

**Impacts of Time Perspectives on Tourists’
Travel Intention: The Mediating Roles of
Travel Motivation and Travel Attitude**

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	II
LIST OF TABLES	VII
LIST OF FIGURES	IX
ABSTRACT	X
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. OVERVIEW	1
1.2. TOURISM AND PSYCHOLOGY	4
1.3. TIME PERSPECTIVE	7
1.4. TRAVEL MOTIVATION.....	9
1.5. ATTITUDE	10
1.6. BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION	11
1.7. RESEARCH QUESTION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	12
1.8. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	14
1.9. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY	17
1.9.1. THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS.....	17
1.9.2. MANAGERIAL CONTRIBUTIONS	18
1.10. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	20
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	22
2.1. INTRODUCTION.....	22
2.2. TIME PERSPECTIVE	22
2.2.1. THE NOTION OF TIME PERSPECTIVES	23
2.2.2. THE OPERATIONALIZING OF TIME PERSPECTIVES	30
2.2.3. TIME PERSPECTIVE IN LEISURE AND TOURISM STUDIES	45
2.3. TRAVEL MOTIVATION.....	55
2.3.1. TRAVEL MOTIVATION IN THE TOURISM LITERATURE.....	56
2.3.2. THE MAIN TRAVEL MOTIVATION THEORIES IN THE TOURISM STUDIES	66
2.3.3. POTENTIAL CONSTRUCTS OF THE PUSH FACTORS	74
2.4. TRAVEL ATTITUDE	79
2.4.1. DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDE	79
2.4.2. CONCEPT AND STRUCTURE OF ATTITUDE.....	80
2.4.3. OPERATIONALIZATION OF ATTITUDE	83
2.4.4. ATTITUDE AND TRAVEL INTENTION	88
2.5. BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION	90
2.5.1. OPERATIONALIZATION OF BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS	94
2.6. RESEARCH GAPS	96
2.7. SUMMARY	98
CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	99
3.1. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS	99
3.1.1. TIME PERSPECTIVE AND TRAVEL INTENTION	99
3.1.2. TRAVEL MOTIVATION AS MEDIATOR.....	103
3.1.3. ATTITUDE AS MEDIATOR	107
3.1.4. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAVEL MOTIVATION AND TRAVEL ATTITUDE.....	111
3.2. PROPOSED MODEL	112

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY.....	114
4.1. INTRODUCTION.....	114
4.2. RESEARCH STRATEGIES.....	114
4.2.1. COMBINING MARKETING AND PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO TOURISM	114
4.2.2. COMBINATION OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE METHODS.....	115
4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN	117
4.4. STAGE ONE – INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT AND QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN...	121
4.4.1. SPECIFIC DOMAIN OF CONSTRUCT.....	126
4.4.2. GENERATE SAMPLE OF ITEMS.....	127
4.4.3. FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS	133
4.4.3.1. FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW STRUCTURE	133
4.4.3.2. DATA COLLECTION.....	134
4.4.3.3. DATA ANALYSIS	135
4.4.4. PANEL REVIEW	139
4.5. STAGE TWO – PILOT TEST AND MAIN SURVEY	139
4.5.1. PILOT TEST	139
4.5.2. MAIN SURVEY.....	141
4.5.2.1. SAMPLE POPULATION	141
4.5.2.2. SAMPLE SIZE.....	143
4.5.2.3. DATA COLLECTION.....	145
4.5.2.4. DATA ANALYSIS	147
4.5.2.4.1. ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK.....	147
4.5.2.4.2. ASSESSING RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY	149
4.5.2.4.3. EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)	152
4.5.2.4.4. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (CFA).....	153
4.5.2.4.5. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM).....	154
4.5.2.4.6. ASSESSING MODEL FIT	155
4.6. SUMMARY	157
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS OF STAGE ONE STUDY	159
5.1. INTRODUCTION.....	159
5.2. RESULTS OF FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW	159
5.2.1. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF INFORMANTS	159
5.2.2. HONG KONG TOURISTS’ PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS.....	160
5.3. RESULTS OF THE EXPERT PANEL REVIEW - LAY EXPERTS.....	169
5.4. RESULTS OF THE EXPERT PANEL REVIEW - CONTENT EXPERTS	172
5.5. SUMMARY	177
CHAPTER 6: RESULTS OF STAGE TWO STUDY	178
6.1. INTRODUCTION.....	178
6.2. PILOT TEST	178
6.2.1. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN	179
6.2.2. DATA COLLECTION.....	180
6.2.3. RESULTS OF PILOT TEST	181
6.2.3.1. DATA SCREENING AND NORMALITY TEST	181
6.2.3.2. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS AND TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR.....	186
6.2.3.3. EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS.....	188
6.2.3.4. CONSTRUCT RELIABILITY.....	194
6.2.4. FINAL INSTRUMENT	195
6.3. MAIN SURVEY	196

6.3.1.	MISSING VALUE AND NORMALITY	196
6.3.2.	OUTLIERS	201
6.3.3.	DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS AND TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR.....	202
6.3.4.	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	206
6.3.4.1.	TIME PERSPECTIVE	206
6.3.4.2.	PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATION.....	207
6.3.4.3.	TRAVEL ATTITUDE	209
6.3.4.4.	TRAVEL INTENTION.....	209
6.3.5.	ASSESSING FACTOR STRUCTURE STABILITY	210
6.3.5.1.	EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE MEASUREMENT MODEL	211
6.3.5.2.	CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE MEASUREMENT MODEL	214
6.3.6.	PATH ANALYSIS OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL	222
6.3.7.	MEDIATING EFFECTS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION AND TRAVEL ATTITUDE	229
6.3.8.	TOTAL EFFECTS OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL	232
6.4.	SUMMARY	235
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS		236
7.1.	INTRODUCTION.....	236
7.2.	DISCUSSION.....	236
7.2.1.	OBJECTIVE ONE: THE IMPACTS OF VARIOUS TIME PERSPECTIVES ON TRAVEL INTENTION	237
7.2.2.	OBJECTIVE TWO: THE INFLUENCES OF VARIOUS TIME PERSPECTIVES ON TRAVEL ATTITUDE AND ON TRAVEL MOTIVATION	240
7.2.3.	OBJECTIVE THREE: THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TRAVEL MOTIVATION, TRAVEL ATTITUDE AND TRAVEL INTENTION.....	243
7.2.4.	OBJECTIVE FOUR: THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION AND TRAVEL ATTITUDE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE THREE TYPES OF TIME PERSPECTIVES AND TRAVEL INTENTION.....	245
7.3.	CONCLUSIONS	246
7.4.	IMPLICATIONS	250
7.4.1.	THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS.....	250
7.4.2.	PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	254
7.5.	LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES.....	259
REFERENCES.....		263
APPENDIX 1 – SELECTED ARTICLES FOR DEVELOPING POTENTIAL TRAVEL MOTIVATION MEASUREMENT		314
APPENDIX 2 - FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE (BILINGUAL VERSION)		317
APPENDIX 3 - THE MODERATOR’ GUIDE		320
APPENDIX 4 – PILOT TEST QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH).....		321
APPENDIX 5 – MAIN SURVEY (ENGLISH).....		326
APPENDIX 6 – ANNOUNCEMENT ON TRAVEL COMMUNITIES TO RECRUIT MAIN SURVEY PARTICIPANTS		331

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 2-1. TIME PERSPECTIVE DIMENSIONS AND FEATURES	30
TABLE 2-2. TEMPORAL FOCUS SCALE (TFS).....	32
TABLE 2-3. CONSIDERATION OF FUTURE CONSEQUENCES SCALE	34
TABLE 2-4. THE ZIMBARDO TIME PERSPECTIVE INVENTORY (ZTPI).....	35
TABLE 2-5. A REVIEW OF THE PUBLISHED SHORT FORMS OF THE ZTPI.....	40
TABLE 2-6. SUMMARY OF THE MEASUREMENT OF THE TIME PERSPECTIVE.....	44
FROM THE LITERATURE	44
TABLE 2-7. SUMMARY OF TIME PERSPECTIVE IN LEISURE AND TOURISM RESEARCH.....	51
TABLE 2-8. STUDIES RELATING TO TIME PERSPECTIVE IN LEISURE AND TOURISM RESEARCH.....	54
TABLE 2-9. POTENTIAL CONSTRUCTS OF THE PUSH FACTORS.....	78
TABLE 2-10. SUMMARY OF ATTITUDE INSTRUMENT IN TOURISM LITERATURE	86
TABLE 4-1. SUGGESTED PROCEDURES FOR MEASUREMENT DEVELOPMENT.....	123
TABLE 4-2. MEASUREMENT DEVELOPMENT PROCEDURES FOR THIS STUDY	125
TABLE 4-3. SOURCES OF MEASUREMENT DEVELOPMENT FOR EACH CONSTRUCT	128
TABLE 4-4. ATTRIBUTES FOR TIME PERSPECTIVE	130
TABLE 4-5. POTENTIAL CONSTRUCTS FOR PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATION.....	131
TABLE 4-6. TENTATIVE ITEMS FOR TRAVEL ATTITUDE.....	132
TABLE 4-7. TENTATIVE ITEMS FOR TRAVEL INTENTION	132
TABLE 4-8. FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW STRUCTURE	134
TABLE 4-9. AN OVERVIEW OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS.....	137
TABLE 4-10. HONG KONG RESIDENT DEPARTURES BY MODE OF TRANSPORT 2003 – 2019	143
TABLE 4-11. DISTRIBUTION CHANNELS: FACEBOOK PAGES AND ONLINE FORUM.....	147
TABLE 4-12. SUMMARY OF MODEL FIT INDEX USED IN THE ASSESSMENT OF BOTH MEASUREMENT AND STRUCTURAL MODEL	156
TABLE 4-13. SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGICAL PROCEDURES	158
TABLE 5-1. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF INFORMANTS	160
TABLE 5-2. ITEMS OF PUSH TRAVEL MOTIVATION	167
TABLE 5-3. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF LAY EXPERTS.....	169
TABLE 5-4. CONTENT PANEL REVIEW RESULTS FOR ALL ITEMS	174
TABLE 6-1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TIME PERSPECTIVE, PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATION, TRAVEL ATTITUDE, AND TRAVEL INTENTION (N=150).....	183
TABLE 6-2. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SAMPLES (N=150).....	187
TABLE 6-3. TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLES (N=150)	188
TABLE 6-4. RESULTS OF EFA FOR TIME PERSPECTIVE (N=150).....	190
TABLE 6-5. RESULTS OF EFA FOR PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATION (N=150).....	192
TABLE 6-6. RESULTS OF EFA FOR TRAVEL ATTITUDE AND TRAVEL INTENTION (N=150)	194
TABLE 6-7. CONSTRUCT RELIABILITY	195
TABLE 6-8. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ALL MEASUREMENT ITEMS (N=532).....	198
TABLE 6-9. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SAMPLES (N=519).....	204
TABLE 6-10. TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLES (N=519)	206
TABLE 6-11. RANKING OF ITEMS IN TIME PERSPECTIVE BY MEAN VALUE (N=519).....	207
TABLE 6-12. RANKING OF ITEMS IN PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATION BY MEAN VALUE (N=519)	208
TABLE 6-13. RANKING OF ITEMS IN TRAVEL ATTITUDE BY MEAN VALUE (N=519).....	209
TABLE 6-14. RANKING OF ITEMS IN TRAVEL INTENTION BY MEAN VALUE (N=519).....	210

TABLE 6-15. RESULTS OF THE EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS IN GROUP ONE (N=260)	
.....	212
TABLE 6-16. RESULTS OF THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS IN GROUP TWO (N=259)	
.....	218
TABLE 6-17. CORRELATIONS (SQUARED CORRELATIONS) AND AVE FOR THE MEASUREMENT MODEL	221
TABLE 6-18. SUMMARY OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL RESULTS	228
TABLE 6-19. SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES TESTING	228
TABLE 6-20. RESULTS FOR MEDIATION TESTING	232
TABLE 6-21. DIRECT, INDIRECT, AND TOTAL EFFECTS OF THE FINAL SEM	234

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1.1 BEHAVIOURAL AND COGNITIVE APPROACHES TO TOURISTS' PSYCHOLOGY STUDIES (SKAVRONSKAYA ET AL., 2017)	6
FIGURE 1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	16
FIGURE 2-1. CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TIME PERSPECTIVES.....	26
FIGURE 2-2. GRAPHICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE TIME PERSPECTIVE UNIVERSE....	27
FIGURE 3-1. PROPOSED MODEL	113
FIGURE 4-1. RESEARCH PROCEDURE.....	120
FIGURE 4-2. MEASUREMENT DEVELOPMENT PROCEDURE (CHURCHILL, 1979)	124
FIGURE 4-3. DATA ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK.....	148
FIGURE 5-1. PRELIMINARY FINDINGS OF FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW – PUSH-BASED TRAVEL MOTIVATION	168
FIGURE 6-1. RESULTS OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL	225
FIGURE 6-2. STRUCTURAL MODEL WITH STANDARDIZED COEFFICIENT	226

ABSTRACT

Travel and tourism has been regarded as an industry that entails movement of people between the place of abode and a destination(s) of interest. Tourism scholars have always been interested in studying how tourists make decisions to travel to a particular destination. Therefore, behavioural intention has been an important concept in tourism. Various factors play different roles in the decision-making process which makes it complicated and difficult to predict tourist behaviour. However, studies aimed at understanding the role played by past, present or future temporal considerations in formulation of behavioural intention have been scarce, as previous studies incorporating the time perceptives were mainly in fields other than tourism.

In psychology and leisure studies, an individual's thoughts toward the past, present, or future constitute a key theoretical concept and are thus recognized as one of the fundamental antecedents of future behaviour. The cognitive temporal model provides a useful account of how time perspective relates to travel consumption via enhanced motivation and attitude (Bergadaa, 1990). When one looks for direct evidence of the cognitive temporal model, there is little empirical evidence to support it. Likewise, existing tourists' psychology studies are inclined more toward a behavioural approach rather than cognitive approach (Scott, 2020). The behavioural approach concerns how the environment shapes tourist responses. Behaviour is simply a response to environmental stimuli. In other words, the

behavioural approach does not take into consideration the subjective psychological processes that mediate the relationship between antecedents of stimuli and the outcomes. This missing link leaves understanding of the psychological processes that underpin behaviour potentially incomplete. A cognitive approach aims to understand the psychological / mental processes that occur in the journey from stimulus to behaviour. It also acknowledges the mediating processes that go into shaping of tourist behaviour, and different psychological outcomes that impact the way they respond to different circumstances. While psychology literature has used the cognitive approach, it has been scarcely validated in the tourism context. Considering tourism as a complex discipline, cognitive approach is useful in solving basic conceptual difficulties. Drawing upon the cognitive temporal model, this study adapts the cognitive approach to examine the direct relationship between the time perspective and behaviour as well as the mediating relationship between these two constructs in the context of Hong Kong tourists travelling abroad.

This study has adapted a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. The qualitative study was conducted at the first stage, while the second stage involved a quantitative study that examines the relationships among all suggested constructs. In the first stage, a thorough review of the relevant literature was performed to specify the domain of each construct and the relationships among constructs. The results obtained from the literature review were evaluated and transformed into the proposed conceptual model. Focus group interviews and expert

panel opinions were then invited to ensure the items derived from the literature are appropriate and relevant.

The second stage involved a pilot study to fine-tune the measurement instrument. Based on results of the pilot study, the instrument was refined for reliability and validity improvement. Owing to COVID-19, an online survey was posted on various online travel communities based in Hong Kong. The final questionnaire was administered to Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months. A total of 519 questionnaires were collected. Exploratory factor analysis was used for item reduction and to identify the dimensionality of the important research concepts. Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling were used to confirm and test causal relationships of the constructs.

Results of structural equation modelling show that push-based travel motivation and travel attitude are the antecedents of travel intention. Additionally, push-based travel motivation is significantly affected by three types of time perspectives. Present time perspective and future time perspective have significant impacts on travel attitude and travel intention, whereas past time perspective does not. Finally, mediating effects of push-based travel motivation and travel attitude on the correlations between three types of time perspectives and travel intention are identified by bootstrapping. The results indicate that the mediating roles of push-

based travel motivation and travel attitude have significantly positive effects on the relationship between three types of time perspectives and travel intention. This suggests that temporal considerations in which individuals characteristically focus on the past, present, and/or future induce them to fulfil their internal needs of travel, influence the formation of a favourable attitude toward visiting a particular destination, and this favourable attitude in turn facilitates tourists' expectations of future travel to the said destination for vacation purpose.

