

Understanding Changes in Tourists' Use of Emotion Regulation Strategies in a Vacation Context

Journal of Travel Research
2019, Vol. 58(7) 1088–1104
© The Author(s) 2018
Article reuse guidelines:
sagepub.com/journals-permissions
DOI: 10.1177/0047287518798511
journals.sagepub.com/home/jtr



Jie Gao¹, Ye Zhang², Deborah L. Kerstetter³,
and Stephanie Shields⁴

Abstract

This study examines the patterns of change in tourists' use of emotion regulation strategies (ERSs) during a vacation, and their interactions with sociodemographic characteristics. Data were collected using an online survey and travel daily diaries. Repeated measures analysis of variance showed that 152 participants exhibited significant differences in their use of five ERSs with positive emotions and two ERSs with negative emotions during their travel experience, suggesting use of ERSs varies over different stages of a vacation. In addition, some sociodemographic characteristics were found to play a significant role in explaining patterns of change in tourists' use of ERSs with positive and negative emotions. These findings, which extend current emotion-based research in tourism, must be acknowledged by and incorporated into future research. Further, tourism professionals should account for the change in tourists' use of ERSs during a vacation when planning travel itineraries and programs.

Keywords

emotion regulation strategies, tourist behavior, positive intervention, diary study, longitudinal, well-being

Introduction

Emotions influence individuals' decisions to purchase tourism services, level of satisfaction and memories with travel experiences, and even behavioral intentions for future travel (Bigne, Andreu, and Gnoth 2005; Chuang 2007; De Rojas and Camarero 2008; Mattila 2001; Sirakaya, Petrick, and Choi 2004; Tung and Ritchie 2011). Emotions also vary throughout the tourism experience and are related to tourists' sense of well-being (Lin et al. 2014; Nawijn 2010; Nawijn et al. 2013). While beginning to receive attention from tourism researchers, there is limited evidence regarding changes in and tourists' reactions to their emotions over the course of a vacation (Coghlan and Pearce 2010; Lin et al. 2014).

In general, researchers who have studied vacation-based emotions have done so by collecting data at multiple points during a vacation with the assumption that emotions are static at each data collection point (Lin et al. 2014; Nawijn 2010; Nawijn et al. 2013). Although this static approach acknowledges the variability of emotions and their horizontal fluctuation and changes during an experience, it ignores the fact that emotions evolve, change, and can be regulated (Gross and Barrett 2011) during their vertical, generative process at each point in time during the travel experience (Gao and Kerstetter 2018). This study adopted a dynamic perspective by accounting for the variances of an emotional response's generative process and the regulatory nature of

emotions (Gao and Kerstetter 2018). Though it may take seconds or minutes to generate an emotional response, individuals can use various strategies to regulate their emotion at separate points during the generative process (Gross 1998, 2001); that is, make an effort to attenuate, sustain, or amplify experience or behavior of an emotional episode (Gross and John 2003). This concept, referred to as "emotion regulation," establishes that a person can use antecedent-focused strategies to regulate an emotional response during the process leading to an emotion and use response-focused strategies after the emotion has been generated and is underway (Gross 1998). However, it is unknown how tourists regulate their emotions and how they respond to their varying emotions by using different emotion regulation strategies in a vacation context. Hence, this study builds on the construct of

¹Department of Marketing, Montclair State University, Montclair, NJ, USA

²Department of Marketing, Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, FL, USA

³Department of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Management, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, USA

⁴Department of Psychology, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, USA

Corresponding Author:

Jie Gao, Department of Marketing, 555 Feliciano School of Business, Montclair State University, 1 Normal Ave., Montclair, NJ 07043, USA.
Email: jiegao@montclair.edu

emotion regulation and existing travel emotions research to document how tourists regulate their emotions at individual points in time and over the course of a vacation.

Not only is it important to recognize the variability and regulability of emotions as well as tourists' emotion regulation strategies, researchers should account for the influence of sociodemographic indicators, which have been linked to a better understanding of tourists' perceptions and emotional experiences (Gao, Barbieri, and Valdivia 2014; Nawijn et al. 2013). Sociodemographic characteristics such as age and gender have been shown to be strong predictors of using different emotion regulation strategies (Zammuner and Galli 2005). Thus, the overall purpose of this study was to examine tourists' use of emotion regulation strategies (ERSs) during their vacation and the degree to which use of ERSs interact with sociodemographic characteristics. The results of this study are expected to contribute to the travel and tourism literature by (a) introducing a new, dynamic perspective to study emotions rather than treating emotions as a static response, (b) depicting the transient nature, dynamicity, and variability of the emotion regulation patterns throughout a vacation, and (c) exploring the role of sociodemographic characteristics on tourists' use of ERSs. This study is, to our knowledge, the first to address tourists' use of ERSs outside of a lab (Gross and John 2003; Heij and Cheavens 2014), which provides significant implications for applying ERSs in practice.

Literature Review

Emotion and Tourism—An Emerging Dynamic

There is an emerging interest in emotions among tourism scholars who have used the terms *mood*, *affect*, and *emotions* interchangeably to describe such short-lived, subjective feelings (Frijda 1988). Affect generally denotes a valenced subjective feeling state, while emotion and mood serve as specific examples of affective states (J. B. Cohen and Areni 1991). Compared with emotions that are more intensive, intentional, and shorter lasting, mood is less intensive, intentional, and reflected through a more sustained affective state (Beedie, Teery, and Lane 2005). In the literature, mood and affect have been linked to tourist satisfaction. Mattila (2001) noted the effect of mood on service quality and satisfaction, but limited her study to brief and routine types of service interaction. Sirakaya, Petrick, and Choi (2004) documented a significant relationship between mood states during tourists' evaluation of travel-related products or services and consequent satisfaction with them. In the context of cultural tourism, De Rojas and Camarero (2008) revealed that a more positive mood makes the disconfirmation of expectations reinforce the satisfaction of the visitor. Jang et al. (2009) found Taiwanese seniors' positive and negative affective states influence their travel motivations while only positive affect influences their satisfaction and future travel intention.

Nawijn and his colleagues (2013; Nawijn 2010) were some of the first researchers to study emotions (rather than mood or affect) and emotion change over the course of a vacation. Guiding much of their research was the belief that emotions are direct, intense reactions to events that happen in an individual's environment (Beedie, Teery, and Lane 2005) and that emotions dramatically affect individuals' thinking and behavior, which leads to long-term consequences for quality of life (Fredrickson and Losada 2005). Further, they adopted the notion that emotions in a vacation context vary over time. In 2010 Nawijn introduced the holiday happiness curve, which highlighted how tourists' emotions change over the course of a vacation. Later, in 2013, Nawijn and his colleagues tracked vacationers' daily emotions during their vacation using a daily diary, and revealed that fluctuations in emotions are related to length of vacation: vacationers on an 8- to 13-day trip experienced significant changes in the balance of their emotions over the course of their trip. Lin et al. (2014) further examined fluctuations in positive and negative emotions and found that travelers were high in both positivity and arousal and, overall, reported feeling more positive at the front end of their vacation rather than at the end of their vacation. These studies are informative as all recognized that emotions change over the course of a vacation. Since they are variable, emotions may be regulated during their generative process (Gross and Barrett 2011).

According to Gross (2001), emotions can be regulated at five points in the emotion generative process (i.e., along the timeline of the unfolding emotional response). Before an emotional response has been generated, a person can use antecedent-focused strategies (e.g., reappraisal) to regulate an emotional response at four different points in the emotion generative process (Gross 1998). After an emotional response has been initiated and is underway, a person can take actions to regulate the emotional response (Gross 1998). Apter's Reversal Theory (1989) possibly explains the motivational triggers, and provides some background for emotion regulation. This theory, which proposed four mutually exclusive pairs of metamotivational states, describes how individuals reverse between these states, which reflect their motivational styles and meanings attached to the situation. For example, an individual may feel anxious on a roller coaster ride and stay in this state for a while, but change or reverse to an opposing state, such as excitement when motivated by environmental stimulus, for example, everyone else screaming and enjoying the moment. Because ERSs are motivated by the need to consciously manipulate emotions, Pearce and Lee's (2005) travel career approach to tourist motivation may also help in understanding emotion regulation. In their study of general pleasure travel motivations, Pearce and Lee found patterns and multiple combinations of travel motivations in relation to travel career¹ levels. Further, the authors found tourists' motives are influenced by previous

travel experience and age. In this study, we account for the transient, dynamic, variable, and regulable nature of emotions by examining how tourists' use of ERSs changes over time during the travel experience.

Delineating Emotion Regulation

The idea that emotions may be regulated, particularly in situations where emotions are harmful, has been studied for some time (Gross 1999). It was not until 1998, however, that Gross introduced a new perspective, which focused on the regulation of emotions, rather than regulation by emotions, as well as what a person can do to regulate different emotions and what forms of regulation exist. Specifically, Gross proposed a process model of emotion regulation addressing an array of regulatory activities. His model was based on the premise that specific ERSs can be differentiated along the timeline of the unfolding emotional response. Gross (2001) stipulated that an emotion can be regulated at five points in the emotion generative process. Each of these five points represents a family of ERSs: (1) situation selection, (2) situation modification, (3) attentional deployment, (4) cognitive change, and (5) response modulation.

Each form of emotion regulation has different consequences (Gross 2013). In Gross's model, the first four families of ERSs (i.e., situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change) are antecedent-focused and the fifth family (i.e., response modulation) is response-focused. The antecedent-focused strategies refer to things a person can do before the emotion response has become fully activated and changed behaviors (Gross 2001). The response-focused strategy focuses on things a person can do once an emotion response has already been generated and is underway (Gross 2001). Since this information-processing model treats each point in the emotion-generative process as a potential target for regulation (Gross 2013), these five families of ERSs can be distinguished even further.

First, as the most forward-looking antecedent-focused strategy, situation selection involves individuals taking action to end up in a desirable situation in which they can expect desirable emotions (Gross 2013). In particular, situation selection refers to avoiding certain people, places or activities that might generate negative emotions. Examples include a socially anxious person avoiding a social event, or seeking out a friend with whom a person can have a good cry. Considering the complexity of situations, self knowledge is required for decision making about which situations to seek and which ones to avoid (Gross 1998).

Second, once a situation has been selected, situation modification operates to change a situation in order to decrease its negative emotional impact (Gross 2014). Examples of this strategy are to convert a meeting into a phone conference, or to convince a neighbor to turn down loud music. Such efforts are referred to as problem-focused coping by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). As Gross (1998) suggested, however, there

are no clear boundaries between situation selection and situation modification because efforts to modify a situation always involve a new situation, which, to some extent, overlaps with the meaning of situation selection. Both strategies utilize external, physical environments to regulate emotions (Gross 2014).

The third antecedent-focused strategy—attentional deployment—is used to direct a person's attention and focus on less negatively valenced aspects of the situation in order to influence his or her emotions, particularly when it is hard to modify the situation (Gross 2014). Examples of attentional deployment involve distraction, concentration, and rumination. Distraction emphasizes putting a person's attention on other aspects of a situation, or simply moving attention away from the situation, or calling up other thoughts or memories to change a person's internal focus (Gross 1998; Thiruchselvam, Hajcak, and Gross 2012). Concentration refers to a person's ability to absorb attention while working or being in other situations. It may create a self-sustaining transcendent state, which Csikszentmihalyi (1975) defined as flow. Rumination refers to directing attention to a person's feelings and their consequences; if rumination is on negative emotions, it may lead to severe depressive symptoms (Just and Alloy 1997). Evidence suggests that a transformative tourist experience may lead to a greater sensitivity to existential anxiety, which encourages a tourist to seek a more authentic lifestyle (Kirillova, Lehto, and Cai 2017) and may enforce use of ERSs during a vacation.

