anything from this experience (about yourself, people, places, etc)?

*Voice recording triggered*

5. How do you feel about this experience:

*Voice recording triggered*

6. What is the best and worst part about this experience?

*Voice recording triggered*

### b) Event contingent recording:

Participants will be asked to voluntarily record any significant events/experiences they have by triggering an event contingent self-report. This report will involve the same questions used in signal contingent sampling but will be logged as a MANUAL experience.

## **Appendix E: Post trip Interview Questions**

*Post trip interviews were recorded with a digital tape recorder.*

How was the trip?

What is Peru like as a country?

What is Peru like as a tourist destination?

What is the story from the trip you have told your friends and/or family about most often?

After travelling to Peru, have you noticed any differences in yourself?

What is your most significant memory of your time in Peru? What will stay with you in 10 years?

What would you say was the best part of the trip / or best experience and why?

What would you say was the worst part of the trip or experience and why?

What have you learned from this experience (about yourself, people, places, etc)?

How did you get along with the group?

Was there anything particular about the trip that you found particularly interesting, odd or important?

Please take some time and close your eyes and think of Peru (for ~10 seconds).

- Please describe what you see (if anything)...
- Please describe the smells (if any)...
- Please describe the tastes (if any)...
- Please describe what you hear (if anything)...
- Please describe what you can feel/touch (if anything)...

Describe how you feel emotionally about your experience in Peru

Why did you go on this trip?

Did you find what you were looking for?

Would you go back? (If yes, what would you do differently? If no, why not?)

Would you encourage others to go to Peru?

## Appendix F: Post trip Email Survey

Please take some time to think about the following questions. Use as much space as you wish to respond and let me know if you have any questions or concerns or anything else you think I should know about.

1. Before receiving this email, when was the last time you thought about your trip to Peru (its been x days, weeks, months)?
2. When you think of Peru, what image(s) do you see – describe it/them to me:
3. When people ask you now about your Peru trip, what story do you tell them – can you tell that story to me?
4. What is your most significant memory of Peru, one that you think you'll still have 10 years from now?
5. What was the best part of the trip? And why was it the best?
6. What was the worst part? And why was it the worst?
7. When you think back to your trip, describe any emotions (maybe 2 or 3 specific emotions) that come to you, and explain why you feel this way.
8. Now that time has passed, do you think that this trip changed you in any way? (i.e. changed or affected your interests, behaviours, ways of thinking, knowledge, sense of identity, etc) and why do you credit this/these changes to the trip?
9. What were some of the most important things you learned from taking this trip?
10. If you had to summarize your trip to Peru in three words – what words would they be?

11. When you think about Machu Picchu, how would you describe/discuss your experience of being at that site?

12. Have you done any travelling outside of Canada after the Peru trip (if so, please fill in the table below)?

Destination(s)	# days	Travel Date	Who did you go with	Why did you go there?
<i>i.e. Scotland</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>June 09</i>	<i>Sister and 2 friends</i>	<i>To visit friends/to party/to see castles</i>

13. Do you think that your Peru trip influenced your travelling patterns, destination choices, or travel itinerary at all? If so, how and why?

14. Would you go back to Peru? Why and what would you do there this time OR Why not?

*Thank you for taking the time to fill this out and  
I hope you are doing well wherever you are!*

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