From a broad theoretical perspective, this study demonstrates that travel intention can be directly and indirectly derived from time perspective, travel attitude and push-based travel motivation. A clear implication of this study is that the travel intention gets formed in a multi-faceted psychological process, and it is not only dependent on certain needs of the tourist but is also influenced by the tourist's emotional feelings towards travel as well as the temporal consideration focusing on the past, present, and/or future. Interestingly, little effort has been made to explore this arena. This study has made a pioneering effort to apply time perspective in the tourism domain and develops a framework to underscore the direct and mediating effects of time perspective on travel intention. This provides a novel approach to researchers who are interested in understanding travel intention and travel decision making process. The present study also empirically develops instruments for measuring Hong Kong tourists' push-based travel motivation and time perspectives. By examining the relationship between travel motivation and travel attitude, it

provides empirical support to Gnoth's (1997) conceptual framework in which travel motivation precedes attitude. Moreover, this study has made an important contribution to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) by addressing the lack of consistency regarding the role of attitude in determining behavioural intentions.

From a practical perspective, suggestions are provided to destination management organisations and tourism planners. Understanding the time perspective – travel intention mechanism helps tourism planners in contexts of destination promotion, market segmentation and special interest tourism development. In addition, the scale for travel motivation developed through stringent procedures in this study can be employed by destination management organisations to measure the level of travel motivation from the perspectives of Hong Kong tourists. This measurement should help tourism planners to use that information to design their promotional plans.

Keywords: Time perspective, travel motivation, attitude, travel intention, decision making process

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

Prior to the COVID19 pandemic tourism was generally a flourishing industry that helped drive global economic growth, built destination brand and image value, and enhanced international and cultural exchange. Although the pandemic has undoubtedly disrupted the World Tourism Organization (2017) forecast that there will be 1.8 billion international tourists travelling worldwide by the year 2030, scholars are still dedicated to the study of understanding tourist behaviour. Within the scope of tourist behaviour, tourism scholars have always been interested in studying how tourists make decisions to travel to a particular destination. It is no surprise that various models and typologies have been developed to understand the decision-making process, including situational factors, such as the weather (Becken & Wilson, 2013), natural disasters (Windle & Rolfe, 2013), reference group influence (Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, & Martínez-Ruiz, 2010; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016), and dispositional factors such as cultural distance (Correia, Kozak, & Ferradeira, 2011), self-congruity and functional congruity (Ahn, Ekinici, & Li, 2013), tourists' prior knowledge (Sharifpour, Walters, Ritchie, & Winter, 2014),

destination familiarity and destination perceived images (Tan & Wu, 2016), perception of risk (Jonas, Mansfeld, Paz, & Potasman, 2011), and the personality of the tourist (Kvasova, 2015).

Indeed, various factors play different roles in the decision-making process which makes it complicated and difficult to predict tourist behaviour. Reliance on either situational variables or dispositional factors cannot lead to a complete understanding of dynamics of tourist behaviour. An understanding of the time perspective of tourists, in combination with other psychographic factors, could give researchers and practitioners a better understanding of tourist behaviour (Bergadaa, 1990). Recently, there has been growing interest in investigating individual temporal concerns and their relationship with human behaviour. Researchers have provided some evidence that the time perspective significantly leads to pro-environmental attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Milfont, Wilson, & Diniz, 2012), health concerns (e.g., Daugherty & Brase, 2010), and academic achievement (Janeiro, Duarte, Araújo, & Gomes, 2017). But studies aimed at understanding the value of time perspective in the tourism literature have been scarce. Oppermann (2000) pointed out that existing research has rarely addressed temporal issues related to tourist behaviour.

Another gap in extant literature on tourism studies is that tourists' psychology studies to date have tended to focus on behavioural approach rather than cognitive approach (Scott, 2020). Behavioural approach generally explains how external stimuli from the environment influence individual behaviour, while cognitive approach tends to focus on the psychological processes that concern the cognitive transition from personality traits or stimuli to behavioural outcomes. The behavioural approach leaves understanding of the psychological processes that underpin behaviour potentially incomplete and thus conceptually underdeveloped.

Time perspective has been the subject of many classic studies in the field of psychology. Bergadaa (1990) proposed a cognitive temporal model and pointed out that the time perspective shows its ability to predict consumer consumption via enhanced motivation and attitude. When one looks for direct evidence of the cognitive temporal model in tourism literature, little empirical evidence has been gathered to support it. To date, few studies have tested the mediating roles of motivation and attitude in explaining the relationship and behavioural consequences of the time perspective. Given the dominance of behavioural approaches in tourist psychology research has resulted in a lack of adequate research on the cognitive

processes that underpin the association between time perspective and travel intention, this study adapts cognitive approach to investigate the applicability of the cognitive temporal model in the tourism context and determines whether and how travel intention is directly and indirectly influenced by the three influences of time perspectives, travel motivation and travel attitude.

1.2. Tourism and psychology

Tourism is a composite field at the confluence of multiple disciplinary backgrounds, founded within such areas as psychology, environmental studies, anthropology, history, geography and economics (Weiler, Moyle, & McLennan, 2012). Psychology as a field contains an extensive assembly of theories and methods aimed at describing, explaining, predicting, and understanding the behaviour and mental change processes of others. Contemporary tourism researchers tend to adopt concepts, theories and methods that have been applied in earlier psychology literature (Weiler, Torland, Moyle, & Hadinejad, 2018). Different branches of psychology are also found in the tourism literature, with social, cognitive, personality, behavioural, positive, and even clinical psychology being employed by researchers setting out to gain further understanding of how people think, feel, behave and learn (Wells, 2014).

It is now well established that different branches of psychology have been developed to identify and construct theory in tourism, however very little is currently known about the psychological inquiry seeking to explore individual difference in relation to temporal considerations. Cognitive psychology is a branch of psychology with particular emphasis on the mental or psychological processes that influence behaviour. An individual's thoughts toward the past, present, or future is a key theoretical concept and are thus recognized as one of the fundamental antecedents of future behaviour (Keough, Zimbardo, & Boyd, 1999). Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) generally note that cognitive psychology considers time perspective in even more depth than other branches of psychology, thus its application to the understanding of human behaviour, and perhaps even tourism in the broader sense is greatly underestimated.

According to the cognitive temporal model (Bergadaa, 1990), the strength of association between time perspective and travel consumption or behavioural intention is dependent on motivation and attitude of action. More specifically, temporal considerations in which individuals characteristically focus on the past, present, and/or future brings about the fulfilment of their internal needs of travel, influences the formation of a favourable attitude toward visiting a particular destination, and this favourable attitude in turn facilitates tourists' expectations of future travel to the said destination for vacation purposes. So far, however, there has been little discussion about such relationships. This phenomenon is consistent with Pearce and Stringer (1991), who note that tourists' psychology has frequently

been used to understand the direct relationship between an individual's personality traits and behavioural outcomes. The mental / psychological process from personality traits to behaviour is still unclear. More recently, Skavronskaya et al. (2017) summarise contemporary tourists' psychology can be broadly studied by two approaches: behavioural and cognitive.

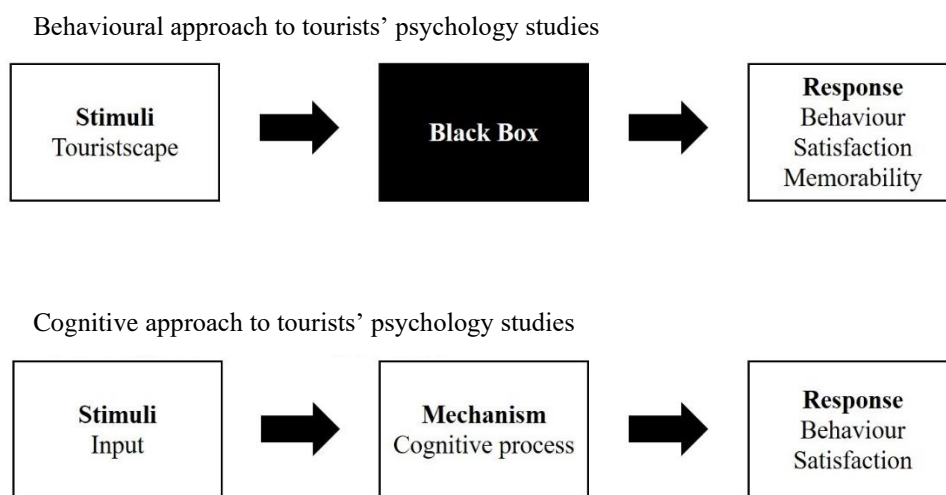


Figure 1.1 Behavioural and cognitive approaches to tourists' psychology studies (Skavronskaya et al., 2017)

The behavioural approach concerns how the environment (e.g., destinations, attractions, restaurants and hotels, etc.) shapes tourist responses, such as future behaviour and reactions. According to this approach, behaviour is simply a response to environmental stimuli. In other words, the behavioural approach does not take into consideration the subjective psychological processes that mediate the relationship between antecedents of stimuli and the outcomes. This missing link leaves understanding of the psychological processes that underpin behaviour potentially incomplete.

A cognitive approach to tourist psychology becomes relevant in part due to the dissatisfaction with the behavioural approach. It is a relatively modern approach to tourist behaviour that focuses on how tourists think. Specifically, cognitive approach aims to understand the psychological / mental processes that occur in the journey between stimulus and behaviour. It also acknowledges the mediating processes that go into tourist behaviour, and different psychological outcomes that impact the way they respond to circumstances. The mediating process could be beliefs, perceptions, or intrinsic needs, etc. While psychology literature has used the cognitive approach, it has not been well applied in the tourism context (Scott, 2020). Considering tourism as a complex discipline, cognitive approach is useful in solving basic conceptual difficulties in the tourism research. Therefore, this study adapts cognitive approach which examines the direct relationship between the time perspective and behaviour as well as the mediating relationship between these two constructs. This study also contributes to the tourist psychology literature.

1.3. Time perspective

The concept of time perspective is built on the idea that people place emphasis on the past, present or future (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). For instance, some people are “dwelling in the past” (past oriented), and others believe in “living only for the moment” (present-oriented), and still others are seen as “planning for the future”

(future oriented). The time perspective is widely regarded as an important psychographic factor (Shores & Scott, 2007) because thinking about the past, present and future affects current attitude, decisions and behaviours, as evidenced by research on goal-setting, motivation and performance (Bergadaa, 1990; Carstensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999; Cotte & Ratneshwar, 2003; Lu, Hung, Wang, Schuett & Hu, 2016), learning and self-regulation (de Bilde, Vansteenkiste & Lens, 2011), mood (Stolarski, Matthews, Postek, Zimbardo & Bitner, 2014), intention to participate in activities (Philipp, 1992), and leisure activity preferences (Garcia & Ruiz, 2015; Legohérel, Daucé, Hsu & Ranchhold, 2009; Shores & Scott, 2007). For example, a past oriented view can enhance learning when previous actions are analysed for relevant lessons, but it can diminish well-being when thoughts of the past consist of rumination about mistakes or regrets (Shipp, Edwards & Lambert, 2009). A present oriented approach can foster well-being when it prompts people to seize opportunities, but it can endanger well-being when the present orientation leads to impulsive behaviours, unwanted risk-taking, and inadequate attention to the consequences of current behaviours (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). A future oriented outlook can promote goal setting, motivation, and efforts on achievement but it can hinder well-being when the pursuit of these goals creates time-pressure and anxiety (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). It can thus be stated that there

are signs that different time perspectives might influence individual preferences and behaviours.

1.4. Travel motivation

The study of travel motivation helps gain understanding of the tourists' decision process and an important construct for understanding tourist behaviour. It is commonly known that motivation is a driver of human behaviour. Dann (1981) thought tourism motivation is "a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or a group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision" (p. 205). Another definition of motivation in the tourism and travel context is offered by Crompton and McKay (1997, p.427): "a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals."

Considering that travel motivation has become the one of the main streams in the tourism literature, different conceptualizations of this concept have been developed. Among the several conceptual frameworks interpreting tourist's motivations, Crompton's (1979) and Dann's (1977) push and pull factors of motivations, Iso-

Ahola's (1982) optimal arousal theory, and Pearce's (1982) travel career ladder model have been widely adopted as analysis and discussion models. Nevertheless, tourism scholars generally agreed that there is no single model or theory capable of explaining tourists' travel motives.

1.5. Attitude

Attitude describes the psychological tendencies expressed by positive or negative evaluations of tourists when engaged in certain behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). Attitude is commonly believed to include three elements: cognitive, affective and conative (Fishbein, 1967). The cognitive component consists of the knowledge facet of an attitude and personal thoughts and ideas. The affective component includes variables that measure feelings and beliefs about certain issues. The conative component refers to the action or behavioural tendencies of an individual regarding an object (Matheson, Rimmer & Tinsley, 2014). In a review of the research on attitudes, Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) note that researchers tend to view attitude as a relatively simple unidimensional concept containing only the affective component. The present study follows the traditional research stream to apply attitude as an affective construct.

Attitudes are learned predispositions and are thought to be relatively consistent with the behaviour they reflect (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015). However, while consistency is a common characteristic of attitudes, this does not necessarily imply permanence (Matheson et al., 2014). Attitudes can change over time and, further, events or situational influences may affect the relationship between attitude and behaviour (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015). In tourism literature, attitude has been thought of as a key factor in predicting tourists' travel decision, such as the studies of Hsu et al. (2010) and Huang and Hsu (2009) on the behavioural intentions of Chinese tourists. Despite these advances, there are gaps in its application in the tourism field, particularly in the joint study of motivations and attitudes in relation to time perspective.

1.6. Behavioural intention

Behavioural intention is a predictor to determine the likelihood of a person undertaking a given behaviour (Swan & Trawick, 1981), and is considered to be a key factor closely related to observed behaviour (White, 2005). The predominate measure and conceptualization of behaviour consequences is proposed by Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) who grouped 13 behavioural items into five

dimensions: loyalty to company, propensity to switch, willingness to pay more, external response to problem, and internal response to problem. Due to the nature of tourism, tourism researchers tend to operationalize behavioural intention for more simplicity. Behavioural intention is often measured by two distinct streams of research (Li & Cai, 2012), intention to visit a destination, and post-purchase behavioural intentions, such as loyalty and willingness to recommend to others, with the latter receiving the majority of attention. Lam and Hsu (2006) offer a detailed account of intention to visit a destination that refers to “tourists' expectation or anticipation of a future travel to a destination or place for leisure or vacation purpose” (p. 591). This study focuses mainly on the first stream: intention to visit a destination.

1.7. Research question and research objectives

A key aim of this study is to understand the impacts of the time perspective, travel motivation and travel attitude on travel intention. Darnell and Johnson (2001) found that tourists with different time profiles have different travel demands and patterns. A good understanding of the association between tourists' temporal considerations and their future behaviour is likely to prove valuable for destination management

organisations and tourism planners who wish to increase tourist flows, especially the scope for encouraging travel demand in the post pandemic period. However, how tourists' time perceptions influence their behaviour, particularly travel intention, is still unclear, as previous studies incorporating the time perceptives were mainly in fields other than tourism. So far, little has been known about the extent to which various time perspectives affect intention to visit a destination. Previous studies were biased toward a post-hoc approach and have largely failed to explore the pre-visit psychological factors (Li, Cai, Lehto, & Huang, 2010). Moreover, a number of tourist psychology studies have focused on how psychological antecedents directly influence travel intention without taking into account cognitive processes as precursors of subsequent behaviour. This study aims to fill these gaps by examining the direct relationship between time perspective and travel intention. In particular, the cognitive process mediates the relationship between the time perspective and travel intention. Cognitive temporal model is used to explore the cognitive processes which generate outcomes. Therefore, the core research question of this study is to what extent do time perspectives influence intention to visit a destination? Following the core research question, four research objectives are formulated as follows:

- (1) To investigate the impacts of various time perspectives on travel intention;
- (2) To examine the influences of various time perspectives on travel attitude and on travel motivation;
- (3) To examine the relationships among travel motivation, travel attitude and travel intention; and
- (4) To explore the extent to which travel attitude and motivation mediate the impact of time perspectives on travel intention.

1.8. Conceptual framework

Commensurate with previous discussions, the conceptual model is presented in Figure 1-1. The proposed model contains six variables: (1) past-time perspective; (2) present-time perspective; (3) future-time perspective; (4) travel motivation; (5) travel attitude; and (6) travel intention. Within this model, two types of variable are addressed, namely exogenous and endogenous variables. Past-time perspective, present-time perspective, and future-time perspective are exogenous variables, while the remaining variables, travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention are classified as endogenous variables.

The proposed model presented in this study is built upon previous research concerning the time perspective (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) and the cognitive

temporal model by Bergadaa (1990). Travel intention is hypothesized to be affected by travel motivation and travel attitude. These are in turn influenced by three types of time perspectives. Specifically, three types of time perspectives directly affect travel intention and indirectly via travel motivation and travel attitude.