Cognitive change, the fourth antecedent-focused strategy, deals with modifying a person's internal environment (i.e., thoughts). This strategy targets altering the emotional significance through modifying how a person appraises a situation (Gross 2014). A particularly well-recognized example of cognitive change is reappraisal, which often results in decreased negative emotional experience or increased positive emotions (Gross 1998).

The fifth family of ERSs—response modulation—is often used to influence experiential, behavioral, or physiological components of an emotional response (Gross 2014). This family of strategies focuses on altering the emotional response through taking actions because the emotion response has already been initiated and is underway (Gross 2001). Evidence suggests that physical activities such as breathing relaxation techniques, drinking alcohol, smoking cigarettes, taking drugs, and eating food can decrease the negative aspects of an emotional experience (Gross 1998, 2014; Gross and John 2003; Thayer, Newman, and McClain 1994). Emotion expressive suppression also falls within the scope of response modulation (Gross 1998). Evidence suggests, however, that inhibiting expressive behaviors may decrease the intensity of positive emotions (e.g., pride), but not negative emotions (e.g., disgust; Gross and Levenson 1997) and thus does not fully reflect the essence of the family of response modulation strategies.

In addition, researchers have proposed studying emotion regulation in contexts ranging from close relationships (e.g., T. Field 1994; Levenson et al. 2014) to public behavior in the workplace (Grandey 2000). T. Field (1994) recommended building on emotion regulation theory by studying others and infants who are sensitive to each other's emotional signals, reciprocate by matching emotions or modifying behaviors to amplify or modulate each other's emotions, and sustain an ebb and flow of emotional interaction that maintains the relationship in a sensitive, optimal way. Levenson et al. (2014) suggested studying emotion regulation in couples because they often find themselves in a challenging, fluid, complex emotional landscape that changes continuously as partners express and regulate their own emotions, respond to each other's emotions and regulatory attempts, and try to regulate each other's emotions. Grandey (2000) proposed using emotion regulation as a guiding theory to understand the mechanisms of managing workplace emotions in order to improve work outcomes. One example is an employee changing how he feels, or feelings he shows, in order to interact with clients in an effective way.

In the travel context, the use of emotion regulation theory to understand tourist behavior may also prove valuable as tourists escape from their routine life into new, temporary, and fluid environments in which they expect to have positive experiences resulting from their investment of time, effort, money, and more (Gao and Kerstetter 2018; Gnoth et al. 2000). When some disconfirmation occurs between tourists' expectations and their actual experiences, they likely experience greater emotional variance during the travel experience than in other contexts. Thus, tourists are expected to use ERSs to regulate positive emotions to maximize their happiness and/or less positive emotions to decrease negative impacts during the travel experience (Gao and Kerstetter 2018).

Recently, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, and Gross (2015) emphasized the importance of accounting for time frames when applying the process model of emotion regulation. Their argument was based on the notion that people may want to extend positive experiences (e.g., traveling) well beyond a few iterations of the emotion-generative process. Specifically, they argued that individuals may employ different ERSs before, during, and after vacation, consistent with the five families of strategies in Gross's (1998) process model of emotion regulation. Considering the questionable validity of asking individuals to recall their experience, we accounted for the time frame during a vacation and asked respondents to use daily diaries to record their emotional experiences and use of ERSs.

There is evidence of an interaction between tourists' use of ERSs and their sociodemographic characteristics. Sociodemographic characteristics or "tourists' internal inputs" influence their perceptions of a destination and their travel experience (Goodall and Ashworth 1988; Um and Crompton 1990). Weaver et al. (1994) found that age influenced tourists' perceptions of a destination, while Zimmer, Brayley,

and Searle (1995) documented that income and education affect tourists' choice of nearby and farther-away destinations. However, no research to date has explored how sociodemographic characteristics influence tourists' use of different ERSs over the course of a vacation. This is the first study to account for this interaction.

To reiterate, the overall purpose of this study was to analyze potential change in tourists' use of ERSs over the course of a vacation, and to determine whether sociodemographic characteristics influence change in use of ERSs. To address this overall purpose, the following research questions were answered:

1. Does tourists' use of ERSs change over the travel experience?
2. Do sociodemographic characteristics (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, and occupation) explain changes in tourists' use of ERSs over the travel experience?

Research Methods

Sample and Data Collection

In early June 2015, all faculty and staff ($N = 5,071$) at a university in the northeastern United States were contacted via email with a formal invitation to participate in an online survey. Although the homogeneous sample may report higher levels of education, and identify themselves as more mature travelers with some travel experience, the authors intentionally chose this sample recognizing that they might be more aware of personal feelings and able to document emotion regulation strategies (Gross and John 2003). When participants clicked on the survey link provided in the email, they were sent to a home page that described the study purpose, confidentiality, and privacy protocols. If they agreed to participate in the study they were sent to the first survey screen, which included a filter question: "Are you planning to take a vacation in the next four months (i.e., June, July, August, September, 2015)?" Those who answered "yes" or "maybe" were asked to provide the travel dates of their next vacation and whether they were willing to complete a daily diary during their vacation. Individuals who did not plan to take a vacation by September 2015 or who were not willing to complete a diary exited the survey. Participants whose next vacation was taking place by September 2015 and who were willing to complete a daily diary were asked to continue with the survey. A total of 551 (10.9%) individuals completed the online survey.

More than one-half of the study participants (281 or 51% of the 551 respondents) indicated that their vacations were taking place by September 2015 and also agreed to complete the daily diary while on vacation. However, the authors were only able to reach 174 (32.0% of the 551 respondents) participants because they had delivered hard copies of the

Table 1. Emotion Regulation Strategies on Positive and Negative Emotions Found in the Literature and Their Operationalization.

The Process Model of Emotion Regulation (Gross 1998) ^a	Diary Items ^b	
	Emotion Regulation Strategies on Positive Emotions	Emotion Regulation Strategies on Negative Emotions
Situation selection	1. Stimulus control: I avoided all negative thoughts and emotions 2. Social sharing: I talked to my friends and family	1. Acceptance: I accepted the situation and/or my emotions 2. Social support: I found a friend or family member to talk to
Situation modification	3. Capitalizing: I made a plan to make the good situation happen again 4. Behavioral activation: I sought out activities and socializing	3. Problem-solving: I made a plan to make the situation better 4. Behavioral activation: I found an activity to keep myself busy and distracted
Attentional deployment	5. Savoring: I tried to revel in the moment and concentrate on how good I felt 6. Replaying: I replayed all the details of the event in mind	5. Rumination: I thought over and over again about the situation 6. Positive refocusing: I thought of something pleasant instead of what had happened
Cognitive change	7. Broadening: I thought about all the good things that were happening in my life as well 8. Other-credit: I thought how someone else was responsible for this good situation	7. Perspective: I reminded myself that things could be worse. 8. Benefit finding: I thought about how I could become stronger or learn from this situation
Response modulation	9. Expressive suppression: I expressed my positive emotions by showing them 10. Substance use: I smoked a cigarette or drank a drink or got high or exercised	9. Expressive suppression: I controlled my negative emotions by not showing them 10. Substance use: I smoked a cigarette or drank a drink or got high or exercised

^aGross and John (1998) developed the process model of emotion regulation, including the five families of emotion regulation strategies.

^bTen regulation strategies for positive emotions and 10 regulation strategies for negative emotions were selected from the regulation strategies provided by Heij and Cheavens (2014).

travel diary along with instructions and an addressed return envelope approximately one week prior to their vacation directly to the study participants. Data collection concluded in October 2015. A total of 152 (87.4%) individuals returned completed diaries.

Data Collection Instruments

Two data collection instruments were used in this study—an online survey and a diary. The online survey included screening questions as well as questions about individuals' sociodemographic characteristics. Those who met the sample criteria were then asked to provide their office address and phone number, which was necessary in order to hand deliver the travel diaries, instructions and return envelope, as well as a series of questions about their sociodemographic characteristics (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, and occupation). The sociodemographic data were used to address the second research question in this study.

Given that researchers who have previously studied emotions in a travel context have used pre- and post-trip appraisals (Gilbert and Abdullah 2004; Nawijn 2011a; Nawijn et al. 2010), which, according to Nawijn (2011b) may not provide a reliable assessment of emotion, this study used daily diaries as a more effective method to collect structured, time-dependent, on-site data (Coghlan and Pearce 2010). Nawijn et al. (2013) and Lin et al. (2014) have successfully used this

approach in a travel context. Thus, participants were asked to carry the diary with them while traveling, and to complete it daily for the purpose of producing valid and reliable data.

The daily diary instrument included 11 questions, four of which were referenced in this study and are reviewed here. First, individuals were asked to "rate your strongest experience of each" positive emotion (i.e., joy, excitement, pride, love, amusement, interest, surprise) on each day of their vacation using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). They were then asked, "Did you do any of the following [10] things to increase the intensity of your [positive] emotions? 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree." The third question was the same as the second question but focused on negative emotions. Individuals were asked to rate their strongest experience with negative emotions (i.e., anger, anxiety/fear, embarrassment/shame, guilt, disgust, sadness, loneliness), and then again were asked to indicate whether they had done anything to decrease the intensity of their negative emotions. The list they responded to included 10 items. The positive and negative emotions were drawn from the literature on emotion regulation (Heij and Cheavens 2014). The list of "things" they did to regulate their positive and/or negative emotions were drawn from 20 emotion regulation strategies introduced by Heij and Cheavens' (2014), which also corresponded to the five families of ERSs in Gross's (1998) model. Table 1 summarizes the list of ERSs included in this study.

Statistical Analysis

Before running statistical analyses, the fidelity of the diaries was checked to establish trustworthiness. First, in cases where there was no response to an emotion item or emotion regulation scale, the notes section below the scale questions on the diary was used to identify why there were missing responses. If respondents wrote notes indicating that they did not experience strong emotions on a certain travel day and thus left the response scale blank, the response was counted as valid. Second, each diary was checked to make sure there was variation in response. The results indicated there was substantial variation and all data could be retained for follow-up analyses.

Prior to examining potential changes in study participants' use of ERSs during their vacation, the total number of each participant's travel days was divided into 20% sections (from now on referred to as "travel sections"²). For example, with a seven-day vacation, we created five sections: day 1 = first travel section (i.e., 14.3%, which is <20%), day 2 = second travel section (i.e., 28.6%, which is between 20% and 40%), days 3 and 4 = third travel section (between 40% and 60%), day 5 = fourth travel section (between 60% and 80%), and days 6 and 7 = fifth travel section (between 80% and 100%). Nawijn (2010) and Lin et al. (2014) have successfully employed this technique. Nawijn used 10% segments, while Lin et al. used 20% segments. Considering that the average length of stay in this study was 8 days and 85.5% of all participants stayed less than 10 days, using 10% segments would have resulted in sections without a single day in them based on the mutually exclusive rule. Thus, we chose to use 20% segments.

Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) and repeated measures analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) were used to analyze the data. By multiplying the number of respondents ($N = 152$) and average length of stay of each respondent ($M = 8$, $SD = 3.49$, range = 5–30 days), a total of 1,216 data points were included in this study. Given that the effect size ranged from .02 to .07 and there were 10 dependent variables in each model, the sample size in this study was considered large (Faul et al. 2013; Wilson VanVoorhis and Morgan 2007). Significant repeated measures ANOVA results were followed with Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparison tests. Violations of sphericity were addressed with the Huynh-Feldt correction because the ϵ (estimate of sphericity) in all the tests was bigger than .75 (A. P. Field 2000; Girden 1992). The critical level of .05 was used to measure significance levels for the repeated measures ANOVA tests.

To address the second research question, five sociodemographic variables (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, and occupation) were added into a series of repeated measures ANCOVA models as covariates. Because of their categorical nature, gender and occupation were first dummy coded, which is considered an acceptable approach (West,

Table 2. Sociodemographic Profile of Respondents.

	n (%)
Gender (n = 151)	
Male	32 (21.2)
Female	119 (78.8)
Age, years (n = 149)	
18–39	49 (32.9)
40–49	48 (32.2)
50 or older	52 (34.9)
Mean age, years (Standard Deviation)	44.9 (11.2)
Education level (n = 152)^a	
Some college or less	21 (13.8)
Bachelor's college	36 (23.7)
Master's degree ^b	43 (28.3)
PhD or doctorate degree	52 (34.2)
Occupation (n = 152)^c	
Full-time or part-time faculty	60 (39.5)
Full-time or part-time staff	85 (55.9)
Others ^d	7 (4.6)
Marital status (n = 152)^e	
Single or living alone	23 (15.1)
Married or living with partner	129 (84.9)

^aMeasured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (high school graduate) to 7 (PhD or doctorate degree).

^bMaster's degree includes master's and professional degree.

^cOccupation includes six options of full-time faculty, part-time faculty, full-time staff, part-time staff, retiree, and postdoctoral scholar.

^dOthers include retiree and postdoctoral scholar.

^eMarital status includes single, divorced, widowed, separated, married, and living with partner.

Aiken, and Krull 1996). Some of the sociodemographic variables involved unequal group sizes, but repeated measures ANCOVA is considered robust and able to accommodate unequal between-group sample sizes and possible error variance heterogeneity (Oberfeld and Franke 2013). Significance levels for the repeated measures ANCOVA tests were measured at the .05 critical levels.

Results

Respondents' Sociodemographic Profile and Travel Behavioral Characteristics

Most respondents were female (78.8%). On average, respondents were in their midforties ($M = 44.9$ years); 32.9% respondents were less than 39 years old, 32.2% were between 40 and 50, and 34.9% were in their fifties or older (Table 2). Overall, respondents had higher levels of education; only 13.8% had some college or less. At the time of the study, 39.5% of the respondents were full-time or part-time faculty members working at the university, more than one-half

Table 3. Repeated-Measures ANOVA Results of the Emotion Regulation Strategies (ERSs) Indices on Positive and Negative Emotions.

Strategies ¹	M (SD)					F
	Section 1	Section 2	Section 3	Section 4	Section 5	
1. Index of ERSs on positive emotions	4.99 (1.52) ^a	5.23(1.40) ^b	5.17 (1.44) ^b	5.18 (1.45) ^b	5.01 (1.50) ^a	7.822 ^{***}
2. Index of ERSs on negative emotions	4.54 (1.74)	4.57 (1.77)	4.53 (1.89)	4.60 (1.74)	4.64 (1.77)	0.562

Note: Any two values with different superscript letters a and b were significantly different in Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparisons.

¹Measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (neutral) to 7 (strongly agree).

*** $p < .001$.

Table 4. Repeated Measures ANOVA Results of Emotion Regulation Strategies (ERSs) on Positive Emotions.

Strategies ¹	M (SD)					F
	Section 1	Section 2	Section 3	Section 4	Section 5	
1. <i>Social sharing</i> : I talked to my friends and family	6.19 (1.49)	6.31(1.39)	6.26 (1.43)	6.18 (1.47)	6.14 (1.43)	0.942
2. <i>Savoring</i> : I tried to revel in the moment and concentrate on how good I felt	5.64 (1.65) ^a	6.03 (1.39) ^b	5.91 (1.52)	6.00 (1.40) ^b	5.71 (1.54) ^a	6.676 ^{***}
3. <i>Emotional expression</i> : I expressed my positive emotions by showing them	5.86 (1.49) ^a	6.19 (1.23) ^b	6.17 (1.22) ^b	6.15 (1.22) ^b	5.89 (1.44) ^a	8.139 ^{***}
4. <i>Capitalizing</i> : I made a plan to make the good situation happen again	5.08 (1.76)	5.34 (1.77)	5.22 (1.85)	5.21 (1.77)	5.27 (1.76)	1.451
5. <i>Stimulus control</i> : I avoided all negative thoughts and emotions	4.50 (2.09) ^a	4.74 (1.94) ^b	4.71 (1.98)	4.78 (1.91) ^b	4.56 (1.91) ^a	2.837 ^{**}
6. <i>Broadening</i> : I thought about all the good things that were happening in my life as well	5.43 (1.73)	5.37 (1.68)	5.31 (1.75)	5.25 (1.80)	5.16 (1.80)	2.446
7. <i>Replaying</i> : I replayed all the details of the event in mind	4.66 (2.00)	4.73 (1.93)	4.71 (2.02)	4.73 (1.97)	4.91 (1.91)	1.518
8. <i>Other-credit</i> : I thought how someone else was responsible for this good situation	4.27 (2.28)	4.09 (2.23)	4.18 (2.22)	4.20 (2.23)	4.09 (2.24)	1.124
9. <i>Behavioral activation</i> : I sought out activities and socializing	5.03 (2.08) ^a	5.61 (1.64) ^b	5.48 (1.76) ^b	5.58 (1.78) ^b	5.09 (1.92) ^a	9.427 ^{***}
10. <i>Substance use</i> : I smoked a cigarette or drank a drink or got high or exercised	3.25 (2.75) ^a	3.83 (2.70) ^b	3.77 (2.73) ^b	3.78 (2.69) ^b	3.21 (2.51) ^a	10.445 ^{***}

Note: Any two values with different superscript letters a and b were significantly different in Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparisons.

¹Measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (neutral) to 7 (strongly agree).

** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < .001$.

(55.9%) were full-time or part-time staff, and a small proportion (4.6%) were retired or postdoctoral scholars. The vast majority of respondents (84.9%) were married or living with their partners.

Changes in Tourists' Use of ERSs over Their Travel Experience

To address whether tourists' use of ERSs changed over the travel experience (i.e., research question 1), a series of repeated measures ANOVA tests were conducted. First, two indices of ERSs were created for both positive and negative emotions (Table 3). In general, respondents' use of ERSs on positive emotions had significant change over their vacation ($F = 7.822, p < .001$), while no significant differences were found in the general use of ERSs on negative emotions. In terms of their use of ERSs with positive emotions, there were

five significant models—respondents' use of savoring ($F = 6.676, p < .001$), emotional expression ($F = 8.139, p < .001$), stimulus control ($F = 2.837, p = .030$), behavioral activation ($F = 9.427, p < .001$), and substance use ($F = 10.445, p < .001$)—that significantly changed over the course of tourists' vacations (Table 4). Post hoc pairwise comparison analyses revealed that respondents exhibited a significantly higher level of using emotional expression ($M_{sec.2} = 6.19, M_{sec.3} = 6.17, M_{sec.4} = 6.15$), behavioral activation ($M_{sec.2} = 5.61, M_{sec.3} = 5.48, M_{sec.4} = 5.58$), and substance use ($M_{sec.2} = 3.83, M_{sec.3} = 3.77, M_{sec.4} = 3.78$) at travel sections two, three, and four than the first and last travel sections (Figure 1). Respondents also reported significantly increased use of savoring ($M_{sec.2} = 6.03, M_{sec.4} = 6.00$) and stimulus control ($M_{sec.2} = 4.74, M_{sec.4} = 4.78$) at travel sections two and four, compared with the first and last travel sections. No significant differences were found in the

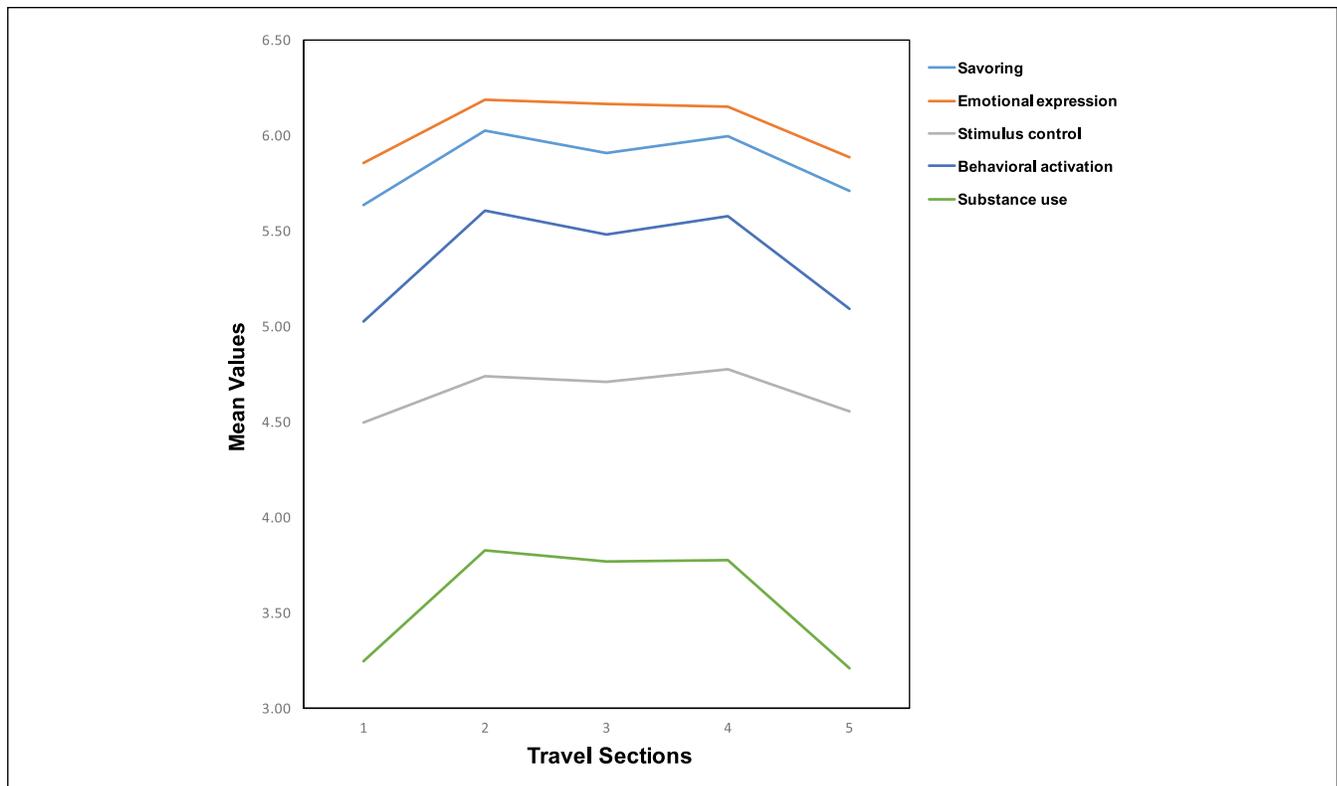


Figure 1. Changes in tourists' use of five ERs on positive emotions over their travel experience.

use of the remaining five regulation strategies on positive emotions across the five travel sections.