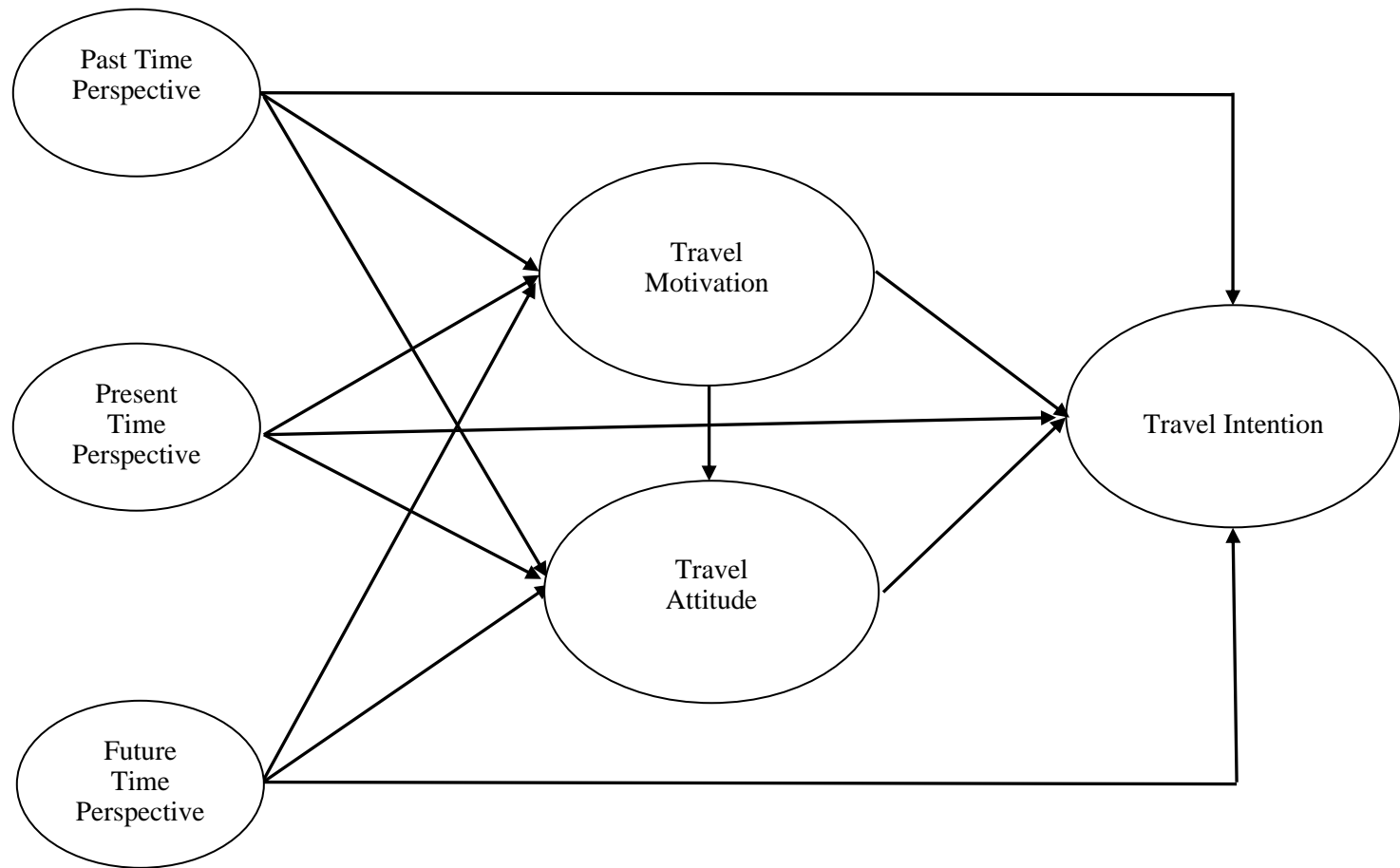


Figure 1.2 Conceptual framework

1.9. Contributions of the study

1.9.1. Theoretical contributions

This thesis proposes and tests an integrated model that analyses whether and how time-perspectives (past, present, and future) have impacts on travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intentions. This research area is still in its infancy, but it may have a contribution to make to unravelling the mystery of the time perspective in the tourism context.

First of all, this thesis is a pioneer in applying the concept of time perspective to the tourism context. This research presents a comprehensive evaluation of Hong Kong outbound tourists' time perspectives and their consequences for behaviour by developing a conceptual model. More specifically, the pre-visit motivation and travel attitude are examined during the pre-trip stage. The research may be critically important in laying the groundwork for understanding how the time perspective associates with behavioural consequences.

Second, Bergadaa (1990) note that time perspective plays important role in consumer behaviour and suggests further investigation is required to understand the cause of intended behaviour. The current research addresses the call of Lu et al. (2016) by exploring the role of past-time perspective on travel behaviour. Historically, the concept of past orientation has received less emphasis (Ely &

Mercurio, 2011). This offers a fresh perspective on tourist behaviour and travel decision making process.

In addition, this study sheds new light on the links between the time-perspective, travel motivations, attitudes and behavioural intentions based on the cognitive temporal system proposed by Bergadaa (1990), which has long been ignored in empirical studies in the tourism literature. This study further echoes the call of Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) in which additional tourist behavioural models in explaining decision making should be established and empirically examined, to fill the gap in the tourism decision literature.

1.9.2. Managerial contributions

Travel motivation is a primary concern for tourism marketers and destination management organizations (DMO) in terms of designing effective promotion strategies and planning the destinations' tourism development. In fact, the central interest of tourism marketing is to investigate why tourists travel to a particular destination. This study aims to understand the travel motivation of a sample of Hong Kong tourists and determines the relationships between motivation items in tourist behaviour. The results are anticipated to provide valuable contribution to the understanding of Hong Kong tourists as an emerging market with strong potential.

Another practical contribution of this study is that it demonstrates an effective approach to the measurement of tourist motivation. This study uses a mixed-method design of qualitative and quantitative approaches of data collection (focus group, expert panel, and survey), as Fodness (1994) suggests that mixed methods result in a comprehensive measurement for understanding tourist motivation. This measurement can help destination managers and other professionals to understand the importance of motivation among Hong Kong residents in predicting consequences of behaviour. It is also anticipated that the instrument can be used by other researchers to develop and verify tourists' behaviour. In addition, the mixed method approach allows tourists to capture their underlying travel motives and gives full play to the avoidance of cognitive bias. It is believed that the measurement used for this study can serve as the basis for a study of travel motivation by providing insights into the relationship between tourist attitudes and behavioural consequences.

Third, insights into tourists' time perspectives could serve as the basis for market segmentation to prioritize target audiences and avoid the risk of a failure or inefficient marketing campaign. When tourism marketers implement their marketing strategies based on the segmentation of the tourist's temporal considerations, the chance of success is much higher than when they promote a generic campaign and try to implement it in all market segments. This results in cost saving and better matching to tourist needs.

Additionally, faced with globalisation and rising competition among destinations, DMOs are facing an uphill struggle to attract and keep tourists (Pike, 2009). The results of the present study offer empirical values that can be used for destination building and planning for DMOs worldwide as well as in competitive strategies of other overseas destinations interested in the Hong Kong market if they want to survive and gain competitive advantage in such an intensely competitive environment.

1.10. Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organized in the following way. The first section introduces a brief overview of the research background as well as key concepts adopted for this study. Research objectives and significance and value of this study are also highlighted in this chapter. Chapter two is a review of the existing literature in association with the conceptual model. The key constructs, namely, time perspective, travel motivation, attitude, and travel intention are discussed. Hypothesis development is elaborated in chapter three by examining how intention to visit might be influenced in two different ways: (1) through travel motivation; and (2) via travel attitude. The relationship between various types of time perspectives with travel motivation, and travel attitude and travel intention, are also reviewed. Chapter four concentrates on the research methodology. This chapter presents the rationale of the research strategy, process of scale development, design of data collection, and data analysis. Chapter five presents the procedures undertaken to develop the items used in this

thesis, including the findings of an exploratory qualitative study and expert panel review. Chapter six reports the results of the pilot test, main survey and hypotheses testing. The last chapter concludes the thesis by providing the discussions, highlighting the implications and limitations of the study, and suggesting directions for future study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

To better understand the existing literature and develop its theoretical basis, this chapter seeks to review the literature on each of the constructs formulated for this study. Definition and notion, main theories and previous measurement instruments used for each construct are critically examined. This chapter begins by offering a review of the concept of the time perspective. Discussions on motivation for travel, attitude toward travel and behavioural intention follow. Research gaps identified in previous studies are also described in the final section.

2.2. Time perspective

Time is vital to our lives. It can help us develop a good habit of allocating resources and structuring our daily activities. The existing literature has understood time from different perspectives. From an economic point of view, time is considered as “an intangible commodity that exists in limited and finite quantities, and can be acquired by trading another resource such as money or effort” (Lloyd, Chan, Yip, & Chan, 2014, p.38). From the personality viewpoint, special attention has been placed on how individuals understand time in their own cultural time and place, and how they allocate time through time budgets (McGrath & Kelly, 1986). In psychology time has been studied in terms of time use patterns, investigating

individual different temporal considerations, and how time spent changes over time in different stages of consumer behaviour (Usunier & Valette-Florence, 1994).

The topic of time use has drawn much attention in areas such as leisure in which researchers have used time spent on each activity to predict current environment, such as lifestyles and life cycle patterns (García, 2017), tourism consumption (Dickinson & Peeters, 2014), and economic conditions (Luo, Ratchford, & Yang, 2013). However, from the psychological point of view, time perception/perspective may be more important than time use; it is a key indicator of shaping of individual's current and future thoughts and behaviour. As Oppermann (2000) points out, while time uses have been extensively studied, time perception has rarely been addressed in explaining tourist behaviour.

2.2.1. The notion of time perspectives

Time has been investigated in various ways by different scientists, philosophers, and psychologists. Boniwell, Osin, Linley, and Ivanchenko (2010) summarize studies on time and their approach identified two distinct ways of understanding the notion of time: physical time and psychological time. Isaac Newton argued that time is mathematically true, objective, and a physical phenomenon. Studies on time use and time budget are the typical examples of this approach. Another approach is to view time as “an internal, subjective phenomenon, often called psychological time, lived time or time as it is processed by the human mind” (p. 24). Hence, for

the latter group, time depends on the mind to acknowledge it. Studies focusing this approach have examined the time perspective, time personality, time attitude, temporal focus, and time structure. Several overlaps can be seen in this approach, such as the term “time personality” and “time structure” being interchangeable in terms of measurements. In subsequent research, time perspective has frequently emerged as the most important concept within this paradigm and is shown to have been relatively enduring over time (Bergadaa, 1990).

The time perspective reflects an individual’s cognitive state related to the psychological perspective of temporal consideration, which influences subsequent behaviour (Zimbardo, Keough, & Boyd, 1997). Lewin (1951) defined time perspective as “the totality of the individual’s views of his psychological future and psychological past existing at a given time” (p.75). His proposed definition was soon followed by the inceptions of contemporary scholars who suggest adding cognitive and affective components to the construct, defining time perspective as “a cognitive operation that implies both an emotional reaction to imagined time zones (such as future, present or past) and a preference for locating action in some temporal zone” (Lennings, 1996, p.72).

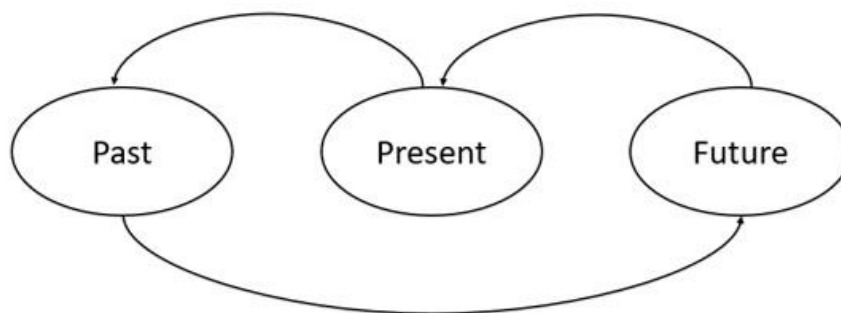
Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) provide a clear and precise description of time perspective. They assert that “time perspective is the often-unconscious process whereby the continual flow of personal and social experiences are decomposed into or allocated to select temporal categories or frames that help impart order,

coherence and meaning to those events” (p. 1271). It is generally acknowledged that the time perspective is a multidimensional concept, including the three dimensions of the past, present, and future. These three temporal perspectives are considered as the mechanism for processing, storing, and reflecting events experienced, in turn, resulting in leading goal setting and behaviour (Keough, Zimbardo, & Boyd, 1999). Kairys and Liniauskaite (2015) suggest that the concept of time perspective is developed upon which temporal consideration has been dominated by an individual. Indeed, individuals do not have a single temporal frame. On the other hand, when their tendency processes one over others which becomes the dominant temporal frame, it can motivate towards a goal and anticipate future subsequent behaviour (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). To put in another way, a cognitive temporal bias is attached to one of these three-time perspectives when making decisions. In general, future oriented persons tend to strive “for future goals and reward” (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) and place emphasis on planning (Shell & Husman, 2001), because their decisions are based on the cost-benefit analysis of the anticipated consequences of events (Lu, Hung, Wang, Schuett, & Hu, 2016). The opposite holds for those with a dominant present orientation, who tend to focus on the here and now, and are inclined to form goals and adopt behaviour that satisfies immediate needs. Individuals who take this view of time tend to seek a solid personal experience. People with a past time orientation have “highly meaningful mental representations of the past, and to engage in reflective, contemplative reconstruction of past experiences” (Milfont & Demarque, 2015, p.374). Past time perspective generates a favourite attitude towards the past, but at

the same time negative attitudes occur when reflecting unpleasant or traumatic past experiences (Milfont, Wilson, & Diniz, 2012). These three temporal categories contribute uniquely to an individual's time perspective.

For Tomich and Tolich (2019) “time perspectives are relative dimensions of time that emphasize the past, present, and future” (p. 2). They present a theoretical model to explain the correlations among the three-time frames in which the future is the determinant of the present, the present influences the past, and the past forms the creation of future, whereby one attaches the value of past to the present (see Figure 2-1). They further explain that difficult situations and unpleasant experiences sometimes may not exist in the mind of past oriented people because usually they remember such situations clearly. However, such experiences exist in the present, which leads the present to influence the past. The future is controlled by the past, which influences the future to create the mind of the present.

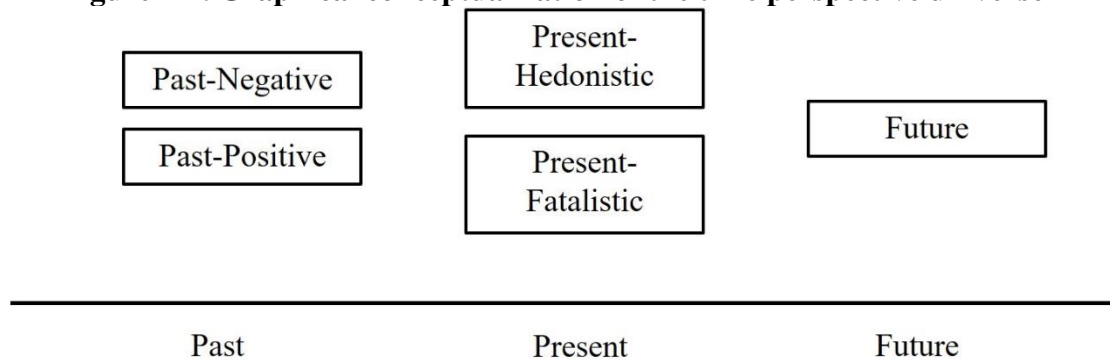
Figure 2-1. Conceptualization of time perspectives



Adapted from Tomich and Tolich (2019)

Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) divide the dimensions of time perspective from three to five distinct and suggest that they are moderately correlated with each other. These five dimensions are past-negative, past-positive, present-hedonistic, present-fatalistic, and future. Sobol-Kwapinska and Jankowski (2016) provide evidence distinguishing between past-negative and past-positive, present-hedonistic, and present-fatalistic. An overview of the extended time perspective dimensions is provided in Figure 2-2.

Figure 2-2. Graphical conceptualization of the time perspective universe



Adapted from Sobol-Kwapinska and Jankowski (2016)

An individual’s past perspective is derived from his/her memory processes, mainly those related to episodic memory (Stolarski, Fieulaine, & Zimbardo, 2018). Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) conceptualize past perspective into two dimensions. The past-negative perspective represents “a pessimistic, negative, or aversive attitude toward the past” (p. 1277), reflecting “a potentially disturbing portrait” (p. 1281). Stolarski et al (2018) suggest past-negative contains two sub-areas: trauma and regret. Past-positive perspective is highly associated with “nostalgic, positive

construction of the past” (p. 1278). Individuals with strong past positive orientation show a positive and favourable attitude towards the past. Similar with past-negative, past-positive also has two sub-areas: positive memories and tradition/nostalgia (Stolarski et al., 2018). Past-positive reflects a warm attitude towards not only the past but also the present and the future (Chan, Kwok, & Fung, 2019). Although we might assume that past-negative is the opposite of past-positive, or vice versa, the empirical findings show that the two past temporal perspectives are slightly correlated (Barnett, Melugin, & Hernandez, 2018).

Furthermore, Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) argue that the present time perspective involves two dimensions, present-hedonistic and present-fatalistic. The former is characterized by “an orientation toward present enjoyment, pleasure, and excitement, without sacrifices today for rewards tomorrow” (Stolarski et al., 2018, p. 608). Stolarski et al. (2018) empirically found three major components of the present-hedonistic: (1) impulsiveness/risk taking, (2) excitement seeking, and (3) process orientation. Present-fatalistic presents a fatalistic, exhausted, and powerless attitude towards life that is controlled by an external locus of control (Shores & Scott, 2007). People with this time orientation think “that the future is predestined and uninfluenced by individual actions, whereas the present must be borne with resignation” (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999, p. 1278) as “they tend to see themselves as puppets in the hands of fate” (D’Alessio, Guarino, De Pascalis, & Zimbardo, 2003, p. 337).

The future dimension is characterized by optimizing future outcomes (García, 2017) and places emphasis on future planning (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). People holding this time frame tend to have a vision and articulate their future goals, high self-confidence, high self-motivation, and high uncertainty avoidance (Chan et al., 2019). Contemporary researchers classify future time perspective into two separate concepts: future opportunities and limitations (Kooij, Tims, & Akkermans, 2017). Drawing upon a full version of the Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory, Carelli, Wiberg, and Wiberg (2011) find that future time perspective contains future-positive (similar to the original future dimension) and future-negative which “involves thinking about the future with worry, anticipating negative outcomes” (p. 221). Table 2.1 presents the summary of the time perspective dimension and its features.

Table 2-1. Time perspective dimensions and features

Dimension	Features
Past-negative	Depression, anxiety, unhappiness, low self-esteem, aggression, shyness, temperament, anger, conservatism, caution, avoidance of changes and new experiences
Past-positive	Self-esteem, friendliness, energy, nostalgia, happiness, without past regrets, warmth, pleasure, sentimentalism, conservatism, caution, avoidance of changes and new experiences
Present-fatalistic	Aggression, depression, hopelessness, anxiety, anger
Present-hedonistic	Ego under-control, novelty seeking, sensation seeking, energy, impulsiveness, passion
Future	Conscientiousness, hard-working, energy, impulse control, innovation, reward seeking

Adapted from D'Alessio et al. (2003) and Garcia and Ruiz (2015)

2.2.2. The Operationalizing of time perspectives

In the book *Time and Human Interaction: Towards a Social Psychology of Time* McGrath and Kelly (1986) identified at least over 200 pragmatic approaches that help to examine time perspective. According to their analysis, three popular approaches were largely graphical, story-based, and projective test. However, they also reported that these approaches have two main limitations. First, these methods reveal a poor psychometric performance and, second, they tend to heavily rely on one-time perspectives. Therefore, the issues to measure has presented a challenge for psychologists. As in the case of psychology, many researchers have heavily relied on self-reported measures that allow them to collect data in the easiest and fastest ways. In the following section an overview of the leading psychometric approaches to measure psychological time is highlighted.

Temporal Focus Scale (TFS)

Shipp, Edwards, and Lambert (2009) developed the least time perspective measurement which is called Temporal Focus Scale (TFS). The TFS contains 12 items concerning attitudes towards the past, present, and future. The measurement includes four items for TFS Past (e.g., I replay memories of the past in my mind); four items for TFS current (e.g., My mind is on the here and now); and four TFS items for the future (e.g., I think about what the future has in store). The TFS has created a relatively valid structure in adolescent samples from Japan (Chishima, McKay, & Murakami, 2017), United Kingdom (McKay, Cole, & Percy, 2017), Canada (Rush & Grouzet, 2012), and Northern Ireland (McKay, Percy, Goudie, Sumnall, & Cole, 2012). Recently, the TFS has been proved as an appropriate instrument for European adults (Strobel, Tumasjan, Spörrle, & Welp, 2013). However, in a sample of Northern Irish adolescents, McKay et al. (2012) suggest that one item had substantial cross-loading across all three factors of past, current, and future. Additionally, they found that the alpha coefficient of present factor was 0.58, far below Nunnally's (1978) minimum reliability criterion of 0.70 for acceptability. Therefore, TFS's psychometric properties are not unequivocal.

Table 2-2. Temporal focus scale (TFS)

Past Focus	
1.	I think about things from my past
2.	I replay memories of the past in my mind
3.	I reflect on what has happened in my life
4.	I think back to my earlier days
Current Focus	
5.	I focus on what is currently happening in my life
6.	My mind is on the here and now
7.	I think about where I am today
8.	I live my life in the present
Future Focus	
9.	I think about what my future has in store
10.	I think about times to come
11.	I focus on my future
12.	I imagine what tomorrow will bring for me

Consideration of Future Consequences Scale (CFCS)

One often used measure of time perspectives is the Consideration of Future Consequences Scale (CFCS). Strathman, Gleicher, Boninger, and Edwards (1994) developed CFCS for examining individual temporal attitudes and the consequences of behaviour. CFCS aims to measure how well an individual thinks ahead of the future consequences of current behaviour, and to what degree do the potential consequences influence current behaviour. Originally CFCS involved 12 items, five in relation to future consequences of behaviour and seven items focusing on current needs and concerns. Scoring high on CFCS implies increasing the likelihood of considering future consequences, whereas individuals who score low tend to focus more on short-term needs, and their behaviours are more likely to satisfy immediate needs (Rappange, Brouwer, & van Exel, 2009). Further, Strathman et al. (1994)

show that the original CFCS was a unidimensional construct, and had strong internal consistency among its 12 measurement items.

The CFCS has been used in at least 125 research publications in different contexts (Joireman & King, 2016). Among these studies, CFCS has been widely applied for explaining environmentally triggered and personally decided behaviours. However, the psychometric validity and reliability issues associated with the original CFCS are still debatable. The primary issue of CFCS is the dimensionality of the scale. Traditionally, CFCS has been operationalized as a single factor. Petrocelli (2003) found that CFCS yielded two factor dimensions based on the exploratory factor analysis of the 12 items scale. However, the results of Petrocelli (2003) are far from robust, implying the need for future research to further validate the factorial structure of CFCS. Thereafter, many studies have reported that the scale consisted of two dimensions. For instance, Joireman, Balliet, Sprott, Spangenberg, and Schultz (2008) revealed a better factorial structure which included two correlated factors, CFC-Future and CFC-Immediate. Recently, the 12 items CFCS has been transformed into a 14 items construct with the addition of two further CFC items (Joireman, Shaffer, Balliet, & Strathman, 2012). Despite the new 14 items CFCS having a good fit, and having a psychometrical validity, there are questions about the number of factors extracted, their representativeness, and whether the factor structure can be replicated in other disciplines or geographical locations. Secondly, CFCS does not directly describe an individual's temporal frames, but seeks to meld these frames with both attitude (e.g., satisfy, ignore) and behaviour (e.g.,

impulsiveness, risk-taking). Thirdly, CFCS considers the measurement for understanding the present time perspective and future time perspective. The past time perspective is always neglected.

Table 2-3. Consideration of Future Consequences Scale

1.	I consider how things might be in the future, and try to influence those things with my day- to-day behaviour
2.	Often, I engage in a particular behaviour to achieve outcomes that may not result for many years
3.	I only act to satisfy immediate concerns, figuring the future will take care of itself
4.	My behaviour is only influenced by the immediate (i.e., a matter of days or weeks) outcomes of my actions
5.	My convenience is a big factor in the decisions I make or the actions I take
6.	I am willing to sacrifice my immediate happiness or well-being to achieve future outcomes
7.	I think it is important to take warnings about negative outcomes seriously even if the negative outcome will not occur for many years.
8.	I think it is more important to perform a behaviour with important distant consequences than a behaviour with less-important immediate consequences
9.	I generally ignore warnings about possible future problems because I think the problems will be resolved before they reach crisis level
10.	I think that sacrificing now is usually unnecessary since future outcomes can be dealt with at a later time
11.	I only act to satisfy immediate concerns, figuring that I will take care of future problems that may occur at a later date
12.	Since my day- to- day work has specific outcomes, it is more important to me than behaviour that has distant outcomes

The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)

The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI) is the most popular and accepted scale for measuring time perspective (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). The development of the ZTPI drew upon several theoretical frameworks which had been adopted by other scales to measure the construct of TP with the combination of past, present,

and future perspectives such as the Time Structure Questionnaire (Bond & Feather, 1988), and the Consideration of Future Consequences Scale (Strathman et al., 1994). However, these scales display relatively low reliability and were difficult to score. Moreover, previous attempts to measure time perspectives have mainly focused on just one or two dimensions, with future and present as the principal dimensions of interest. Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) sought to overcome the drawbacks of many of the previous scales through the ZTPI which was developed through qualitative and quantitative methods, with the samples coming from students and the general public.

The ZTPI was originally developed to capture college students' time perspective. The scale includes 56 items and is made up of 5 factors: Past-negative (10 items; e.g., "I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past"), past-positive (9 items; e.g., "Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind"), present-hedonistic (15 items; e.g., "I feel that it is more important to enjoy what you are doing than to get work done on time"), present-fatalistic (9 items; e.g., "Often luck pays off better than hard work"), and future (13 items; "When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals"). The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory is listed in Table 2.4.

Table 2-4. The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)

Past Positive	
PP2	Familiar childhood sights, sounds, smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories.
PP7	It gives me pleasure to think about my past.
PP11	On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past.
PP15	I enjoy stories about how things used to be in the "good old times."
PP20	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.

- PP25 The past has too many unpleasant memories that I prefer not to think about.
- PP29 I get nostalgic about my childhood.
- PP41 I find myself tuning out when family members talk about the way things used to be.
- PP49 I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated.
-

Past Negative

- PN4 I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.
- PN5 My decisions are mostly influenced by people and things around me.
- PN16 Painful past experiences keep being replayed in my mind.
- PN22 I've taken my share of abuse and rejection in the past.
- PN33 Things rarely work out as I expected.
- PN34 It's hard for me to forget unpleasant images of my youth.
- PN36 Even when I am enjoying the present, I am drawn back to comparisons with similar past experiences.
- PN50 I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.
- PN54 I think about the good things that I have missed out on in my life.
-

Present Hedonistic

- PH1 I believe that getting together with one's friends to party is one of life's important pleasures.
- PH8 I do things impulsively.
- PH12 When listening to my favourite music, I often lose all track of time.
- PH17 I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.
- PH19 Ideally, I would live each day as if it were my last.
- PH23 I make decisions on the spur of the moment.
- PH26 It is important to put excitement in my life.
- PH27 I've made mistakes in the past that I wish I could undo.
- PH28 I feel that it's more important to enjoy what you're doing than to get work done on time.
- PH31 Taking risks keeps my life from becoming boring.
- PH32 It is more important for me to enjoy life's journey than to focus only on the destination.
- PH42 I take risks to put excitement in my life.
- PH44 I often follow my heart more than my head.
- PH46 I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.
- PH48 I prefer friends who are spontaneous rather than predictable.
- PH55 I like my close relationships to be passionate.
-

Present Fatalistic

- PF3 Fate determines much in my life.
- PF14 Since whatever will be will be, it doesn't really matter what I do.
- PF35 It takes joy out of the process and flow of my activities if I have to think about goals, outcomes, and products.
- PF37 You can't really plan for the future because things change so much.
- PF38 My life path is controlled by forces I cannot influence.
- PF39 It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is
-

	nothing that I can do about it anyway.
PF47	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.
PF52	Spending what I earn on pleasures today is better than saving for tomorrow's security.
PF53	Often luck pays off better than hard work.

Future	
FU6	I believe that a person's day should be planned ahead each morning.
FU9	If things don't get done on time, I don't worry about it.
FU10	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.
FU13	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.
FU18	It upsets me to be late for appointments.
FU21	I meet my obligations to friends and authorities on time.
FU24	I take each day as it is rather than try to plan it out.
FU30	Before making a decision I weigh the costs against the benefits.
FU40	I complete projects on time by making steady progress.
FU43	I make lists of things to do.
FU45	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.
FU51	I keep working at difficult, uninteresting tasks if they will help me get ahead.
FU56	There will always be time to catch up on my work.

ZTPI has been adapted by many scholars across the disciplines because it yields a relatively high internal consistency, reliability as well as construct, content, criterion, and face validity. Translated full versions of ZTPI have been validated in many different countries and settings (e.g., Chan et al., 2019; Milfont, Andrade, Pessoa, & Belo, 2008; Stolarski, Matthews, Postek, Zimbardo, & Bitner, 2014).

However, the original version of ZTPI has 56 items; thus, filling the full version of ZTPI is quite onerous and time-consuming. Therefore, a shorter version is introduced to address the ZTPI issues. The advantages of using a shorter ZTPI are highlighted by Zhang, Howell, and Bowerman (2013). First, a shorter scale is

perceived as less of a burden by the respondents. Researchers can manipulate it for different research contexts. Second, a shorter ZTPI is more effective in capturing various outcome variables if all items are concise. Third, shorter questionnaires usually generate high response rates. Likewise, Przepiorka, Sobol-Kwapinska, and Jankowski (2016) call for a shorter version as respondents complete long tests less reliably.

For these reasons, multiple efforts have been made to simplify the use of the ZTPI. The summary of the published short forms of the ZTPI is presented in Table 2.5. It can be seen that shortened versions have mainly been developed in the western context, such as Italy (D'Alessio et al., 2003; Laghi, Baiocco, Liga, Guarino, & Baumgartner, 2013), USA (Tomich & Tolich, 2019; Zhang et al., 2013), Israel (Orkibi, 2015), United Kingdom, USA and Australia (McKay et al., 2015), Poland (Przepiorka, Sobol-Kwapinska, & Jankowski, 2016), and United Kingdom, USA and Slovenia (Perry et al., 2015). The shortest version is the US version in which Zhang et al. (2013) developed a total of 15 items and surveyed a sample of 2149 Americans. The Cronbach's alpha of the subscales were 0.70 (past-positive), 0.80 (past-negative), 0.74 (present-hedonistic), 0.64 (present-fatalistic) and 0.75 (future). Tomich and Tolich (2019) also revealed a 15 items version in the sample of American adults (n=133). D'Alessio et al.'s (2003) study consisted of only 22 items assessing the present-fatalistic, present-hedonistic and future constructs (not past-positive and past-negative), six of which are not ZTPI items. Sircova et al. (2014) conducted a large survey across 24 countries to examine the psychometrics of the

short version of ZTPI. They found that the shorter version of ZTPI is structurally robust and can be administered very easily by the characteristics of individual time differences. Similarly, Laghi et al (2013) arrived at similar findings. They report high Cronbach's alpha values for ZPTI-25 scores in the sample of Italian adolescents. One of the most recent studies that has used the shortened ZTPI to the context of leisure is by Garcia and Ruiz (2015). They employed 20 items (four for each time perspective) to explore whether time perspective is the leading cause of leisure benefits sought. However, their results failed to report the reliability of each time perspective.

Although a few studies (e.g., D'Alessio et al., 2003; McKay et al., 2015; Tomich & Tolich, 2019) have pointed out that the present-fatalistic factor yielded a relatively low reliability score, the vast majority of previous studies have proved that the shorter ZTPI is an alternative approach because of good internal consistency, and discriminant and concurrent validity for each factor. Also, a shortened ZTPI has emerged from the current trend vividly in many areas of psychological research. Little empirical research has validated the shortened version of ZTPI in the tourism as well as the Hong Kong context. Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) show that ZTPI was built and validated in individualistic societies and therefore special attention has been paid to individualistic values, thus, a collectivist society, like Hong Kong, has not been examined yet. As Hong Kong prioritizes the needs of group achievement over the needs of an individual as a whole, Hong Kong tourists may have different interpretations and behaviours related to time.