In terms of using ERs with negative emotions, the use of acceptance ($F = 3.504, p = .011$) and substance use ($F = 3.932, p = .004$; Table 5) regulation strategies significantly differed over the course of a vacation. Post hoc pairwise comparison analyses indicated that respondents were significantly more likely to use acceptance ($M_{sec.5} = 5.61$) as a regulation strategy at the end of their vacations than during the middle of their vacations ($M_{sec.3} = 5.22$; Figure 2). Respondents also reported significantly increased use of substance use at travel sections two ($M_{sec.2} = 3.48$) and three ($M_{sec.3} = 3.44$), compared with the first section of their vacations ($M_{sec.1} = 2.94$). None of the remaining eight strategies used with negative emotions were found to significantly change over the course of individuals' vacations.

Interactions between Tourists' Use of ERs and Sociodemographic Characteristics

To answer the second research question (i.e., whether sociodemographic characteristics explain changes in tourists' use of ERs over their travel experience), sociodemographic variables (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, and occupation) were added into a series of repeated measures ANCOVA models as covariates. Out of the 10 regulation strategies for positive emotions, results showed significant within-subject interactions between tourists' use of four

strategies (i.e., emotional expression, replaying, other-credit, and substance use) and three sociodemographic variables (i.e., gender, education, and occupation). First, gender was found to significantly influence the change patterns when respondents used emotional expression (i.e., I expressed my positive emotions by showing them; $F = 2.783, p = .028$) and replaying (i.e., I replayed all the details of the event in mind; $F = 4.196, p = .003$) to regulate their positive emotions (Figures 3 and 4). Females were significantly more likely to use both strategies at the beginning of their vacations than males.

Second, respondents' occupation significantly influenced the change in use patterns associated with the positive strategy of other-credit ($F = 2.725, p = .035$; Figure 5). Full-time and part-time faculty were significantly more likely to regulate their emotions by thinking that someone else was responsible for their good situation (i.e., other-credit) during the first section of their vacations, compared with their counterparts; however, retirees and postdoctoral scholars (i.e., others) significantly used more of this strategy during the last travel section than the other groups of respondents.

Lastly, respondents' education level also significantly mattered in terms of the change patterns of using substances to regulate positive emotions over the travel experience ($F = 3.866, p = .005$; Figure 6). Respondents with higher levels of education were significantly more likely to use substances (e.g., smoking, drinking, getting high or exercising) to regulate their positive emotions during the middle sections of the

Table 5. Repeated Measures ANOVA Results of Emotion Regulation Strategies (ERSs) on Negative Emotions.

Strategies ¹	M (SD)					F
	Section 1	Section 2	Section 3	Section 4	Section 5	
1. <i>Acceptance</i> : I accepted the situation and/or my emotions	5.57 (1.70)	5.36 (1.79)	5.22 (2.00) ^a	5.43 (1.69)	5.61 (1.66) ^b	3.504 ^{**}
2. <i>Behavioral activation</i> : I found an activity to keep myself busy and distracted	5.03 (1.99)	5.10 (1.95)	4.96 (1.96)	5.16 (1.92)	5.18 (1.86)	0.990
3. <i>Problem-solving</i> : I made a plan to make the situation better	4.89 (2.06)	4.96 (1.96)	4.81 (2.06)	4.84 (2.01)	5.00 (1.93)	0.680
4. <i>Positive refocusing</i> : I thought of something pleasant instead of what had happened	4.64 (2.12)	4.71 (2.02)	4.66 (2.03)	4.89 (1.97)	4.85 (1.94)	1.454
5. <i>Social support</i> : I found a friend or family member to talk to	5.10 (2.04)	4.89 (2.09)	4.97 (2.15)	5.02 (1.98)	5.19 (1.92)	1.371
6. <i>Benefit finding</i> : I thought about how I could become stronger or learn from this situation	4.30 (2.28)	4.49 (2.06)	4.49 (2.22)	4.60 (1.96)	4.44 (2.11)	1.273
7. <i>Perspective</i> : I reminded myself that things could be worse	4.78 (2.16)	4.70 (2.21)	4.51 (2.23)	4.65 (2.10)	4.76 (2.16)	1.304
8. <i>Substance use</i> : I smoked a cigarette or drank a drink or got high or exercised	2.94 (2.58) ^a	3.48 (2.56) ^b	3.44 (2.66) ^b	3.35 (2.47)	3.24 (2.56)	3.932 ^{**}
9. <i>Rumination</i> : I thought over and over again about the situation	3.72 (2.40)	3.69 (2.38)	3.75 (2.45)	3.74 (2.24)	3.78 (2.33)	0.084
10. <i>Expression suppression</i> : I controlled my negative emotions by not showing them	4.43 (2.22)	4.34 (2.15)	4.48 (2.21)	4.30 (2.12)	4.44 (2.09)	0.477

Note: Any two values with different superscript letters a and b were significantly different in Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparisons.

¹Measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (neutral) to 7 (strongly agree).

**p < .05.

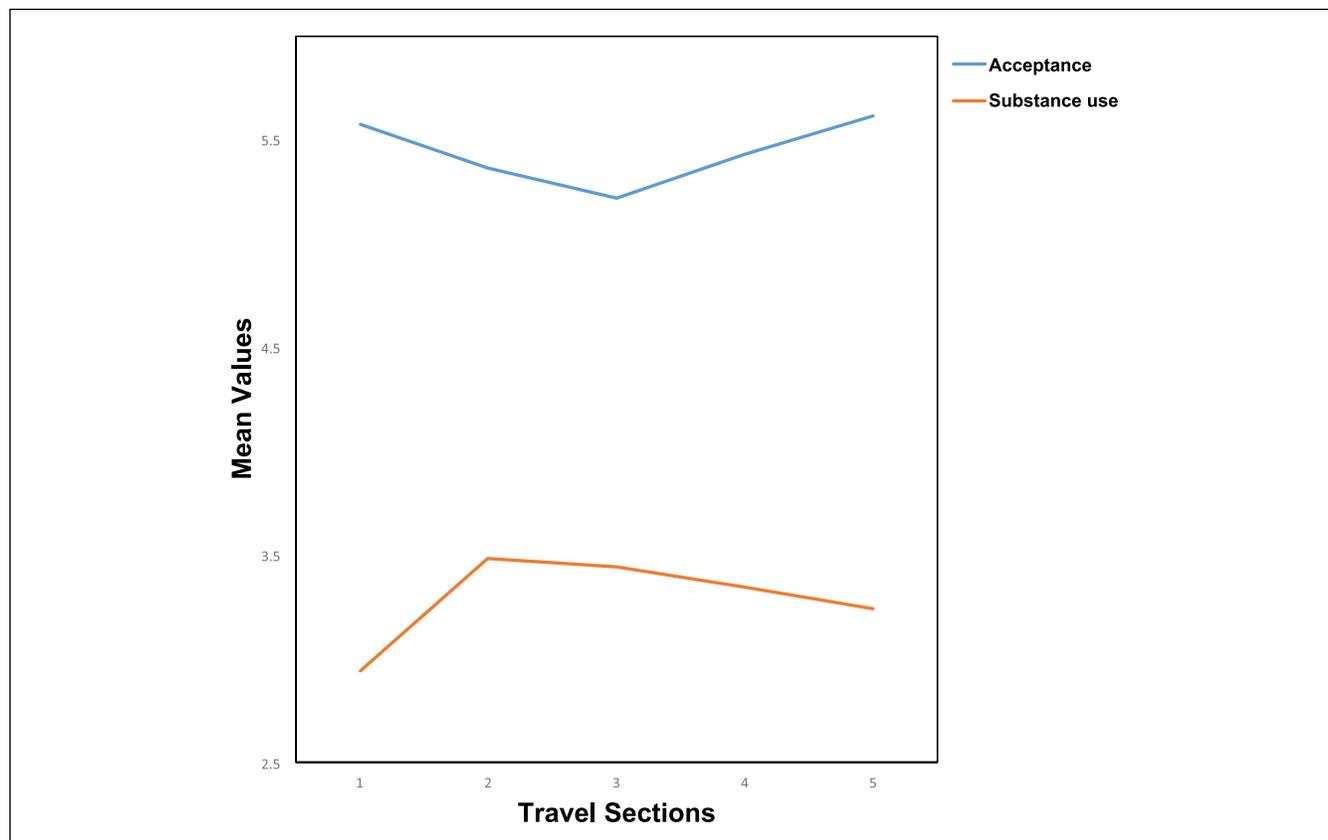


Figure 2. Changes in tourists' use of two ERSs on negative emotions over their travel experience.

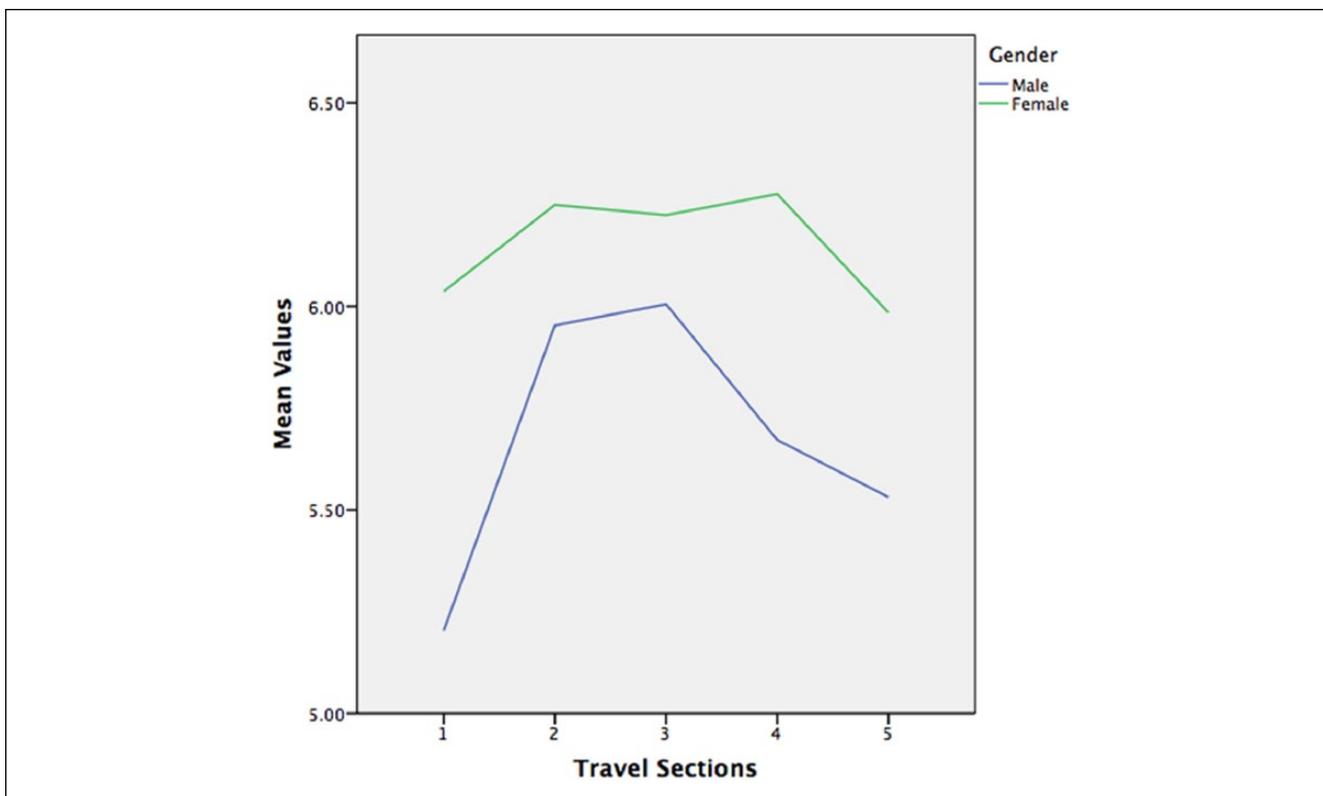


Figure 3. Within-subject effect of gender on using the positive strategy of emotional expression.