Table 2-5. A review of the published short forms of the ZTPI

Nation	Discipline	Sample (Sample Size)	Characteristics of the scale	The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory					Authors
				Past- Positive	Past- Negative	Present- Hedonistic	Present- Fatalistic	Future	
Italy	Psychology	Italian (n=1507)	No. of items	N/A	N/A	8	5	9	D'Alessio et al. (2003)
			Cronbach's alpha			0.54	0.49	0.67	
Estonia	Psychology	Estonian students (n=892)	No. of items	5	5	5	5	5	Seema & Sircova (2013)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.69	0.83	0.73	0.68	0.74	
Italy	Education	Italian adolescents (n=1300)	No. of items	5	5	5	5	5	Laghi et al. (2013)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.83	0.82	0.84	0.85	0.81	
USA	Psychology	American (n=2149)	No. of items	3	3	3	3	3	Zhang et al. (2013)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.70	0.80	0.74	0.64	0.75	
Spain	Leisure	Spanish university students (n=374)	No. of items	4	4	4	4	4	Garcia & Ruiz (2015)
			Cronbach's alpha	Not reported	0.74	0.84	Not reported	Not reported	

Table 2.5. A review of the published short forms of the ZTPI (Continued)

Nation	Discipline	Sample (Sample Size)	Characteristics of the scale	The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory					Authors
				Past- Positive	Past- Negative	Present- Hedonistic	Present- Fatalistic	Future	
UK	Psychology	UK students (n=923)	No. of items	6	7	10	6	7	McKay et al. (2015)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.76	0.73	0.74	0.48	0.73	
USA	Psychology	American students (n=815)	No. of items	6	7	10	6	7	
			Cronbach's alpha	0.65	0.79	0.69	0.63	0.65	
Australia	Psychology	Australian (n=667) students	No. of items	6	7	10	6	7	
			Cronbach's alpha	0.72	0.83	0.73	0.64	0.65	
Israel	Education	Israeli University students (n=1144)	No. of items	4	4	4	4	4	Orkibi (2015)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.68	0.71	0.76	0.69	0.74	
UK	Psychology	UK students (n=913)	No. of items	5	5	5	5	5	Perry et al. (2015)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.78	0.70	0.56	0.60	0.66	

Table 2-5. A review of the published short forms of the ZTPI (Continued)

Nation	Discipline	Sample (Sample Size)	Characteristics of the scale	The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory					Authors
				Past- Positive	Past- Negative	Present- Hedonistic	Present- Fatalistic	Future	
US	Psychology	UK students (n=816)	No. of items	5	5	5	5	5	Perry et al. (2015)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.62	0.75	0.48	0.62	0.59	
Slovenia	Psychology	Slovenian students (n=154)	No. of items	5	5	5	5	5	Perry et al. (2015)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.71	0.80	0.67	0.55	0.73	
Czech and Slovakia	Psychology	Czech and Slovak adults (n=2062)	No. of items	3	3	3	3	6	Košťál et al. (2016)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.68	0.73	0.78	0.72	0.65	
Poland	Psychology	Polish students (n=555)	No. of items	5	5	5	N/A	5	Przepiorka et al. (2016)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.76	0.77	0.75		0.67	
Hungary	Psychology	Hungarian (n=1370)	No. of items	3	4	3	3	4	Orosz et al. (2017)
			Cronbach's alpha	0.68	0.84	0.73	0.69	0.70	

Table 2-5. A review of the published short forms of the ZTPI (Continued)

Nation	Discipline	Sample (Sample Size)	Characteristics of the scale	The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory					Authors
				Past- Positive	Past- Negative	Present- Hedonistic	Present- Fatalistic	Future	
USA	Psychology	American students (n=133)	No. of items Cronbach's alpha	3 0.74	3 0.80	3 0.71	3 0.54	3 0.63	Tomich and Tolich (2019)

Table 2-6. Summary of the measurement of the time perspective from the literature

Scale name	Description	No. of items	Research field	Reference
Temporal focus scale	The scale is designed to describe the extent to which individuals characteristically devote their attention to perceptions of the past, present, and future	12	Students in Europe, Japan and North America	Shipp et al. (2009)
Consideration of future consequences scale	The scale is aimed to explore the extent to which people consider the potential future outcomes of current behaviour, and the degree to which that consideration affects present behaviour.	12	Environmental studies in different markets	Strathman et al. (1994)
The Zimbardo time perspective inventory (Full version)	The scale is developed to measure individual differences in time-perspective, or tendency to focus on different aspects of the past, present, and future.	56	Extensive applied across different disciplines other than tourism, with stable reliability and validity	Zimbardo & Boyd (1999)
The Zimbardo time perspective inventory (Short version)		20 or 25	Psychology studies in western countries	Zimbardo & Boyd (1999)

2.2.3. Time perspective in leisure and tourism studies

Compared with other psychological concepts, the time-perspective has been applied only infrequently to leisure and tourism. Although the leisure and tourism literature on the time-perspective is relatively thin, the process is remarkable and worth noting. Bergadaa (1990) proposes that time perspective is an important component in the cognitive temporal system and plays a key role in explaining future behaviour. According to her theoretical considerations, individual's time perspective is directly stemmed from two factors, education level obtained, and events experienced, and indirectly impacted by a general perception towards the society. This general perception then creates either an attraction for or apprehension about the future, which in turn develops an individual's cognitive state regarding an temporal orientation toward the past, present, or future. She further theorises that these three types of temporal orientations are fairly stable and long lasting, and lead to development of different types of motives in response to the reality. These motives strongly impact the attitudes of action or of reaction, such as product selections, buying behaviour, type of consumer goods being used.

She shows that present oriented individuals like more non-organized and relaxing vacations in which they are able to experience a high level of personal autonomy, quiet relaxation, and the joy of being with friends and relatives. On the contrary, future oriented individuals are apt to hand over arrangements to specialized travel

agencies and prefer exotic vacations that provide an opportunity to enhance their knowledge and abilities.

Philipp (1992) argues that all human action can be highly associated with time and suggests the importance of personal cognitive temporal systems linked to leisure behaviour. He examined whether a relationship exists between time perspective and the likelihood of participating in leisure activities. Individuals with future orientations were significantly found to participate in leisure activities while a few of the leisure activities were associated with past time orientation also. Interestingly, over half of the leisure activities employed in the survey were not significantly linked with present time orientation.

Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003) investigate the underlying reason for consuming particular type of leisure services based on an individual's timestyles, and the impact of perceptions of time use on leisure choices. They conceptualized that timestyle should at least include four dimensions: social orientation, temporal orientation, planning orientation, and polychronic orientation. Through qualitative approach, their findings confirmed temporal orientation can bring in a distinct effect on leisure choices. For instance, a future oriented customer tends to pursue forward looking and self-development activities while people with a present orientation have a tendency to make their leisure choices based on hedonic pursuits. Past-oriented individuals are more likely to enjoy activities to relive their childhood.

An important contribution of Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003) to the perception of time is that culture factors may differ in temporal orientation. They find that age and gender play different roles in an individual's time perspective. Young people tend to be future oriented, whereas the elderly are more likely to be past-oriented. Men are more associated with future-orientation than women, while women show a higher level of present-orientation.

Shores and Scott (2007) were the first to empirically provide the groundwork for understanding the role of time perspective in relation to other leisure constructs. They developed a framework for testing if there is a connection between time perspective and recreation motivations. They surveyed a sample of 1200 US residents living in North Carolina. Six recreation benefits are identified, namely physical fitness, spirituality, family togetherness, competence testing, risk taking and learning. Their findings also provide an empirical basis to understand how individuals frame time into groups based on temporal considerations. A two-step cluster analysis shows that over 40% of the respondents are past-positive oriented. The second largest group was future time perspective oriented, followed by past-negative and "undifferentiated". Additionally, their results provide converging evidence for time perspectives in relation to various aspects of recreation motivation. Past-negative and present fatalistic respondents are least likely to regard any recreation benefit as important. On the contrary, future oriented and past-positive respondents are inclined more toward all motivations except risk taking.

Although their study confirms a linkage between time perspective and various aspects of motivation for leisure activity, it should be noted that motivation for leisure does not always result in leisure behaviour. Second, their findings were biased by the unequal distribution of their sample. The results of cluster analysis indicated majority of respondents were past-positive oriented and future time oriented. This accords well with Shipp and Aeon's (2019) findings in which a majority of US residents tend to have a stronger future temporal focus. However, their study fails to address the situation beyond the US.

Garcia and Ruiz (2015) conducted a follow up study of Shores and Scott (2007) to determine the importance of each time perspective in terms of the leisure benefits sought. They found that time-perspective is a valid indicator to detect consumer choices of leisure activities. In general, their results are completely in accord with those of Zimbardo and Boyd (1999). However, neither past-negative nor present-fatalistic was derived as an important dimension of time perspective in influencing the benefits sought. This result contradicts the findings of Shores and Scott (2007). The future time perspective had positive effects on all benefits sought, and present-fatalistic is highly associated with outdoor activities, such as travel and tourism. However, the major drawback is the sample used in the study. It failed to use a larger sample and thus a call for larger samples for understanding time-perspective is long overdue. Another limitation of their study is that the sample is undertaken in the western countries. As Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003) posit, cultural differences

may also shape an individual's temporal considerations. The span of the time perspective study needs to be widened to include the Asian context.

Lu et al. (2016) provide a preliminary assessment of the impact of time perspective in the tourism field. They examined the relationships among time perspective, travel motivation, and travel intention from Chinese senior tourists' perspectives. Although their findings confirmed that there are positive relationships between time perspective and travel motivation, their study addressed only the respondents' present time and future time perspective; past perspective was not explored. Second, their paper suffers from overemphasis on Chinese senior potential tourists. Chinese senior tourists are a valuable segment; however, it appears that their travel characteristics do not qualify them for being treated as typical tourists as they are resistant to change and have a strong dedication to tradition. Tung and Ritchie (2011) found that Chinese senior tourists tend to attach high importance to nostalgia re-enactment when choosing a holiday destination. It seems reasonable to argue that senior tourists are more past-oriented than present or future oriented. ZTPI does not display high and stable reliability and validity in their study. The sample issue may lead to psychometric properties. This study argues the need to further validate the measurement of time perspective using a wider and more appropriate sample. Third, they claimed that their hypothesis model is developed based on cognitive temporal model, however, no attempt has been made to understand the role of attitude and its importance to behavioral intention.

In conclusion, only limited evidence is available on this in the leisure and tourism research literature and most works are still at the superficial level. There is an overwhelming consensus among leisure and tourism researchers that a strong positive relationship exists between time-perspective and consumer/tourist behaviour. Nevertheless, extra efforts need to be put in to provide empirical support for explaining how time perspective influences the intention to visit a destination, and the mediating roles of motivation and attitude explaining the relationship and behavioural consequences of the time perspective. As stated in Chapter 1.2, tourist psychology studies are more likely to use a psychological theory based on a behaviourist paradigm, potentially overlooking the importance and the resultant value addition through enhancing the conceptual understanding of the cognitive process. This thesis acknowledges the need to understand the cognitive process from the time perspective to travel intention via travel motivation and travel attitude. Moreover, the relationship between past time perspective and intention to visit a destination is significantly under-investigated from both theoretical and practical perspectives. This omission is somewhat problematic as the current psychology literature has argued strongly that past-time perspective is highly pertinent to decision-making and future human behaviour. Unfortunately, no research work has examined the connection and possibility of three dimensions of time-perspective playing a role in determining tourist behaviour in relation to travel intention. Therefore, a construct of past time-perspective is included in this study.

Table 2-7. Summary of Time Perspective in Leisure and Tourism Research

Author(s)	Context	Salient Focus	Major Finding(s)	Corresponding Conceptual Components in the Current Study
Bergadaa (1990)	Conceptual paper	To understand how consumer actions are influenced by the temporal orientation of individuals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual's time perspective is directly stemmed from education level obtained, and events experienced • Three types of temporal orientations lead to development of different types of motives • These motives strongly impact the attitudes of action or of reaction • Present oriented individuals like more non-organized and relaxing vacations • Individual with future orientation prefers exotic vacations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptual model (cognitive temporal model) • Characteristics of present and future oriented individuals
Philipp (1992)	Leisure residents) (USA	To test whether time perspective is related to participation in leisure activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future oriented individuals were significantly found to participate in leisure activities • A few of the leisure activities were associated with past time orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preference outcome (three types of time perspective, leisure choices) • Characteristics of present and future oriented individuals

Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003)	Leisure residents)	(USA	To investigate the underlying reason for consuming particular type of leisure services based on an individual's timestyles, and the impact of perceptions of time use on leisure choices.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Half of leisure activities were not significantly linked with present time orientation • Future oriented customer tends to pursue forward looking and self-development activities • Present orientation tends to make their leisure choices based on hedonic pursuits. • Past-oriented individuals are more likely to enjoy activities to relive their childhood • Culture factors may differ in temporal orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preference outcomes (time perspective, leisure choices) • Characteristics of present, past, and future oriented individuals
Shores and Scott (2007)	Leisure residents)	(USA	To investigate how individuals' time perspective are linked to the type of recreation benefits they seek	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time perspective dimensions have implications for various aspects of recreation motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preference outcomes (time perspective, recreation motivation) • Characteristics of present, past, and future oriented individuals
Garcia and Ruiz (2015)	Leisure university students)	(Spanish	To explore how time perspectives have an influence on the amount of free time available, the leisure benefits those individuals seek, and how often people spend time on different leisure activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time perspective is a valid indicator to detect consumer choices of leisure activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preference outcomes (time perspective, leisure choices) • Characteristics of present, past, and future oriented individuals

Lu et al. (2016)

Tourism (Chinese senior tourists)

To understand the significance of time perspective for travel behaviour of seniors

- Present time perspective and future time perspective positively lead to travel motivation

- Preference outcomes (time perspective, travel motivation)

Table 2-8. Studies Relating to Time Perspective in Leisure and Tourism

Research

	Bergadaa (1990)	Philipp (1992)	Cotte & Ratneshwar (2003)	Shores & Scott (2007)	Garcia & Ruiz (2015)	Lu et al. (2016)
Type of paper						
Conceptual	✓					
Empirical		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Research context						
Leisure	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Tourism						✓
Data collection period						
Pre-visit / activity	NA	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Post-visit / activity						
Types of TP						
Past TP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Present TP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Future TP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Measurement						
Full ZTPI	NA			✓		
Shortened ZTPI					✓	✓
Others		✓	✓			
Dependent variable						
Motivations / Benefits	✓			✓	✓	✓
Attitude	✓					
Leisure choices		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Amount of free time available					✓	
Future behaviour	✓					

2.3. Travel motivation

Travel motivation is a hot research focus that has been studied over four decades. There are three main reasons that explain the need for studying travel motivations. First, from the theoretical point of view, motivation is the primary cause of human behaviour. It is a trigger to the tourist decision process and an important construct for understanding tourist behaviour. Second, it is the key determinant to understanding the vacation decision-making process. Third, it provides the groundwork for understanding the connection with other behaviour responses, e.g., tourist satisfaction, tourist experience, loyalty, and intention to travel. From the managerial perspective, the investigation of tourist motivation allows tourism industry practitioners to develop the corresponding marketing strategies and tourism activities. Thus, it has become a widely investigated concept for many years in the field of travel and tourism.

In the tourism literature, there are certain similarities between need and motivation, but need is not the same as motivation. Generally speaking, need implies the lack of something required or necessary, while motivations or motives are the process of stimulating people to actions to satisfy a need (Tasci & Ko, 2017). Travel motivation is commonly defined as “a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or a group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision” (Dann, 1981, p.205) or “a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants)

that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals” (Crompton & McKay, 1997, p.427). Crompton and McKay (1997) further underline that travel motivation is multi-faceted and dynamic. Tourists tend to travel with different motives, even within a single journey. There is abundant room in tourism studies for examining travel motivations.

2.3.1. Travel motivation in the tourism literature

To identify the relevant literature on travel motivation, the Web of Science of Thomson Reuters (hereinafter WoS) can be used. WoS is a subscription-based database which provides comprehensive documentation of scientific journals, materials, publications, data, and works for many different academic disciplines. It consists of 161 million records across 254 subject areas of which 65% are related to the sciences, 23% to the social sciences, and 12% to arts & humanities (Sánchez, Rama, García, & Álvarez, 2017). Second, WoS is available free of charge at the University library of Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University. Two keywords, “travel motivation” and “tourism” were used to extract relevant studies on travel motivations. The literature search was carried out in Nov 2019. After screening and removing the duplicates from the initial search, 121 articles from 40 journals were chosen. The following sections gives a brief overview of the results in terms of the research context, the theory being used, the research methods, and the resulting measurements.

Research topic among travel motivation studies

In the research context, motivations are mainly found and summarized in six categories, namely, the reasons for travelling, why a specific destination is selected, why a specific tourist travel, why travel this way, the consequences of motivation, and market segmentation. The first category, “the reasons for travelling”, focuses on the explanations of tourists’ general pattern of travel. The second category, why a specific destination is selected, refers to the reasons why tourists visit a particular destination, e.g., Taiwan, Hong Kong, etc. The third category, why specific tourist travel, focuses on the travel motivations of specific types of tourists, such as senior tourists, disabled tourists, Chinese tourists, female tourists, university students, etc. The fourth category, why travel in this way, explains the reasons why tourists choose a specific type or form of travel, such as rural tourism, religious tourism, festival tourism and so on. The fifth category is the consequences of motivation in which travel motivation is conceptualized as independent variable aiming to investigate the relationship between travel motivation and the effects of other dependent variables, such as travel intention, re-visit intention, loyalty, and satisfaction. Finally, the last category is market segmentation employing statistical analysis to divide tourists into segments based on their travel motivations. Additionally, there are very few studies concerning “demotivation to travel”, and “how other factors affect travel motivation”. This study falls into the third category, studying the reasons why Hong Kong tourists travel.

The first category, the reasons for travelling, received much attention before 2000s. It should be noted that many classic travel motivation theories explaining the general travel patterns were developed between the 1970s and the 2000s by various tourism scholars (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Fodness, 1994; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Pearce, 1988; Plog, 1974); and major tourism journals were founded in the 1970s. Plog (1974) borrowed the concept of personality from psychology study and applied it to travel motivation. He wondered why some tourists did not fly to travel in the late 1960s. Respondents in the sample are grouped according to their salient personality, from “allocentric” through “near allocentric,” “mid-centric,” “near psychocentric,” to “psychocentric”. Likewise, Pearce (1988) developed the “Travel Career Ladder” (TCL) based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory. Unlike Plog’s work (1974), the TCL tries to understand how tourist motivations progress from the bottom to the top of the hierarchy. He argued that TCL includes at least five travel motivations associated with relaxation, stimulation, relationship, self-esteem and development or fulfilment. Another well-known study was conducted by Fodness (1994), where travel motivations were examined using functional theory. His study proved that tourists tend to perform the same behaviour with different motivations. An important theme emerges from the studies discussed so far: Tourism researchers are struggling to keep pace with understanding travel motivation but do not reach a consensus on which theory or framework is better to describe travel motivations because of the complexity of its nature.