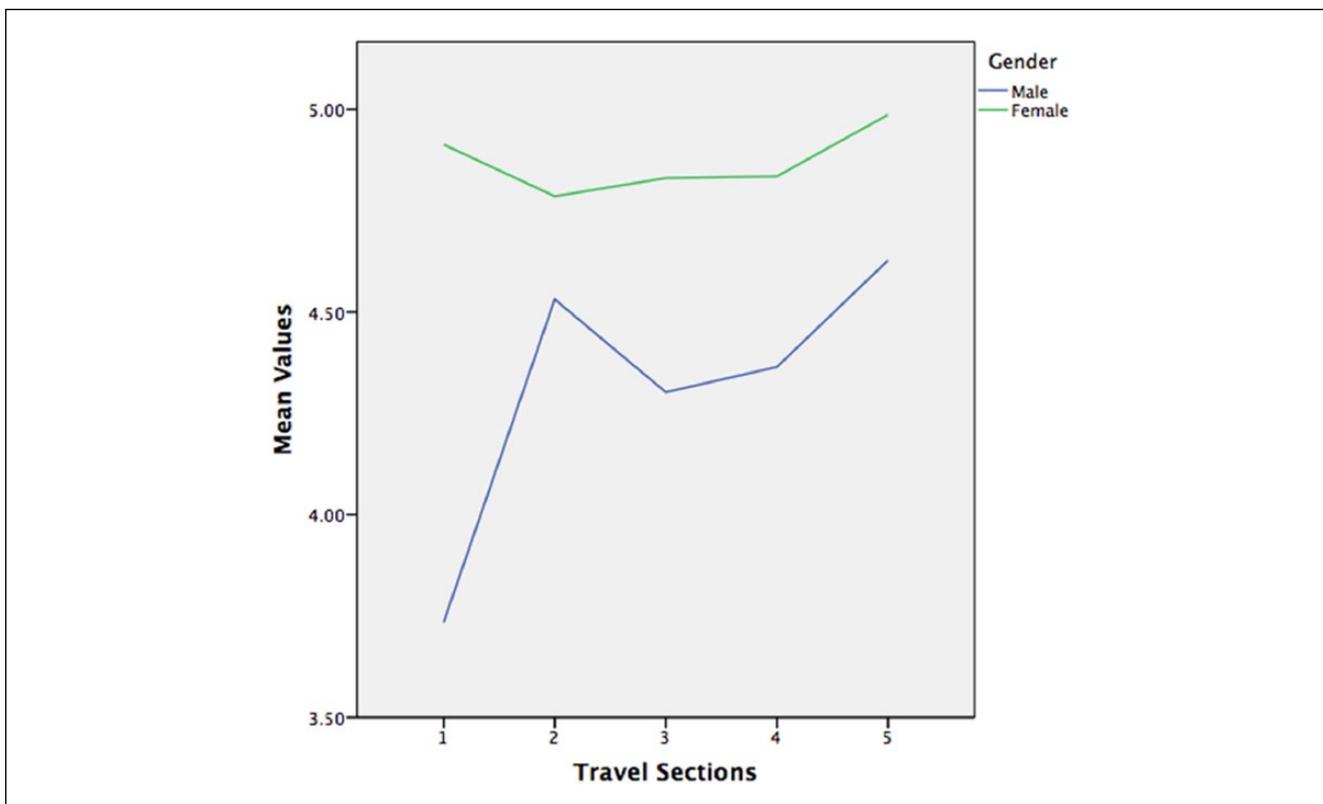


Figure 4. Within-subject effect of gender on using the positive strategy of replaying.

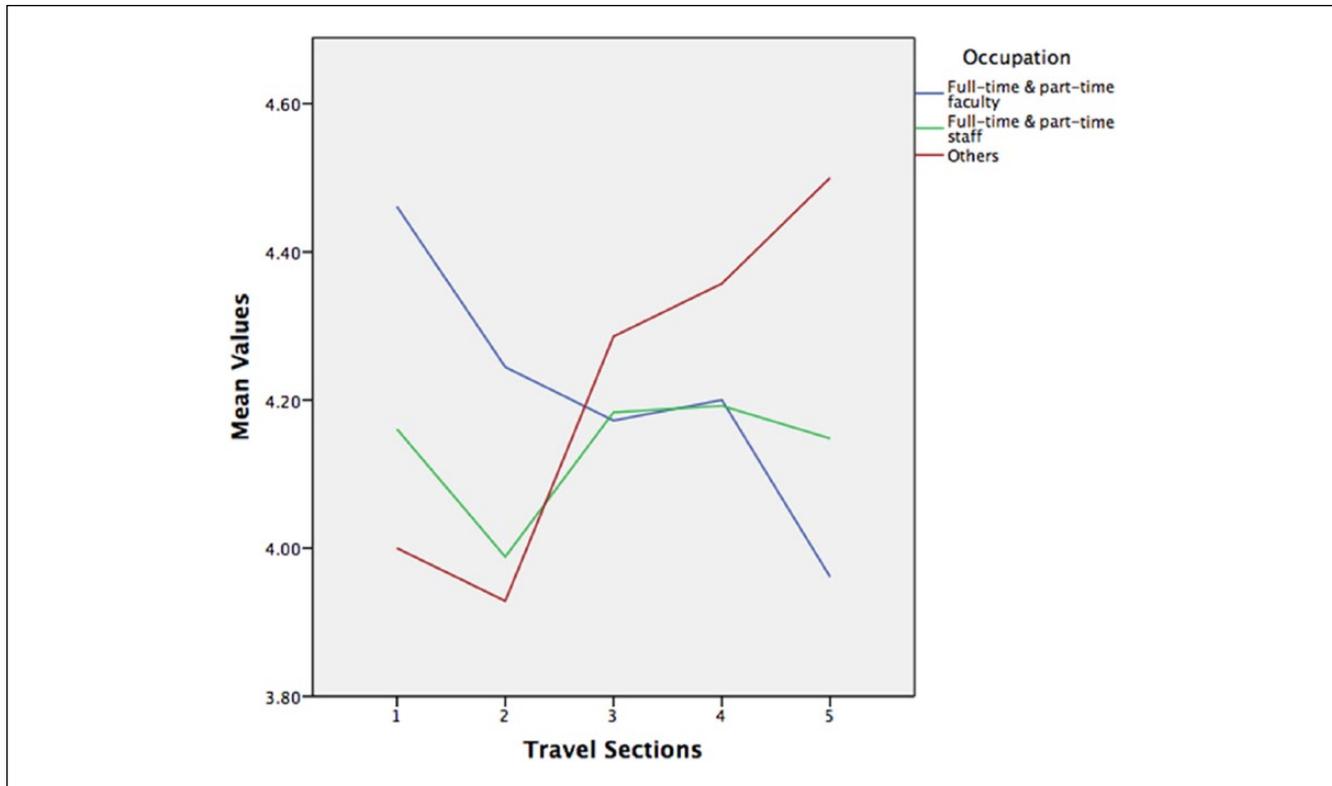


Figure 5. Within-subject effect of occupation on using the positive strategy of other-credit.

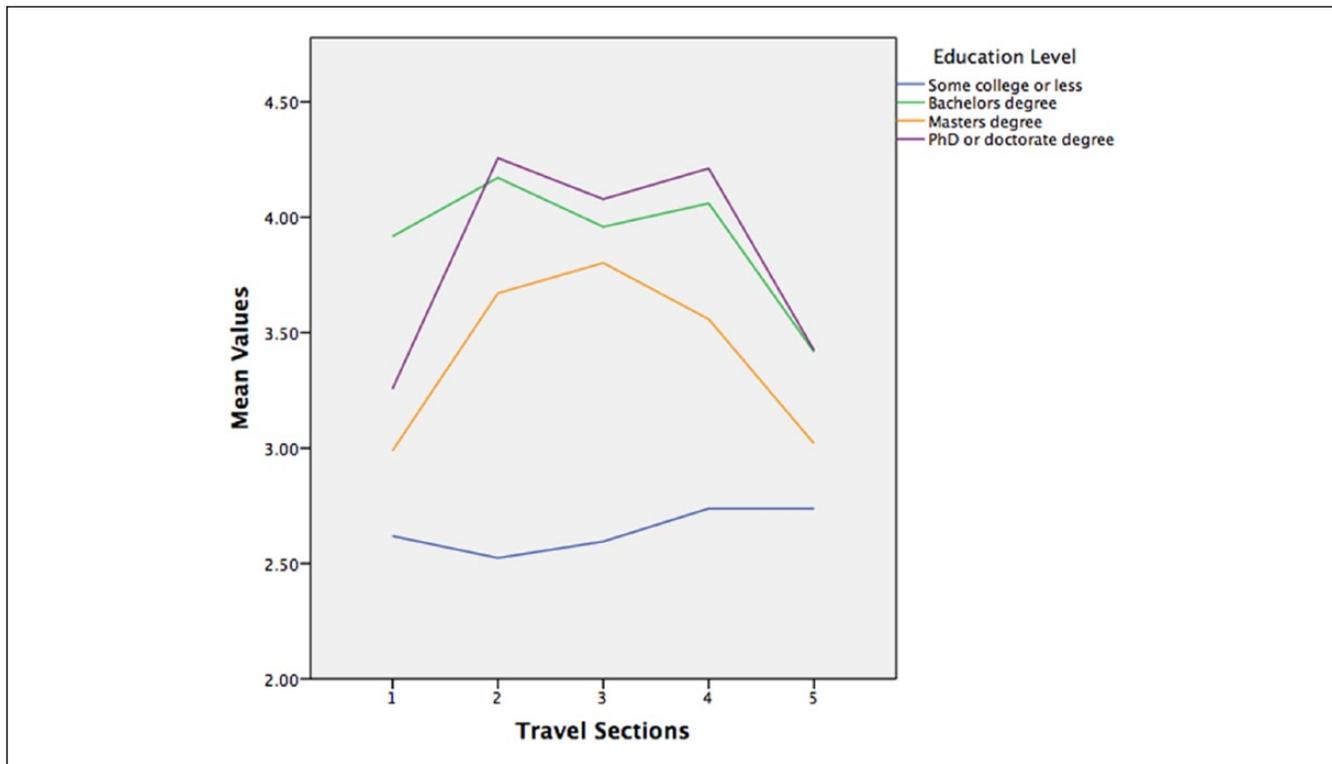


Figure 6. Within-subject effect of education level on using the positive strategy of substance use.

vacation than their counterparts who had lower education levels. No other significant within-subject interactions were found between tourists' use of ERSs on positive emotions and sociodemographic characteristics.