It is noteworthy that tourists' travel motivations are pulled by attributes of travel destinations and pushed by their needs and wants. Therefore, the research focus on travel motivation has shifted from the general travel pattern to specific types of destinations and tourists. This shifting process has become a prominent factor within the field of travel motivation over the past decade. Previous studies on the second category, i.e. why a specific destination is selected, tend to be classified by the research context into categories along continuum ranging from strangeness to familiarity. At one extreme of the continuum is strangeness, in which tourism researchers aim to investigate why tourists travel to a particular destination that has not yet been developed. Prayag, Suntikul and Agyeiwaah (2018) examine the role of travel motivation and how these factors drive tourists to visit an attraction in Ghana. Van der Merwe, Slabbert and Saayma (2011) explore international tourists' motives for visiting a marine destination in South Africa. A recent study in this area is that conducted by Božić, Jovanović, Tomić, and Vasiljević (2017). They sought to understand why domestic tourists visited multi-destinations within Serbia. At the other extreme is familiarity, which refers to tourism researchers being interested in understanding the reasons for visiting a mature and popular tourist destination. Using push and pull motivation framework, Leong, Yeh, Hsiao, and Huan (2015) study whether nostalgia plays a significant role in the travel decision making proves in the case of Macau, China, while Yousefi and Marzuki (2015) examine the underlying dimensions of travel motivation towards visiting Penang, and investigated whether tourists' socio-demographic variables are different in relation to pull and push motivation factors.

In terms of the third category, why a specific tourist decides to travel, research pertaining to the specificities of the Chinese market has significance for academicians. The rapid growth in the number of outbound tourists from China has prompted significant research to find out why Chinese tourists have started visiting so many foreign destinations. Chinese outbound tourism has evolved in four stages (Zhang & Heung, 2002). The Chinese tourism revolution came from domestic tourism. Next, the second stage involved the Chinese government allowing its residents to travel to Hong Kong (a colonial city of the United Kingdom originally) and Macau (a colonial city of Portugal) for social visits from 1983. The third stage began in the 1990s when Chinese tourists were legally allowed to travel outside of China, such as travelling to Asian countries. Rapid growth of Chinese tourism started its final stage in 1999 when Chinese government lifted the travel restrictions on visits to western countries, such as USA, Australia, and Europe (Tse, 2015). The results of motivation-related research also reflect this trend. Huang and Hsu (2009) develop a model for understanding the interrelationships among travel motivation, travel attitude, and revisit intention of Chinese tourists travelling to Hong Kong. Song, Liu, and Huang (2016) explore what motivates or demotivates Chinese tourists to visit Taiwan. Zhang and Peng (2014) use a longitudinal study to analyse Chinese tourists' sociodemographic profiles and examined whether push or pull factors can explain their travel motivation to visit Australia. Their study found that Chinese tourists tend to visit Australia because of intrinsic as well as extrinsic needs. Chinese outbound tourists have strong motives for seeking out completely

new experiences and knowledge, but they want to do so only in a relaxing way. On the other hand, the natural environment of Australia can largely satisfy Chinese tourists' intrinsic needs. Wu and Pearce (2014) use a netnographic approach to capture a number of travel motivations of Chinese recreational vehicle tourists. Wen and Huang (2019a) apply a hierarchical value map technique to analyse Chinese tourists' motivations for visiting a war-torn country. Another group of travel motivation studies regarding the Chinese market focuses on specific market segments, such as Chinese cigar tourists (Wen & Huang, 2019b; Ying, Wei, Wen, Wang, & Ye, 2018), Chinese senior tourists (Wang, Wu, Luo, & Lu, 2017), Chinese luxury tourists (Zhang & Tse, 2018), Chinese anime consumers (Kirillova, Peng, & Chen, 2019), and Chinese eco-tourists (Ma, Chow, Cheung, & Liu, 2018).

Several previous studies have examined why specific types of tourists travel to specific types of destinations. Even for the same population or country, results reported vary. For instance, seven studies have examined senior tourists' travel motivations. Le Serre, Legohérel, and Weber (2013), Prayag (2012), and Ryu, Hyun, and Shim (2015) show that senior tourists are motivated to travel overseas more for social purposes. However, Jang, Bai, Hu, and Wu (2009), and Jang and Wu (2006) identify that knowledge/novelty seeking is a particularly important variable when considering the travel motivation factor. Other studies have shown that senior tourists are driven to travel by having service enjoyment (Wang et al., 2017) and seeking personal growth (Wijaya, Wahyudi, Kusuma, & Sugianto, 2018). Abundant evidence suggests that travel motivations are varied, and tourists view travel as a

way to fulfil their different needs, which makes it possible to focus on individual travel with multiple purposes.

Studies on the fourth category, “why travel in this way”, receive considerable attention from tourism researchers. Selected topics include dark tourism (Rittichainuwat, 2008; Wang, Sirakaya-Turk, & Aydin, 2019), health tourism (Baloglu, Busser, & Cain, 2019; Konu & Laukkanen, 2010), rural tourism (Pesonen, Komppula, Kronenberg, & Peters, 2011), gaming tourism (Wong & Rosenbaum, 2012), medical tourism (Musa, Thirumoorthi, & Doshi, 2012), religious tourism (Abbate & Di Nuovob, 2013), festival tourism (Chiang, Wang, Lee, & Chen, 2015; Matheson, Rimmer, & Tinsley, 2014; Peter & Anandkumar, 2016), event (Mair, 2015; Wong & Tang, 2016; Yi, Fu, Jin, & Okumus, 2018), film tourism (Chang, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2018), marine tourism (Paker & Vural, 2016), heritage tourism (Liu & Chou, 2016), cruise tourism (Han & Hyun, 2019; Whyte, 2017), food tourism (Jiang, Li, Liu, & Chang, 2017), wildlife tourism (Mutanga, Vengesayi, Chikuta, Muboko, & Gandiwa, 2017), Islamic tourism (Battour, Ismail, Battor, & Awais, 2017), wine tourism (Ye, Zhang, & Yuan, 2017), adventure tourism (Wu & Pearce, 2017), eco-tourism (Ma, Chow, Cheung, Lee, & Liu, 2018), and spiritual retreat tourism (Ashton, 2018).

Regarding the fifth category, over one-third of the studies (47 out of 121) investigate the consequences of travel motivation. Examining the relationships among travel motivation, satisfaction, travel intention, and loyalty is of great

interest to tourism researchers as these concepts are key constructs in explaining tourist behaviour and they are commonly found in tourism studies. Previous tourism studies examining the relationship between travel motivation and satisfaction can be categorized into two major groups. In the first group of studies, travel motivation is employed as a predictor of tourist satisfaction. For example, Battour et al. (2017) sampled Muslim tourists visiting Malaysia and report that both push and pull factors significantly influence tourist satisfaction. Push factors had a stronger explanatory power than pull factors to tourist satisfaction. In contrast to Battour et al. (2017), Wong, Musa, and Taha, Azni (2017) underline that push motivations yield more information on the influence on tourists' overall satisfaction. An empirical study conducted by Ma et al. (2018) reports that “relaxation and nature exploration”, “novelty seeking”, and “social influence and physical refreshment” have positive impacts on tourist satisfaction. Another interesting approach was used by Albayrak and Caber (2018), who examine the effect of motivation measurement on satisfaction at two different points of time. They compare two competing methods, classic and performance models, to understand the relationship between motivation and satisfaction. They conclude that satisfaction can be measured more accurately by the post experience motivation than before the experience.

In the second group of motivation – satisfaction studies, researchers have employed travel motivation incorporating other additional variables to predict satisfaction. In the case of the Taiwan sample, Lee (2009) integrates motivation, attitude, and destination image and tests how these three variables affect tourist satisfaction. In

the context of food tourism, Agyeiwaah, Otoo, Suntikul, and Huang (2019) study the interrelationships among motivation, experience, and satisfaction. They report that culinary tourists' motivation and experience positively influences satisfaction. Prayag et al. (2018) obtain results similar to Agyeiwaah et al. (2019) and Lee (2009). These studies report that motivation, positive impacts, and attachment to the place have a positive relationship with satisfaction while negative impacts do not.

Since Weaver, Mc Cleary, Lapisto, and Damonte (1994) successfully categorized tourists' travel motivation into four segments and suggested that clustering of motivation can be used as a feasible tool for segmentation, studies on travel motivation have also covered market segmentation. It should be noted that many studies that fall in the sixth category adopt a factor-cluster approach in which factor analysis is first employed to explore a set of variables reflecting travel motivation, and then a subsequent cluster analysis is used to identify subgroups of tourists based on the results of factor analysis (e.g., Assiouras, Skourtis, Koniordos, & Giannopoulos, 2015; Cha, Mcclary, & Uysal, 1995; Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014; Chen & Xiao, 2013; Chiang et al., 2015; Fung & Jim, 2015; Kim & Kim, 2018; Levitt, Zhang, DiPietro, & Meng, 2017; Paker & Vural, 2016; Peter & Anandkumar, 2016; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Ying et al., 2018). The extant tourism literature has progressively applied social psychology theories to understand tourist motivation. Drawing on grid-group cultural theory, Li, Zhang, Xiao, and Chen (2015) provide an attempt to examine the effect of various culture styles on Chinese tourists' travel motivation. They identify four travel motives (hierarchy, individualism,

egalitarianism, and fatalism) in relation to Chinese culture and style, indicating that cultural theory can also be studied by segmentation analysis. In terms of predictability of travel motivation as segmentation, a recent study found that clustering of travel activities generates a higher predictive power than travel motivations (Pesonen, 2015).

Methods applied among travel motivation studies

Most travel motivation studies have used a positivistic paradigm, reflecting the pursuit of objectivity. Much of the literature on travel motivation has adopted a quantitative approach which implies that travel motivation is a well-studied topic, and many researchers tend to adapt previously used measurement items for different motivations. Only eleven studies adopted qualitative methods, and these are concerning the motivations behind specific tourist travel. Although the mixed-method approach draws on the potential strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods, very few studies have used it. Interviews and surveys are the most predominant data collection techniques for quantitative and qualitative research, respectively, while other techniques, such as experiment, observation, and Delphi, are used less frequently. It should be noted that both quantitative and qualitative approach have their respective advantages and drawbacks for tourist motivation studies. Jang and Wu (2006) and Wu and Pearce (2014) provide a suggestion to tourism researchers that a qualitative study should come first and then it be followed by a quantitative study if the motivational items are mainly extracted from the existing literature. Therefore, this study follows Fodness's (1994)

recommendation that mixed methods can be used for comprehensive measurements and for understanding tourist motivation.

Exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, regression, cluster analysis, and structure equation modelling are the popular data analysis techniques for quantitative studies while a common data analysis for qualitative studies is content analysis. Regarding the data collection period, some researchers have examined travel motivation before visit (e.g., Jiang, Scott, & Ding, 2019; Ye et al., 2017); others have captured data during visits (e.g., Hsu et al., 2009; Park et al., 2019); and some others have tested it after the visit (e.g., Hsu, Lee, & Chen, 2017; Huang & Hsu, 2009). Admittedly, when different researchers capture travel motivation, they do not necessarily do that in the same period. Nowacki (2009) suggests that “measuring motivation after the experience is loaded with too large an error because of benefits gained, which disrupts the original picture of motivation” (p. 307). Indeed, tourists’ motivations may change during the period of travel. Hence, previous studies which captured tourist motivation during, or post visit may not have reflected tourists’ real motivation. As recommended by Albayrak and Caber (2018), travel motivation should be measured before the trip, not during or after the trip.

2.3.2. The main travel motivation theories in the tourism studies

Over the past three decades, various theories have been developed to identify travel motivations. The popular theories adopted by tourism researchers are allocentric–psychocentric (Plog, 1974), push-and-pull theory (Dann, 1977), escape-seeking theory (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987), and the travel career approach (Pearce & Lee, 2005). However, tourism researchers do not reach a consensus on which theory or framework is better to describe travel motivations (Li & Cai, 2012). Each has its own strengths and drawbacks. The following provides a summary of main travel motivation theories in tourism literature.

Push and pull motivation theory

The existing literature attach much importance to the push and pull motivation theory (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015). Dann (1977) argued that the decision to travel to a destination is motivated by two separate factors, push and pull factors. In general, the former motivates tourists to travel outside of their home community, whereas the latter refers to the destination’s attributes and performances that attract tourists to visit.

Push factors stem from the central area of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and are referred to as intrinsic motivations that cause individuals to travel. Intrinsic motives are seen to be relevant to drives, feelings and inward psychological needs (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Tourists tend to be motivated by their own innate needs (or intrinsic motives) towards destinations where the place is expected to meet their needs (Ryan & Glendon, 1998). Push factors are seen as the starting point of explaining tourists’

behaviour as they are considered to be helpful in reflecting the desire for travel (Crompton, 1979). Typical examples of push factors include status and prestige, relaxation, novelty, socialisation, personal development, health and wellness (e.g., Božić et al., 2017; Wen & Huang, 2019b; Xie & Ritchie, 2019). Therefore, push motivations are tied closely with tourists' desire, representing individuals' socio-psychological needs.

Literature suggests that tourists can also be motivated by destination attractiveness where a combination of facilities and services make a major contribution. Yoon and Uysal (2005) suggests that pull factors involve knowledge or beliefs about a destination. Typical examples include both tangible resources at the destination (e.g., attractions, shopping facilities, accommodations, scenic beauty, and so on) (Rittichainuwat, 2008; Wong et al., 2017) and tourist's perceptions and expectations (e.g., benefits sought, value for money) (Alegre, Cladera, & Sard, 2011; Heung, Qu, & Chu, 2001). When tourists plan to travel, they are more likely to consider the destination that appeals to them first (Wong et al., 2017). Thus, pull factors generally are mostly associated with destination performance.

Many tourism researchers view motivation as comprising push and pull factors. However, some scholars distinguish the difference between push and pull factors and do not consider pull factors as motivation (e.g., Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979) since they are just reflecting the performance of certain destinations. But, notwithstanding this, tourism researchers have proved that there is an inter-

relationship between push and pull factors. Park, Hsieh, and McNally (2010, p. 307) suggest that “combinations of different push and pull motivations create perceptions of different tourism destinations”. Wu and Pearce (2017) demonstrate that push and pull factors share a truly reciprocal relationship, and that pull factors precede push factors (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). Yi et al. (2018) note that push motivations are strongly correlated with pull motivations.

In addition, tourists have revealed individual differences in relation to push and pull motivations in the context of destination choice. For example, senior tourists are mainly attracted by cleanliness & safety (Jang & Wu, 2006), while younger tourists are motivated by destination’s reputation (Xu & Tavitiyaman, 2018). In terms of gender, male tourists are more concerned about the availability of activities at a destination than are women, and female tourists have a strong preference for seeking relaxation experiences (Meng & Uysal, 2008).

Escape-seeking theory

To develop a better understanding of travel motivation from the leisure perspective, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) proposed that motivation is highly dependent on two socio-psychological needs - escaping and seeking. The nature of escape-seeking theory appears like the push and pull theory mentioned earlier. However, they propose that the seeking and escaping motives are influenced by personal and interpersonal factors. It is believed that the tourists’ psychological needs are derived from the interaction between the escaping and seeking dimensions (Mair, 2015).

Tourists undertake pleasure travel because they want to escape their routine environment or situation, and to seek personal and/or interpersonal rewards. The personal rewards are concerned with experiencing another cultures, novelty seeking, learning new things, health and fitness, rest and relaxation, while the interpersonal rewards refer to those arising from socialisation (Iso-Ahola, 1982).

Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) made the first attempt to operationalize and empirically test the application of escape-seeking theory in the context of tourism. In line with Mannell and Iso-Ahola's (1987) study, a four-dimensional structure was found, including personal escape, interpersonal escape, personal seeking and interpersonal seeking. Furthermore, their results provide a deeper understanding about the interrelationships between tourist motivation factors. They found that personal escape and personal seeking motivations yield more influence on the choice of recreational activities. In the Arab context, Moufakkir and AlSaleh (2017) explored Kuwaiti citizens' motives using escape and seeking theory. Their study provided a good theoretical formulation of how seek and escape factors influence decisions of Kuwaiti citizens and provided an example of a more in-depth use of the framework in the Arab context.

Although escape-seeking theory provides a new area to understand travel motivation in the area of travel and leisure, and has been well-verified by recent tourism studies, critiques have been put forth by several tourism scholars. First, escape-seeking theory fails to clearly explain how the desire for escape is formed

and leads to travel motivation. In other words, it does not address the process by which a particular motive is created (Jamal & Lee, 2003). Second, White and Thompson (2009) note that escape-seeking theory does not provide a strong theoretical foundation as it fails to elicit the structure of human needs. It assumes that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are able to satisfy all types of tourists' travel needs. Third, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) assume that travel motivation is a division of leisure motivation. Indeed, there are several similarities and overlaps between travel and leisure, but it is commonly agreed that travel and leisure are two entirely different ways to conceptualize motivation, and they cannot be studied as one phenomenon.

Travel career ladder (TCL) / Travel career pattern (TCP)

Building on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Pearce (1982) established the travel career ladder (TCL), which stated that travel motivation is like a hierarchy, with five levels of need. The first level is relaxation needs, followed by safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and the highest level is fulfilment needs. The premise of TCL is that tourists' travel motivation moves up the ladder depending on their level of travel experience. When a tourist has enough travel experience, he or she tends to look for a desire to arise at the upper level of motivation.

However, TCL has attracted a lot of criticism because of its poor operationalization and lack of empirical research backing. Ryan (1998) asserts that human needs do

not necessarily go through the levels of the hierarchy. Also, TCL fails to recognize cultural and individual differences as concerning the ability to achieve the higher level. Ryan (1998) further suggested that the main difficulty surrounding TCL is its opacity and redundancy at each stage. Against this background, an extension of TCL, Travel Career Pattern (TCP) has been developed by Pearce and Lee (2005).

The TCP model is in conformity with the TCL approach. In the TCP theory, travel motivations are illustrated as three layers, core motivation, middle layer motivation, and outer layer. Core motivation is central to TCP theory, including novelty, escape and relax, and relationship, then surrounding them, a range of middle layer motivations, such as external motivations (e.g., nature and host-site development) and internal motivations (e.g., self-actualization and self-development). Finally, the outer layer locates at the outermost space and comprises the least important motivation factors, such as isolation and nostalgia (Pearce and Lee, 2005). While the discussions and debates continue in the tourism literature, one point of agreement is that TCP is widely accepted as representative of the popular theory of tourist motivations (Hsu & Huang, 2008).

Tourism researchers have investigated the relationship of travel career ladder/pattern theory to destination choice (Rahman, Zailani, & Musa, 2017), tourists' characteristics and profiles (Song & Bae, 2018). A study by Rahman et al. (2017) of Muslim tourists visiting Malaysia found that physiological needs, self-esteem needs, and relationship needs are positively associated with destination

choice. Song and Bae (2018) segmented the international student market in Korea using TCP theory and found that international students with more travel experience are more inclined to be motivated by their intrinsic motives in the middle layer motivation, while those with less travel experience tend to be motivated by external motives.

From the studies reviewed here, it is evident that no single theoretical framework can fully explain the comprehensive structure of travel motivation. The literature presented in this chapter implies that there are many theoretical groundworks and models to describe various travel motives. Chiang and Jogaratnam (2006) state that “each travel motivational theory has its strengths and weaknesses, and more operationalization and empirical support are needed” (p. 60). A recent study put push factors in the most important position because they are more likely to be associated with personal desires that visit a given place, and are capable of understanding and responding to the question of why people want to travel (Güzel, Sahin, & Ryan, 2020). Mehmetoglu (2012) argues that pull travel motivation is not fully internal evaluation but is also external in nature in that push (internal) leads to pull (external) (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). As noted by Dann (1981, p. 206), “*tourists take into consideration various pull factors which correspond to their motivational push*” which further suggests that push factors are built upon pull factors. With reference to the nature of travel motivation, only push factors are considered and used in the present study.

2.3.3. Potential constructs of the push factors

Push-pull theory has been extensively studied in the extant literature on travel motivation. Given below is a discussion about potential travel motivation limited by the number of previous studies on push-pull theory in relation to visiting a destination. A total of 14 which fall into this category are listed in Appendix 1. The following discussion provides a theoretical foundation for how potential travel motivation constructs are developed based on these available studies.

With respect to the push travel motivations, the most frequently identified push factor is knowledge seeking. Some scholars have emphasized personal development seeking as a pull factor. Jang and Cai (2002), and Wang, Qu, and Hsu (2016) reported that knowledge seeking is of decisive importance among all push factors. Jang and Wu (2006) employed six items to measure knowledge seeking. Similarly, their findings also found that knowledge seeking appeared to be the most important push factor. In addition, Prayag et al. (2018) identified travel motivations as cultural and learning and emotional experiences, and concluded that cultural and learning experience had a stronger and more significant impact on travel motivation than emotional experience. It seems tourists are more likely to visit a destination for self-improvement and learning new things.

Relaxation may be a reason for travel. Relaxation relates to the individual's bodily health and well-being. Several studies (e.g., Jang & Cai, 2002; Khan, Chelliah, &

Ahmed, 2019; Wang et al., 2016) have corroborated the importance of relaxation in explaining tourists' travel behaviour. For tourists with relaxation focus, the travel destination is selected where the primary travel motive is seeking physical and mental relaxation and re-energizing. Tourists seek physical and mental balance in their busy lives, and travelling is helpful in achieving this balance because it is a way to escape the stressful environment (Crompton, 1979). There are various forms of relaxation. Some tourists enjoy doing nothing at all at the destination, others enjoy sunshine and fun at the seaside, and still others seek relaxation in visiting new places, meeting locals, and having a meal. Whatever form the vacation takes, relaxation is always sought in a certain measure by tourists.

The role of novelty seeking has long received the attention of tourism scholars who are interested in travel motivation. Cohen (1972) suggested that novelty and the joy of strangeness are the core values of tourist experience and novelty seeking is one of the fundamental cognitive needs of humans (Crompton, 1979). Novelty seeking is highly related to a curiosity, sensation seeking, and exploratory drive (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Lee and Crompton (1992) suggest that novel travel is a trip that involves the unfamiliar and new experiences which differ from daily life. They further state that novelty includes four dimensions, thrill, change from routine, boredom alleviation, and surprise. Kim and Kim (2015) replicated Lee and Crompton's (1992) scale, and found that novelty seeking increased the levels of tourist satisfaction and the likelihood of intention to search for similar alternatives. Jang and Feng (2007) examined the effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction in

relation to revisit-intention. They used 9 items for measuring novelty seeking, such as “opportunity to see or experience people from different ethnic backgrounds”, “experiencing a different culture”, “variety of things to see and do”. Since novelty seeking emerges in many tourism studies, it is used as the foundation to explore travel motivation of Hong Kong tourists in this study.

Prestige has emerged as a primary travel motivation in several studies (e.g., Huang, 2009; Li & Cai, 2012). This concerns the egoistic needs and the desire for personal development. Prestige refers to “a felt perception of high regard or honour that is bestowed on other people” (Riley, 1995, p.630). Prestige is based on evaluations of successes, achievements and ranks of people. Riley (1995) mentions that prestige can be derived from two forms of behaviour: (1) participating in or visiting the attractions and activities that are something special and unique; and (2) evaluating travellers’ knowledge, actions, skills, abilities and attitudinal dispositions. Li and Cai (2012) indicated that the prestige experience is the core not only of travel motivation, but also external values (i.e., goal, experience, or situation).

The results of literature review have proved that tourists often travel for social purposes. Jang and Wu (2006), and Cha et al. (1995) identified family togetherness as some of the main travel motivations. The importance of the enhancement of relationship was also noted by Wang et al. (2016), who examined travel motivations and gender differences to understand how tourists form their expectations toward a

travel destination. Jang and Cai (2002) reported that most respondents in their study travel to meet new and different people or to spend time with family.

Apart from the fundamental push factors, no one can or will deny fun and excitement as an important motive in recent times. Nowadays, there is a strong demand for an individual to look for pure pleasure. People would like to seek for fun and excitement whenever possible. Holiday taking is the best way to fulfil individual need of fun and being entertained. Li and Cai (2012) note that exciting experience is one of the five principal motivations for visiting a destination.

The above potential travel motivations may not fit all tourists well every time because travel motivations are heterogeneous, and a tourist may have different needs to be fulfilled on a single trip and have different expectations. Although the above discussion provides some insight for understanding the push factors in relation to visit to a destination to a certain extent, only few existing studies have focused on understanding Hong Kong tourists' motivation to travel. The proposed constructs such as fun and excitement and natural environment can only be considered as potential motivations of Hong Kong tourists due to lack of solid evidence. It would seem advisable to make an effort in tourism academia to explore what factors motivate Hong Kong tourists to travel, and to examine whether there are more motivations which are not found in the above discussion. Table 2.9 presents the proposed constructs of the push motivation theory for this study.

Table 2-9. Potential constructs of the push factors

Potential constructs	No. of studies	Sources
Push factors		
1. Knowledge seeking	7	Alegre et al. (2011); Božić et al. (2017); Cha et al. (1995); Chen and Tsai (2019); Chien et al. (2012); Huang (2009); Khan et. (2019); Leong et al. (2015); Li and Cai (2012); Park et al. (2019); Prayag et al. (2018); Wang et al. (2016); Yoon and Uysal (2005)
2. Relax	6	
3. Novelty seeking	5	
4. Experience different culture/ experience	5	
5. Prestige	5	
6. Fun and excitement	4	
7. Family & friends togetherness/ socialization	4	
8. Escape	3	
9. Adventure	2	
10. Self-development	2	
11. Travel bragging	1	
12. Visiting family and friends	1	
13. Sport participation	1	
14. Exploration	1	
15. Achievement	1	
16. Nostalgia	1	
17. Personal motives	1	
18. Spiritual motives	1	
19. Physical motives	1	
20. Emotional motives	1	

2.4. Travel attitude

2.4.1. Definition and characteristics of attitude

The term “attitude” is very popular in academia. It is not surprising that attitude as a term or a construct has developed well across different disciplines. Many scholars have contributed some ideas to its meaning. One definition seems to embody the essence of many other definitions and enables scholars to understand the diversity of the attitude concept, that is, “a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way with respect to a given object” (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015, p. 172). In terms of attitude’s characteristics, it is derived from evaluating a particular object, symbol or perspective (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). Second, attitude remains relatively enduring over time. However, attitude is not necessarily permanent; it can change if the existing attitude no longer fulfils the current state of need (Li, Cai, & Qiu, 2016). Third, attitudes can be learned (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015). Attitudes are formed by direct personal experience and influenced by the ideas of reference groups. Ong and Musa (2012) found that an individual’s personality has a great influence on attitude formation. Fourth, attitude occurs within, or is influenced by situational factors, such as specific events, particular times, or circumstances. A specific event, time or circumstance can lead an individual to behave in ways seemingly inconsistent with his/her attitude (Ajzen, 1991). Although attitude is usually regarded as an antecedent of intended or actual behaviour, it is not always compounded with them (e.g., Lam & Hsu, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009). Hence, it is important when understanding attitudes that scholars

consider the situation in which the behaviour takes place, or the relationship between attitudes and behaviour could be misinterpreted.

2.4.2. Concept and structure of attitude

On the question of the concept of attitude, different assessments have been used in the literature, using several terminologies. Researchers have always used the term “beliefs”, “opinions”, or “feelings” to reflect attitudes. It must be admitted that they are not necessarily referring to the same thing, and they are able to be defined by the intensity. A more comprehensive analysis of the attitude concept is found in the work of Shrigley, Koballa, and Simpson (1988). They suggest beliefs are the acceptance of a statement of a set of object’s attributes, and falls into three categories: descriptive, inferential, and informational. A descriptive belief is associated with strong facts, while inferential beliefs are formed by using previously learned relationships. Informational beliefs can be derived from knowledge provided by outside sources, such as Internet. Opinions are expressions of the judgment of an individual about a particular set of facts. It is an evaluation of what is presented to the individual. Feelings are a largely unconscious emotional reaction to the specific object that the individual consumes.

To better measure attitude, researchers have sought to construct models that consider attitude a multi-dimensional concept. Hollander (1981) explains that cognition, affection, and conation are the three traditional components of attitude. Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015) offer a detailed account of how these three

components are formed and defined. The cognitive component consists of knowledge and perceptions about the object. This kind of knowledge and perceptions usually take shape on the basis of beliefs. Individual beliefs that the attitude towards an object involves the evaluation of various attributes, and that finally leads to specific behaviour and outcomes. The affective component includes the feelings and emotions of a person about an object. These feelings can be positive, negative, or neutral. The debate between whether cognitive or emotion comes first in customer's evaluation has been the subject of many psychology studies. Scholars have attempted to examine the connection between cognitive and emotion, and some found that cognitive leads to affective (Oliver, 1993). With that said, an individual cannot hold an affective component without having certain beliefs towards a particular object. In contrast, other researchers have found that the affective state appears to influence cognitive (Pham, Cohen, Pracejus, & Hughes, 2001).

The conative component refers to the tendency that an individual will perform a specific behaviour regarding their attitudes toward an object. Only this component of attitude is visible as the other two can only be inferred. Conation is frequently treated as an individual's actual behaviour and the expression of people's intention to buy (Ajzen, 1991). In tourism research, conation is understood by asking about the overt actions or verbal expression towards particular behaviour (Hsu & Huang, 2012). It is apparent that, an individual is more likely to travel to a destination if he/she holds a positive/favourable attitude concerning a destination. Conversely, if

an individual holds a negative/unfavourable attitude towards a destination, he or she is more likely to have a negative predisposition towards visiting that destination.

In the consumer psychology literature, over the past decade studies on attitude have employed the tricomponent attitude model, but single-dimensional model predominates in tourism studies. In a review of the research on attitude, Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) noted that tourism researchers tend to view attitude as a relatively simple unidimensional concept containing only the affective component. This premise is based on the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein, 1980) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). According to the TPB, attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls toward behaviour affect collectively an individual's behavioural intention. Ajzen (1991) further highlights that simplicity is the key feature of TPB. If more parameters are added to the existing model, it would make the model more complicated and intractable. Additionally, Fazio (1995) states that emotional evaluation is predicted more accurately than the cognitive component. An individual tends to respond more precisely to feelings than thoughts about attitude objects (Verplanken, Hofstee, & Janssen, 1998). In agreement of this notion, a large number of tourism studies have documented attitude as an affective component (e.g., Hsu & Huang, 2012; Huang & van der Veen, 2019; Jalilvand, Samiei, Dini, & Manzari, 2012; Levitt et al., 2017) and advocate that behavioural attitude is corresponded with the behavioural intention and serves as a predictor in examining the relationship between attitude and behaviour.

In summary, the structure of attitude varies across different disciplines. Although the early debates in psychology literature argued that attitude may include both cognitive and affective component, contemporary psychologists suggest that other factors may be set aside, marking these two only components of attitude. They placed emphasis on the three-component structure in which the conative nature is added to supplement other components. On the other hand, tourism experts in the field of tourist behaviour have treated attitude as a single dimension and a dependent variable of affective/emotional state.

2.4.3. Operationalization of attitude

Table 2-8 provides a summary of the measurement items of attitude in the tourism literature and finds that the majority have employed attitude as a purely affective construct, which directly adapts the theories of TRA and TPB. This means, in particular, that each of the other components of TPB, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control, have been largely excluded. The tri-component attitude model is not well distinguished and investigated.

By reviewing the past literature on travel attitude, two measurement methods have been frequently used to guide the empirical study of travel attitude, the semantic differential scale (e.g., from positive to negative) and the unipolar scale (e.g., good, unhappy). Semantic differential scale has been used extensively in previous tourism

studies because it allows respondents to express their opinions more specifically with the help of specific measurements. That helps to establish more accurate and statistically significant findings (Rosenberg & Navarro, 2018). To use a semantic differential scale, respondent has to choose the answer that best indicates his or her attitude towards an object from the set of bipolar adjective scales. From the operationalization stand point (Osgood, 1952), the adjectives used as endpoint labels reflect three dimensions that were universal across cultures and language barriers: (1) evaluation, focus on the value of the object (e.g., safe-dangerous); (2) potency (e.g., high-low, strong-weak); (3) activity (e.g., fast-slow, active-passive).

Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006) test whether TPB is applicable to tourism. They postulated that tourists' travel attitude is a determinant of travel intention. Following Ajzen (1991), attitude was captured by five statements using semantic differential scale, enjoyable-unenjoyable, pleasant-unpleasant, positive-negative, favourable-unfavourable, and fun-boring. Their study provides a sound basis to predict intention to travel by using the affective attitude with semantic differential scale.

Sparks and Pan (2009) incorporate additional factors (e.g., demographic variables, constraints and use of information sources, and destination attributes) into TPB to investigate whether and how these factors influence a potential tourist's travel intention. Attitude was measured on the basis of Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006) by adding one more bipolar adjective, like/dislike. In other studies, Han (2015), and

Han, Meng, and Kim (2017) examined tourists' attitude through four bipolar items, namely pleasant–unpleasant, good–bad, wise–foolish, and beneficial–harmful.