For the strategies individuals used to regulate their negative emotions, results revealed significant within-subject interaction models between age and benefit finding (Figure 7) as well as marital status and substance use (Figure 8). Respondents who were between the ages of 18 and 39 were more likely to regulate their negative emotions by thinking about how they could become stronger or learn from the situation (i.e., benefit finding) during the middle section of the vacation than those in the two older age groups ($F = 2.993$, $p = .021$). Respondents who reported being single or living alone exhibited a significantly lower likelihood of using substances (e.g., smoking, drinking, getting high, and/or exercising) to regulate their negative emotions during travel section four than married respondents and those who live with their partners ($F = 2.650$, $p = .035$). No other significant findings were revealed regarding tourists' use of ERSs on negative emotions and sociodemographic characteristics.

Discussion and Implications

Respondents exhibited significant differences in their use of five ERSs with positive emotions (i.e., savoring, emotional expression, stimulus control, behavioral activation, and substance use) and two ERSs with negative emotions (i.e., acceptance and substance use) during their travel experience. For the five ERSs used with positive emotions, tourists' use patterns peaked at travel sections two and four and bottomed out at the first and last travel sections. This change was represented by an M-shaped pattern, indicating that the use of emotion regulation strategies to increase the intensity of positive emotions during a vacation took place during travel sections two and four and were least likely at the beginning and end of the vacation. This result lends support to Lin et al.'s (2014) finding that tourists felt more positive emotions during the vacation than at the beginning and end, and that they not only feel, but also build upon, their positive emotions by using emotion regulation strategies to increase their intensity.

In terms of the two ERSs used with negative emotions, tourists' use of acceptance exhibited a V-shaped pattern, which peaked at the first and last travel sections and bottomed at the middle travel section. In contrast, tourists exhibited an inverted V-shaped use pattern with their use of substance use as an ERS to deal with negative emotions. This finding suggests that tourists were more accepting during the beginning and end of their vacation and less accepting of their situation and/or their negative emotions during the middle of their vacation. Perhaps as their vacations progress tourists move from the awareness stage to the familiarity stage (Milman and Pizam 1995) and, as a result, want to control their negative emotions. Without more focused research on this finding, however, this is simply conjecture. In addition, the fact that some tourists

chose to smoke, drink, and/or exercise to deal with their negative emotions is consistent with existing evidence that negative emotions trigger relapses in addictive behaviors such as smoking and drinking (Tice and Bratslavsky 2000).

It is worth noting that in spite of the important role social sharing (e.g., talking to a friend or family member) has in emotional experiences (Duprez et al. 2015), there was no significant difference in its use as an ERS with positive or negative emotions during a vacation. According to Rimé (2009), social sharing is used in all contexts as a way to regulate emotions because it is a process that takes place following an emotional episode; thus, based on his research, it is not surprising that there was no significant difference uncovered in the travel context.

After adding sociodemographic variables (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, and occupation) into the models, greater insight to tourists' use of ERSs over time during a vacation was attained. Tourists' gender influences their decisions to choose ERSs on positive emotions during a vacation. On average, females used more of both strategies during travel and exhibited a significantly higher level of use at the beginning of their vacations than males, which confirms previous researchers' (e.g., Lang et al. 1993; Kring and Gordon 1998; Kring, Smith, and Neale 1994) findings that women tend to be more emotionally expressive and responsive than men. In addition, faculty tended to assign others' credit for their positive emotions during the initial stage of their vacations, while retirees and postdoctoral scholars (i.e., others) did so at the end of their vacations. Of note is the fact that all three occupational groups used this strategy to intensify their positive emotions, providing partial support for Wong and Law's (2002) contention that using ERSs significantly influenced their positive attitudes, regardless of occupation.

Lastly, tourists with higher levels of education were significantly more likely than tourists with lower levels of education to deal with their emotions by smoking, drinking, getting high, and/or exercising during the middle sections of their vacation. This result differs from previous evidence on the positive relationship between lower education and higher level of substance use (Wills, McNamara, and Vaccaro 1995). The difference might be due to a number of factors. First, much of the research on the relationship between education and substance use has not been conducted in a travel context, which can be quite different from everyday life (E. Cohen 1979), allowing for behaviors (Lehto, O'Leary, and Morrison 2004). Second, we used the ERS scale presented by Heiy and Cheavens (2014), which included exercise in the regulation statement regarding substance use. Exercise has not been included in previous studies examining the use of substances (e.g., Kilpatrick et al. 1997; Newcomb and Bentler 1989; Wills, McNamara, and Vaccaro 1995).

Significant interactions were also revealed between tourists' age and their use of benefit finding, as well as marital status and use of substance use to regulate negative emotions. Younger respondents tended to think more about how

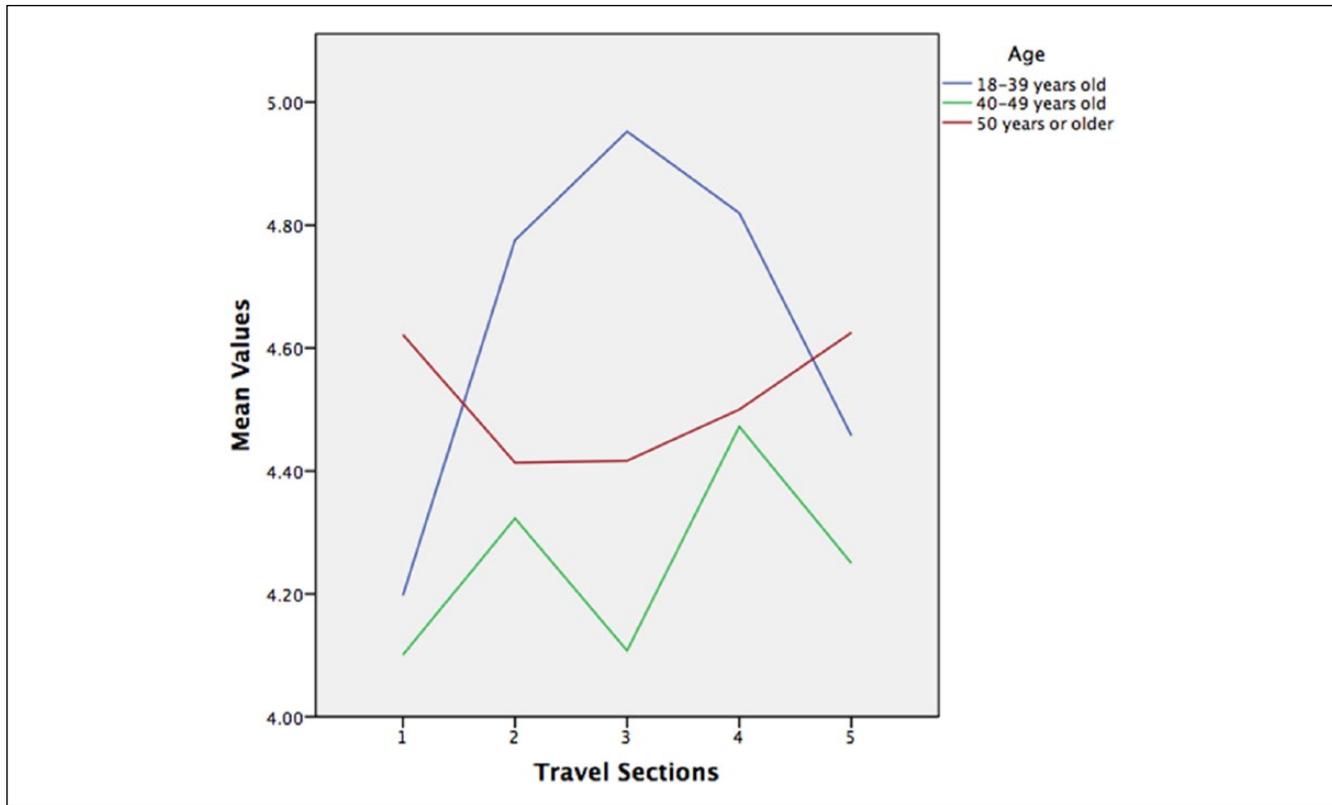


Figure 7. Within-subject effect of age on using the negative strategy of benefit finding.

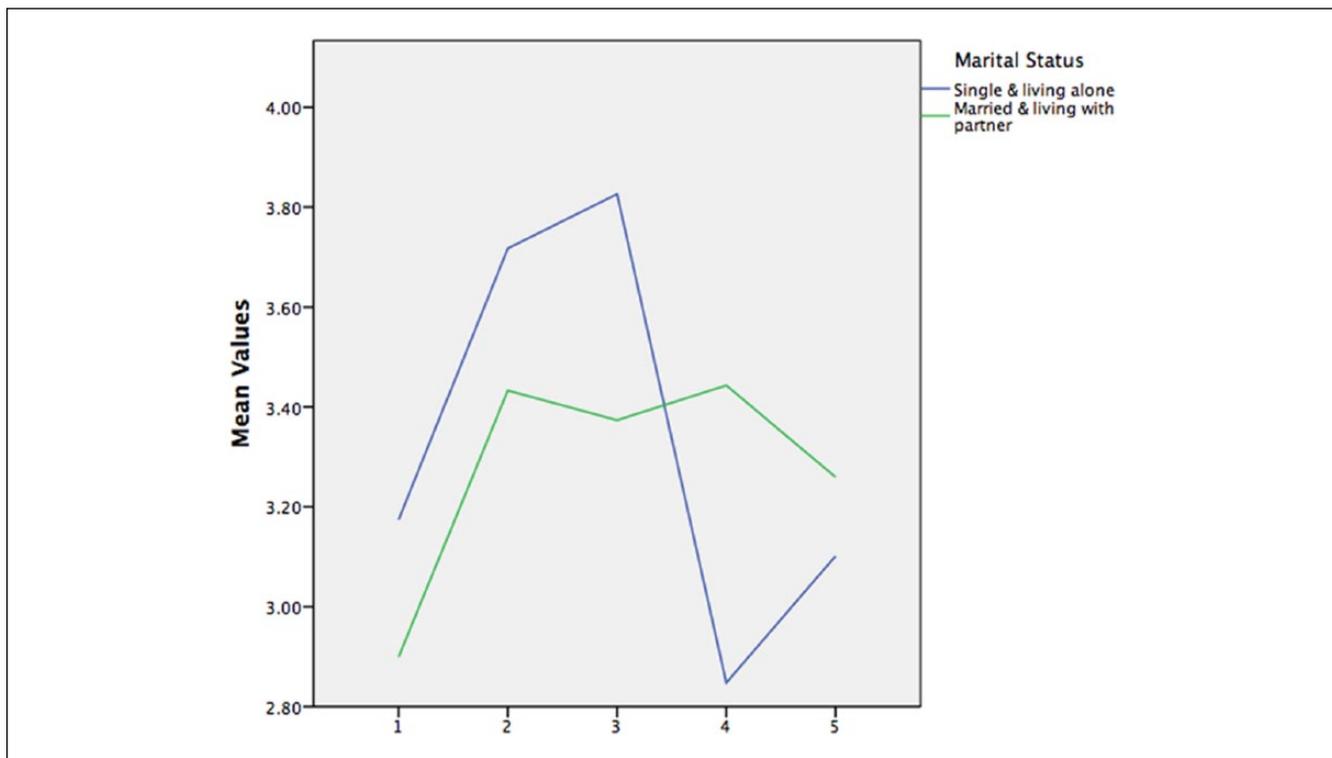


Figure 8. Within-subject effect of marital status on using the negative strategy of substance use.

they could become stronger or learn from the situation (i.e., benefit finding) to regulate their negative emotions during the middle section of the vacation, which is different from previous findings on the lower use of cognitive emotion regulation strategies by younger people (Garnefski and Kraaij 2006). This variance might be due to the higher average age included in the study's younger group (i.e., from 18 to 39 years). It may also be that when compared with their day-to-day life, vacations provide younger people a new context in which they can reflect on their lives (Dolnicar, Yanamandram, and Cliff 2012). Further, respondents who were single or living alone exhibited significantly lower use of substances (e.g., smoking, drinking, getting high or exercising) to regulate their negative emotions during travel section four. This finding might be because those who were single or living alone did not have a travel partner, and thus they were not influenced by their peers' use of substances (Fleming et al. 2010), particularly when they approached the end of a trip and experienced less positive emotions (Lin et al. 2014). Without a travel partner, those who were single or living alone might also be less influenced by their peers' negative emotions and thus decrease their need for substances to regulate negative emotions.

In sum, the results of this study extend Lin et al.'s (2014) finding that positive emotions peak during the middle section of vacations by documenting that individuals not only have positive emotions but use ERSs to increase their intensity. The results also extend knowledge regarding tourists' emotional experiences by addressing change patterns associated with strategies used to regulate positive and negative emotions. Furthermore, we documented that changes in regulation strategies hold across a variety of sociodemographic characteristics, which significantly influence tourists' use of ERSs during the vacation.

Conclusions

Study results suggested that tourists exhibited significant differences when using five ERSs with positive emotions and two ERSs with negative emotions during their vacations, and some sociodemographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender) were found to play a significant role in explaining these patterns of change. By documenting tourists' use patterns of emotion regulation strategies in the travel context and their variation based on sociodemographic characteristics, we have contributed to the body of tourism and emotion research. We used a unique perspective to study emotions during a vacation by accounting for the regulatory nature of emotions. This unique, dynamic perspective considers emotions as transient, dynamic, and variable, as well as the variances of an emotional response's vertical, generative process (Gao and Kerstetter 2018). Thus, the results not only challenge the existing approach that only acknowledges the horizontal fluctuation and changes of emotions during an experience, but also show how tourists use emotion regulation strategies

at different stages of their vacations and the significant role sociodemographic characteristics play in their use patterns. Considering researchers' growing interest in the role of emotions in travel behavior, it is important to continue with this line of research by adopting a dynamic perspective and/or accounting for the regulatory nature of emotions.

Despite these theoretical contributions to the tourism field, there are several limitations to this study. First, study participants were faculty or staff working for the same institution of higher education. They reported higher levels of education and identified themselves as more mature travelers with some travel experience. While we intentionally chose this homogeneous population given its potential to be more aware of personal feelings and ability to document emotion regulation strategies (Gross and John 2003), we recognize that the results cannot be generalized to the general tourist population. In the future, researchers should use a more diverse sample of tourists in order to validate the results of this study. They should also examine the role of influencing variables, such as income level, that may impact tourists' use of ERSs.

Furthermore, with the research method employed, we were not able to differentiate between tourists' purposeful and natural use of ERSs. For instance, some regulation strategies used with positive emotions (e.g., seeking out activities and socializing, smoking a cigarette or drinking a drink) might have naturally occurred during the beginning and last sections of the vacation. Thus, when conducting studies on ERSs in the future, researchers may want to include an examination between purposeful and natural use of ERSs in the travel context. For example, in-depth interviews might be used with tourists to find out whether strategies such as seeking out activities and socializing are being used as a strategy to regulate their emotions or simply something that commonly happens during their vacations. In addition, researchers might also want to examine ERSs in other travel contexts, such as business or conference trips, and volunteer tourism, to determine whether tourists' use of ERSs are similar. Since using ERSs is a motivated behavior to consciously manipulate emotions, it is important to take tourists' motivations and previous experiences into account. From the travel career perspective, tourists may develop a "travel career," which refers to a pattern of travel motives that change over the life span and/or accumulated travel experiences (Pearce and Lee 2005; Gnoth and Matteucci 2014). Thus, additional studies should be conducted not only to examine the cumulative effects of self-experiences over time and/or different motivations in using ERSs but also to consider multiple vacations instead of one vacation, which might enable a more nuanced understanding of the dynamic and variable nature of emotions as well as their regulation and consequences (e.g., well-being). Because some sociodemographic characteristics were found to play a significant role in explaining patterns of change in tourists' use of ERSs, researchers should also conduct longitudinal studies to document the dynamicity of the

relationship between sociodemographic characteristics and use of ERSs. For example, does an individual's use of ERSs to deal with certain emotions change over time with age, more education, or greater income? And does their use of ERSs over time covary with, as Gnoth and Mattecucii (2014) suggested, their travel career?

Lastly, to assess tourists' use of ERSs, we used a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored in 1 (strongly disagree), 4 (neutral), and 7 (strongly agree). This scale did not provide respondents with a "not applicable" option, which may have been problematic when respondents felt an emotion was irrelevant to a strategy. As a result, respondents may have used "neutral" or "strongly disagree," considering either one to be equivalent to "not applicable." The potential result may be an inconsistency in their answers. Although this scale has been used and tested in previous emotion regulation studies (Heiy and Cheavens 2014), future studies should address this potential problem by clearly defining "neutral" and "strongly disagree," as well as exemplifying what respondents should choose in situations where they do not feel an emotion is applicable.

Our study results have also provided valuable practical implications. For example, the results of this study suggest that in order to survive and excel in the increasingly competitive environment of the tourism industry, tourism companies and professionals must acknowledge and respond to tourists' emotions and their use of ERSs by accounting for the role of their sociodemographic characteristics in influencing changes in their use. For example, in this study women were more likely to express emotions and replay details of their experiences at the beginning stage of their vacations. Rather than focusing on the benefits of the destination, tourism providers should consider incorporating images (e.g., a happy woman with a big smile) and/or words that showcase elements of emotional expression into the design of media (e.g., travel brochures, promotional films, websites) that tourists may be more likely to see or hear at the early stage of their vacation.

As more evidence has revealed the important role emotions play in consumer satisfaction, future intention to return, and word of mouth (e.g., Bigne, Andreu, and Gnoth 2005; Tung and Ritchie 2011), tourism managers and their marketing teams should tap into tourists' emotions and internal desire to pursue positive emotions and happiness during a vacation while also offering utilitarian benefits (e.g., price reduction). For example, according to this study's results, younger tourists were more likely to regulate emotions cognitively by seeking benefits during the middle of their vacation, rather than venting their negative emotions; thus, tourism providers should provide experiences that result in multiple benefits (e.g., socialization, laughter, education, personal growth) and/or utilize various forms of promotion that highlight these same benefits. In addition, tourists smoked, drank, and/or exercised to regulate their positive and their negative emotions, especially during the middle of a vacation. Together with their needs for social activities

during a vacation, tourism managers should consider adding activities or experiences to address both demands. Examples of such activities or experiences might include happy hour specials, physical events that connect tourists, even wine tasting events that combine both drinking and socialization. Further, hotel and tour companies often offer discounts for future visits at the end of a vacation. Given the results of this study, they should do this approximately 80% of the way through individuals' vacations.

By examining potential changes in tourists' use of ERSs over the travel experience, this study has expanded our understanding of how tourists use ERSs to regulate their positive and negative emotions over the course of a vacation, and the role that sociodemographic characteristics play in explaining such patterns of change in their use of ERSs. Study results contribute to the tourism literature by examining tourists' emotions from the dynamic perspective, and exploring how tourists react to their varying emotions throughout the course of their travel experience. They also provide important implications for tourism researchers and professionals about acknowledging and addressing the change in tourists' use of ERSs during a vacation when planning travel itineraries and programs.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Notes

1. "A pattern of travel motives characterizes or reflects one's travel career. The state of one's travel career, like a career at work, is influenced by previous travel experiences and life stage or contingency factors" (Pearce and Lee 2005, p. 228).
2. When creating the travel sections, an outlier of a 30-day vacation was initially removed from the data prior to statistical analyses. However, there were no significant differences in the results with and without the outlier; thus, it was returned to the data set.

References

- Apter, M. J. 1989. *Reversal Theory: Motivation, Emotion and Personality*. London: Routledge.
- Beedie, C. J., P. C. Terry, and A. M. Lane. 2005. "Distinctions between Emotion and Mood." *Cognition and Emotion* 19 (6): 847–78.
- Bigne, J. E., L. Andreu, and J. Gnoth. 2005. "The Theme Park Experience: An Analysis of Pleasure, Arousal and Satisfaction." *Tourism Management* 26 (6): 833–44.
- Chuang, S. C. 2007. "Sadder but Wiser or Happier and Smarter? A Demonstration of Judgment and Decision Making." *Journal of Psychology* 141 (1): 63–76.
- Coghlan, A., and P. Pearce. 2010. "Tracking Affective Components of Satisfaction." *Tourism and Hospitality Research* 10 (1): 42–58.

- Cohen, E. 1979. "A Phenomenology of Tourist Experiences." *Sociology* 13:179–201.
- Cohen, Joel B., and Charles S. Areni. 1991. "Affect and Consumer Behavior." In *Handbook of Consumer Behavior*, edited by Thomas S. Robertson and Harold H. Kassirjian, 188–240. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. 1975. "Play and Intrinsic Rewards." *Journal of Humanistic Psychology* 15 (3): 41–63.
- De Rojas, C., and C. Camarero. 2008. "Visitors' Experience, Mood and Satisfaction in a Heritage Context: Evidence from an Interpretation Center." *Tourism Management* 29 (3): 525–37.
- Dolnicar, S., V. Yanamandram, and K. Cliff. 2012. "The Contribution of Vacations to Quality of Life." *Annals of Tourism Research* 39 (1): 59–83.
- Duprez, C., V. Christophe, B. Rimé, A. Congard, and P. Antoine. 2015. "Motives for the Social Sharing of an Emotional Experience." *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships* 32 (6): 757–87.
- Faul, F., E. Erdfelder, A. Buchner, and A.-G. Lang. 2013. *G*Power Version 3.1.7* [computer software]. Universität Kiel, Germany. <http://www.psych.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/download-and-register>.
- Field, A. P. 2000. *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS for Windows: Advanced Techniques for the Beginner*. London: Sage.
- Field, T. 1994. "The Effects of Mother's Physical and Emotional Unavailability on Emotion Regulation." In *The Development of Emotion Regulation: Biological and Behavioral Considerations*, edited by N. A. Fox, 208–27. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 59 (2-3, Serial No. 240). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Fleming, C. B., R. F. Catalano, K. P. Haggerty, and R. D. Abbott. 2010. "Relationships between Level and Change in Family, School, and Peer Factors during Two Periods of Adolescence and Problem Behavior at Age 19." *Journal of Youth and Adolescence* 39:670–82.
- Fredrickson, B. L., and M. F. Losada. 2005. "Positive Affect and the Complex Dynamics of Human Flourishing." *American Psychologist* 60:678–86.
- Frijda, N. 1988. "The Laws of Emotion." *American Psychologist* 43 (1): 349–58.
- Gao, J., C. Barbieri, and C. Valdivia. 2014. "Agricultural Landscape Preferences: Implications for Agritourism Development." *Journal of Travel Research* 5 (3): 366–79.
- Gao, J., and D. Kerstetter. 2018. "From Sad to Happy to Happier: Emotion Regulation Strategies Used during a Vacation." *Annals of Tourism Research* 69:1–14.
- Garnefski, N., and V. Kraaij. 2006. "Relationships between Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies and Depressive Symptoms: A Comparative Study of Five Specific Samples." *Personality and Individual Differences* 40:1659–1669.
- Gilbert, D., and J. Abdullah. 2004. "Holidaytaking and the Sense of Well-Being." *Annals of Tourism Research* 31 (1): 103–21.
- Girden, E. R. 1992. *ANOVA: Repeated Measures*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Gnoth, J., and X. Matteucci. 2014. "A Phenomenological View of the Behavioural Tourism Research Literature." *International Journal of Culture Tourism and Hospitality Research* 8 (1): 3–21.
- Gnoth, J., A. Zins, R. Lenmueller, and C. Boshoff. 2000. "Emotions, Mood, Flow and Motivations to Travel." *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 9 (3): 23–34.
- Goodall, B., and G. Ashworth. 1988. *Marketing in the Tourism Industry*. London: Croom Helm.
- Grandey, A. A. 2000. "Emotional Regulation in the Workplace: A New Way to Conceptualize Emotional Labor." *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* 5:95–110.
- Gross, J. J. 1998. "The Emerging Field of Emotion Regulation: An Integrative Review." *Review of General Psychology* 2:271–99.
- Gross, J. J. 1999. "Emotion Regulation: Past, Present, Future." *Cognition and Emotion* 13 (5): 551–73.
- Gross, J. J. 2001. "Emotion Regulation in Adulthood: Timing Is Everything." *Current Directions in Psychological Sciences* 10:215.
- Gross, J. J. 2013. "Emotion Regulation: Taking Stock and Moving Forward." *Emotion* 13 (3): 359–65.
- Gross, J. J. 2014. "Emotion Regulation: Conceptual and Empirical Foundations." In *Handbook of Emotion Regulation*, 2nd ed., edited by J. J. Gross, 3–20. New York: Guilford.
- Gross, J. J., and L. F. Barrett. 2011. "Emotion Generation and Emotion Regulation: One or Two Depends on Your Point of View." *Emotion Review* 3 (1): 8–16.
- Gross, J. J., and O. P. John. 2003. "Individual Differences in Two Emotion Regulation Processes: Implications for Affect, Relationships, and Wellbeing." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 85 (2): 348–62.
- Gross, J. J., and R. W. Levenson. 1997. "Hiding Feelings: The Acute Effects of Inhibiting Positive and Negative Emotions." *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 106:95–103.
- Heij, J. E., and J. S. Cheavens. 2014. "Back to Basics: A Naturalistic Assessment of the Experience and Regulation of Emotion." *Emotion* 14 (5): 878–91.
- Jang, S., B. Bai, C. Hu, and C. E. Wu. 2009. "Affect, Travel Motivation, and Travel Intention: A Senior Market." *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* 33 (1): 51–73.
- Just, N., and L. B. Alloy. 1997. "The Response Styles Theory of Depression: Tests and an Extension of the Theory." *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 106:221–29.
- Kilpatrick, D. G., R. Acierno, H. S. Resnick, B. E. Saunders, and C. L. Best. 1997. "A 2-Year Longitudinal Analysis of the Relationships between Violent Assault and Substance Use in Women." *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 65 (5): 834–47.
- Kirilova, K., X. Y. Lehto, and L. Cai. 2017. "Existential Authenticity and Anxiety as Outcomes: The Tourist in the Experience Economy." *International Journal of Tourism Research* 19: 13–26.
- Kring, A. M., and A. H. Gordon. 1998. "Sex Differences in Emotion: Expression, Experience, and Physiology." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 74 (3): 686–703.
- Kring, A. M., D. A. Smith, and J. M. Neale. 1994. "Individual Differences in Dispositional Expressiveness: The Development and Validation of the Emotional Expressivity Scale." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 66:934–49.
- Lang, P. J., M. K. Greenwald, M. M. Bradley, and A. O. Hamm. 1993. "Looking at Pictures: Affective, Facial, Visceral, and Behavioral Reactions." *Psychophysiology* 30:261–73.
- Lazarus, R. S., and S. Folkman. 1984. *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping*. New York: Springer.
- Lehto, X. Y., J. T. O'Leary, and A. M. Morrison. 2004. "The Effects of Prior Experience on Vacation Behavior." *Annals of Tourism Research* 31 (4): 801–18.

- Levenson, Robert W., Claudia M. Haase, Lian Bloch, Sarah R. Holley, and Benjamin H. Seider. 2014. "Emotion Regulation in Couples." In *Handbook of Emotion Regulation*, 2nd ed., edited by J. J. Gross, 3–20. New York: Guilford.
- Lin, Y., D. Kerstetter, J. Nawijn, and O. Mitas. 2014. "Changes in Emotions and Their Interactions with Personality in a Vacation Context." *Tourism Management* 40:416–24.
- Mattila, A. 2001. "Emotional Bonding and Restaurant Loyalty." *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 42 (6): 73–79.
- Milman, A., and A. Pizam. 1995. "The Role of Awareness and Familiarity with a Destination: The Central Florida Case." *Journal of Travel Research* 33 (3): 21–27.
- Nawijn, J. 2010. "The Holiday Happiness Curve: A Preliminary Investigation into Mood during a Holiday Abroad." *International Journal of Tourism Research* 12 (3): 281–90.
- Nawijn, J. 2011a. "Happiness through Vacationing: Just a Temporary Boost or Long-Term Benefits?" *Journal of Happiness Studies* 12 (4): 651–65.
- Nawijn, J. 2011b. "Determinants of Daily Happiness on Vacation." *Journal of Travel Research* 50 (5): 559–66.
- Nawijn, J., O. Mitas, Y. Lin, and D. Kerstetter. 2013. "How Do We Feel on Vacation? A Closer Look at How Emotions Change over the Course of a Trip." *Journal of Travel Research* 52 (2): 265–74.
- Nawijn, J. M., M. Marchand, R. Veenhoven and A. J. Vingerhoets. 2010. "Vacationers happier, but most not happier after a holiday." *Applied Research in Quality of Life* 5 (1): 35–47.
- Newcomb, M., and P. Bentler. 1989. "Substance Use and Abuse among Children and Teenagers." *American Psychologist* 44 (2): 242–48.
- Oberfeld, Daniel, and Thomas Franke. 2013. "Evaluating the Robustness of Repeated Measures Analyses: The Case of Small Sample Sizes and Nonnormal Data." *Behavior Research Methods* 45 (3): 792–812.
- Pearce, P. L., and U.-I. Lee. 2005. "Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation." *Journal of Travel Research* 43 (3): 226–37.
- Quoidbach, J., M. Mikolajczak, and J. J. Gross. 2015. "Positive Interventions: An Emotion Regulation Perspective." *Psychological Bulletin* 141 (3): 655–93.
- Rimé, B. 2009. "Emotion Elicits the Social Sharing of Emotion: Theory and Empirical Review." *Emotion Review* 1 (1): 60–85.
- Sirakaya, E., J. Petrick, and H. S. Choi. 2004. "The Role of Mood on Tourism Product Evaluations." *Annals of Tourism Research* 31:517–39.
- Thayer, R. E., J. R. Newman, and T. M. McClain. 1994. "Self-Regulation of Mood: Strategies for Changing a Bad Mood, Raising Energy, and Reducing Tension." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 67:910–25.
- Thiruchselvam, R., G. Hajcak, and J. J. Gross. 2012. "Looking Inwards: Shifting Attention within Working Memory Representations Alters Emotional Responses." *Psychological Science* 23:1461–66.
- Tice, D. M., and E. Bratslavsky. 2000. "Giving In to Feel Good: The Place of Emotion Regulation in the Context of General Self-Control." *Psychological Inquiry* 11:149–59.
- Tung, V. W. S., and J. R. B. Ritchie. 2011. "Exploring the Essence of Memorable Tourism Experiences." *Annals of Tourism Research* 38 (4): 1367–86.
- Um, S., and J. L. Crompton. 1990. "Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice." *Annals of Tourism Research* 17:432–48.
- Weaver, P. A., K. W. McCleary, L. Lepisto, and L. T. Damonte. 1994. "The Relationship of Destination Selection Attributes to Psychological, Behavioral and Demographic Variables." *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing* 2 (2): 93–109.
- West, S. G., L. S. Aiken, and J. L. Krull. 1996. "Experimental Personality Designs: Analyzing Categorical by Continuous Variable Interactions." *Journal of Personality* 64:1–49.
- Wills, T. A., G. McNamara, and D. Vaccaro. 1995. "Parental Education Related to Adolescent Stress-Coping and Substance Use: Development of a Mediational Model." *Health Psychology* 14 (5): 464–78.
- Wilson Van Voorhis, C. R., and B. L. Morgan. 2007. "Understanding Power and Rules of Thumb for Determining Sample Sizes." *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology* 3 (2): 43–50.
- Wong, C. S., and K. S. Law. 2002. "The Effects of Leader and Follower Emotional Intelligence on Performance and Attitude: An Exploratory Study." *Leadership Quarterly* 13:243–74.
- Zammuner, V. L., and C. Galli. 2005. "Wellbeing: Causes and Consequences of Emotion Regulation in Work Settings." *International Review of Psychiatry* 17 (5): 355–64.
- Zimmer, Z., R. Brayley, and M. S. Searle. 1995. "Whether to Go and Where to Go: Identification of Important Influences on Seniors' Decisions to Travel." *Journal of Travel Research* 33 (3): 3–10.

Author Biographies

Jie Gao is an assistant professor of Tourism Marketing at Montclair State University, New Jersey (Email: jiegao@montclair.edu). Her research focuses on individuals' emotions and well-being in travel and event-based contexts, and the degree to which their emotions influence consumer decision-making.

Ye Zhang is an assistant professor in the Department of Marketing at Florida Atlantic University. Her research interest lies in tourist choice prediction and intervention, travel experience and importance among people with life challenges, and sustainable tourism evaluation.

Deborah L. Kerstetter, professor of Recreation, Park and Tourism Management at The Pennsylvania State University, is recognized for her research on factors contributing to individuals' travel-related decision making behavior and tourists impact on residents.

Stephanie Shields, professor of Psychology and Women's Studies at The Pennsylvania State University. Her central research themes are gender and emotion. She studies how emotional experience is represented in language and the meanings attached to bodily signs and symptoms of emotion.