Even though researchers have reached a consensus that the attitudinal evaluation process involves two extremes (either positive and negative), the critique on semantic differential scale is brought up because attitude is equivocal, and an individual can have positive and negative feeling about the same attitude object simultaneously (Peters & Slovic, 2007). Second, sometimes there is no direct opposite of such emotional items (Crites, Fabrigar, & Petty, 1994). A third problem of using bipolar items is that respondents are reluctant to choose negative responses (Alwin, 2007). Finally, as the semantic differential scale is easy to make, the rating of a specific emotion may be dominated by the respondent's overall impression of the concept being rated. It may lead to halo effect (Rosenberg & Navarro, 2018). The abovementioned issues seem like an alternative measurement of affective attitude and are open to address.

Several researchers have attempted to test whether semantic differential or unipolar measures provide better explanation than others of the affective component of attitudes. Peters and Slovic (2007) compare the sensitivity of different measures of the affective attitude component and show that unipolar measures demonstrate a better result than semantic differential scale in explaining intended behaviours. Alwin (2007) reaffirmed the findings of previous studies that unipolar scales have higher reliabilities than bipolar scales.

To minimize constraints the semantic differential scale faces, the number of recent tourism studies on the attitude with unipolar scales is increasing rapidly. Hsu and Huang (2012) attempt to predict mainland Chinese tourists' travel attitudes in relation to travel intention. They measured attitude by six unipolar items (e.g., enjoyable, pleasant, worthwhile, satisfying, fascinating, and rewarding) that began with "From all your knowledge about Hong Kong, you think the visit would be . . .". Using the measurements of Huang and Hsu (2009), Huang and van der Veen (2019) examine the moderating effect of gender on attitude, and intention to visit. Levitt et al. (2017) employs five items to measure the attitudes associated with the intentions of potential food tourists. The present study is undertaken to contribute to the literature on the topic of affective attitude by including a unipolar measure of how attitude should be measured in relation to tourist behaviour.

Table 2-10. Summary of attitude instrument in tourism literature

Attitude instruments	References
<i>All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be</i>	
1. Semantic differential scale	
Enjoyable–unenjoyable	Chien et al. (2012); Lam & Hsu (2004, 2006); Sparks & Pan (2009)
Pleasant–unpleasant	Chien et al. (2012); Han (2015); Han et al. (2017); Jalilvand et al. (2012); Lam & Hsu (2004, 2006); Sparks & Pan (2009)
Positive–negative	Chien et al. (2012); Lam & Hsu (2004, 2006); Letheren, Martin, & Jin (2017)
Favourable–unfavourable	Lam & Hsu (2004, 2006); Letheren et al. (2017); Sparks & Pan (2009)
Worthless–valuable	Jalilvand et al. (2012)
Good–bad	Chien et al. (2012); Han (2015); Han et al. (2017); Jalilvand et al. (2012); Letheren et al. (2017); Sparks & Pan (2009)

Fun–boring	Lam & Hsu (2004, 2006)
Fun/Wise–foolish	Han (2015); Han et al. (2017); Sparks & Pan (2009)
Liked–disliked	Sparks & Pan (2009)
Beneficial–non-beneficial/harmful	Chien et al. (2012); Han (2015); Han et al. (2017)
Attractive–unattractive	Han et al. (2017)

2. Unipolar scale

Fascinating	Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang, (2012); Huang & van der Veen (2019); Li et al. (2016)
Exciting	Huang & van der Veen (2019); Ziadat (2015)
Happy	Huang & van der Veen (2019); Wong et al. (2013)
Relaxing	Huang & van der Veen (2019)
Favourable	Ahn & Back (2018); Chang (2017)
Worthwhile	Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang (2012); Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017); Li et al. (2016); Wong et al. (2013)
Full of fun	Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017)
Pleasant	Chang (2017); Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang (2012); Huang & van der Veen (2019); Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017); Li et al. (2016); Park et al. (2017); Shen et al. (2009); Ziadat (2015)
Enjoyable	Chang (2017); Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang (2012); Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017); Wong et al. (2013)
Rewarding	Hsu & Huang (2012); Levitt et al. (2017); Li et al. (2016)
Satisfactory	Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang (2012); Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017); Wong et al. (2013)
Important	Ziadat (2015)
Attractive	Ahn & Back (2018); Shen et al. (2009); Wong et al. (2013)
Positive	Ahn & Back (2018); Chang (2017)
Good	Park et al. (2017)
Valuable	Park et al. (2017)
Beneficial	Park et al. (2017)
Fascinating	Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang, (2012); Huang & van der Veen (2019); Li et al. (2016)
Exciting	Huang & van der Veen (2019); Ziadat (2015)

2.4.4. Attitude and travel intention

A large mass of literature has centred on the role of travel attitude in formulating travel intention in tourism contexts. According to TPB, attitude results in travel intention (Ajzen, 1991). It is believed that if a tourist's attitude towards travelling to a destination is positive, he or she will have a strong intention towards taking a vacation at a destination.

In some investigations supporting the TPB's postulation, the attitude towards taking a vacation at a particular destination was found to be an important indicator in explaining the likelihood to travel to that destination. In a study by Lam and Hsu (2004) Chinese tourists' attitude is positively correlated with likelihood of travelling to Hong Kong. Behavioural intention can be explained by about half of the variances (50%) of attitude which provides a strong evidence that tourist attitude has an impact on travel intention.

The high power of attitude to predict travel intention has been found in other studies also. Gardiner, King, and Grace (2013) reveal that 80% of beta value (β) can be explained by the attitude – intention relationship. Similarly, Huang and van der Veen (2019) used TPB along with destination image to predict potential Chinese tourists' intention to visit Australia; the results show that attitude has high predictive power ($\beta=0.72$) on visit intention. Seow, Choong, Moorthy, and Chan (2017) found that attitude is significantly connected to intention to participate in

medical tourism in Malaysia, with $\beta=0.67$. Ryu and Jang (2006) found that intention to try local cuisine on vacation is significantly affected by attitude ($\beta=0.76$) only, but not by subjective norms. Some studies have confirmed that travel attitude has a positive and significant impact on travel intention, but the effect can only be regarded as marginal, with the beta value (β) ranging from 0.30 to 0.49 (Han et al., 2017; Jalilvand et al., 2012; Park et al., 2017), and beta value (β) < 0.30 (Goh, Ritchie, & Wang, 2017; Han, 2015; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Sparks, 2007; Ziadat, 2015). Thus, the above cited literature supports the notion that TPB has been regarded as an useful tool to make predictions and explain tourist behaviour.

Conversely, some tourism researchers have reported that attitude towards travel abroad has very little to do with travel intention. Lam and Hsu (2006) show that Taiwanese tourists' attitude toward Hong Kong did not impact their travel intention to this city. They explain that tourists may possess a more utilitarian belief than the hedonic belief in the decision-making process. This finding is similar to Shen et al. (2009), wherein Chinese residents' attitude was not found to have a significant influence on their intention to visit world cultural heritage sites in China. However, the authors did not address the reason behind this. Sparks and Pan (2009) did not find any relationship between Chinese' attitude toward taking a holiday at the destination and the likelihood of travelling to Australia. Similar results were found in the same studies. Quintal, Lee, and Soutar (2010) found that a significant relationship existed between Japanese tourists' travel attitudes toward visiting

Australia and travel intention, but not in the samples of Korean and Chinese tourists. The authors argue that the level of travel experience made a difference to this result. The stronger are the attitudes with experienced tourists, the more likely they are to have a stronger influence on their intentions.

As Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) argue there is nothing in TPB suggesting that attitude needs to make a significant contribution to behavioural intention. The aforementioned studies show contradictory results concerning travel attitude and travel intention, particularly for specific types of tourists. For instance, the attitudes of Taiwanese toward visiting Hong Kong may differ in a number of ways from the Chinese attitude towards taking a vacation in Hong Kong. Moreover, the connection between attitude and travel intention is not made explicit. Some studies confirm the relationship between attitude and travel intention, while some do not. Thus, it may well be that further investigation is required to examine such relationships using different samples, thereby contributing to consumer behaviour research in tourism.

2.5. Behavioural intention

Tourists' behaviour is always predicted by their intentions. In consumer behaviour studies, intention is regarded as more predictive than actual behaviour to understand the human mind. As Jang and Wu (2006) show, the "intentional measure is more effective in many cases than the behavioural measure in capturing a consumer's mindset. Customers may make purchases because of constraints instead of real

preference, such as time convenience, lack of substitutes, and monetary rewards” (p. 52). This statement implies that tourists’ intention accurately captures what they are likely to do. Behavioural intention is defined as “tourists' expectation or anticipation of a future travel to a destination or place for leisure or vacation purpose” (Lam & Hsu, 2006, p.591). More specifically, it could be regarded as the likelihood of an individual’s planned future behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) suggested intention can predict actual behaviour if an individual is motivated and has an opportunity to enact that behaviour.

According to Moutinho (1987), behavioural intention varies with three factors: evaluative beliefs, social factors, and situational factors. Along with this line of thought, it is not surprising that behavioural intention is determined by various psychological or internal variables (e.g., values, attitudes, and motivations) and non-psychological or external variables (e.g., political stability, economic condition, and marketing mix). One approach by Bergadaa (1990) has provided a clue for such understanding. Her cognitive temporal model provides a new direction in conceptualization and utilisation of understanding the decision-making process, particularly behavioural intention. Intention to travel, a category of behavioural intention, is potentially to be framed in this theoretical context. Thus, the cognitive temporal model is particularly useful for researchers to scrutinize the behavioural intention.

Traditional tourist decision making models take into account the whole process of five major stages that forms a behavioural continuum of an action: (1) problem recognition; (2) information search; (3) evaluation; (4) behaviour; and (5) post-behaviour evaluation (Moutinho, 1987). Simply put, traditional models describe a series of steps in which the decision maker should consider all possible internal and external factors that affect the process. However, these traditional models continue to attract criticism on their theoretical assumptions. The main argument against such models is that “none of the existing decision models has been validated by empirical data for service offering” (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005, p. 828). In addition, such models fail to capture the complexity of the decision-making process because of the experiential nature of the tourism experience (Cohen, Prayag, & Moital, 2014). Complexity comes from the fact that tourists make travel decisions and choose travel destinations in a multi-faceted process in which the choices for different elements of vacation involve many external and internal factors.

Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) reviewed and comprehensively analysed existing models of decision-making process and suggested that one of the most under-investigated topics is the role of time and its subsequent behaviour. Essentially, tourists' time perspective plays an important role in the whole process of travel and consumption experience. Bergadaa (1990) proposes a theoretical framework for behavioural intention using cognitive temporal model. Unlike other frameworks for predicting tourist behaviour, her model is more theoretically grounded. Bergadaa's (1990) framework gives “equal coverage to the social and personal time of the

individual, the motivation to act, and the action process” (p. 290). The cognitive temporal model explains a process that evolves from the structures and mindsets of an individual to an action. More specifically, the model involves three stages: (1) building process; (2) cognitive temporal structure; and (3) process of action, where the latter is a condensed form of the former. It is reasonable that the building process in the individual’s mind is formed by his/her education and knowledge received, and events experienced, which contribute to the second stage where the cognitive temporal structure is defined as the individual's temporal consideration towards the past, present, or future. The process of action starts after the individual’s time perspective is associated with the impacts of attitude towards action and motivation. In other words, these two factors are assumed to influence the final decision.

This theoretical framework provides valuable insights into the role of time in the action process – where time perspective is built up as three dimensions and in turn triggers the behavioural intention via motivations and attitudes. As mentioned earlier, travel intention, a kind of behavioural intention, is able to lead to travel action and transforms time perspectives, motivations and attitudes into future behaviour (Bergadaa, 1990). A line of consumer marketing studies found that time perspective in many case is highly associated with certain behaviour (e.g., Garcia & Ruiz, 2015; Philipp, 1992). Unfortunately, very few tourism studies have investigated the importance of the role of travel intention in the time perspective and behaviour relationship. Moreover, travel intention is an under explored area of

tourism (Jang et al., 2009). This study borrows Bergadaa's (1990) model to test whether its applicability can fit in the tourism context.

2.5.1. Operationalization of behavioural intentions

The existing literature has many studies concerning the measurement of behavioural intention regarding intention to travel. Dating back to the 1990s, Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) came up with 13 items on the basis of the previous literature on behavioural intention. In their study, these 13 items are classified into five factors: (1) loyalty to company; (2) propensity to switch; (3) willingness to pay more; (4) external response to problem; and (5) internal response to problem. They reported that loyalty received the highest factor scores, containing five behavioural items: “saying positive things about the company; encouraging others to do business with the company; recommending the company to others; considering the company as your first choice to buy; and doing more business with the company in the next few years” (p. 38). The second highest factor score was willingness to pay, including two items: “continuing to do business with the company even if the price increases somewhat; and paying a higher price than competitors charge for the benefits you currently receive from the company” (p. 38).

In the tourism literature, Baker and Crompton (2000) operationalized behavioural intention as two domains, loyalty and willingness to pay more, based on the study

of Zeithaml et al. (1996). Their results confirmed that behavioural intention is a two-dimensional construct. Thereafter, the vast majority of tourism studies have adopted this scale to measure behavioural intention (e.g., Kumar, 2016; Li & Cai, 2012; Prayag, 2012). While for measuring behavioural intention Baker and Crompton's (2000) scale has been widely used, this approach has been criticized due to difficulties in assessing pre-visit intention, in terms of measurement and conceptual problems. If behavioural intention is operationalized as purely overt behaviours (e.g., frequent purchases or repeat travels), it is not feasible to fully capture behavioural intention because it is inherent and sometimes involves imaginary elements. McKercher and Tse (2012) provide direct evidence for their claim that there is a gap between what tourists say they would like to do and what they actually do. Therefore, Baker and Crompton's (2000) scale cannot be fully applied in this study.

Given that behavioural intention consists of attitude elements, tourism researchers tend to measure travel intention using a simplistic method. Indeed, behavioural intention refers to how much effort the tourist is willing to spend on performing certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), and this is manifested in the tourists' travel intention with regard to the attitude. Huang and Hsu (2009) stated that the attitude is purely affective while intention is conative. Clearly, travel intention can really be known only to the person holding it. Some tourism scholars measure it by asking the tourist himself/herself that they get a true picture of his/her intentions before their actual visit. In the studies discussed above, travel intention has been widely

recognized as the best antecedent to link to tourists' travel intentions. Tourism scholars have measured the construct with a single item (e.g., Jang et al., 2009; Lehto, Douglas, & Park, 2007) or multiple items (e.g., Chaulagain, Wiitala, & Fu, 2019; Jalilvand et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2016; Park et al., 2017; Xie & Ritchie, 2019; Zhang, Gursoy, & Xu, 2017), and many researchers have adopted this method for measuring intention to participate in tourism activities, such as event tourism (Regan, Carlson, & Rosenberger, 2012), bicycle tourism (Han et al., 2017), and wine tourism (Pratt & Sparks, 2014).

2.6. Research gaps

The aforementioned studies raised the possibility that several key research gaps might need to be answered. They are summarized and presented as follows.

Firstly, the term time-perspective is largely ignored in tourism research. Past studies point out that time-perspective is a good indicator of motivation, attitude as well as human behaviour. However, only a handful of studies have investigated those relationships. It is not surprising that the understanding in the underlying mechanism and its implications is still unknown. In addition, many essential frameworks or theories in cognitive psychology field have not yet been applied to tourism. Majority of the existing studies are attempts to examine the applicability without taking consideration of its relationships with other key concepts. Such cases may well militate against the future developments in tourism studies. These are

invaluable areas for research and will increase our knowledge of how time-perspective stimulates tourist behaviour.

Given the existing body of work on time perspective has explored only one or two dimensions, there is a relative paucity of tourism studies which can include the three dimensions simultaneously. As limited knowledge still exists, it may have powerful implications for the future tourism studies through taking a closer look at three dimensions of time perspectives.

Thirdly, travel motivation studies draw heavily on the quantitative approach, and the measurement items are derived from the existing literature. Although such measurement items provide solid background in the theoretical landscape, they are relatively weak in practical and operational implications as travel motivations may vary based on tourist characteristics and situational factors (Hsu & Huang, 2008). Tourists may have various travel motives along the whole journey, and sometimes they are not able to rate travel motivations via a pre-set questionnaire. The implication of this is that much less is known about the measurement of travel motivation, especially those is not easy to conduct survey-based research. According to Cohen et al., (2014), qualitative and mixed method approaches may provide better knowledge of travel motivation being studied, hence, producing a deep insight into how travel motivations are being formed and its interrelationship with others. Thus, a mixed method approach is needed to further provide information on this area.

Finally, travel attitude and its relationship with travel intention have been well studied in tourism literature. The vast majority of tourism studies have studied the relationship between attitude and travel intention, but the results remain elusive and do not lead to a consensus. Thus, it is assumed that the results are not comparable because of deep differences in the research background, sample population, and characteristics of destinations, resulting in lower generalization. Additional work is needed to contribute back to the wider consumer behaviour literature on the relationship between attitude and behaviour.

2.7. Summary

This chapter reviews the existing studies concerning key constructs that have been used in this study. Four key constructs have been highlighted, namely (1) time perspective; (2) travel motivation; (3) attitude; and (4) behavioural intention. The findings of this chapter offer an explanation for an alternative framework for understanding travel intention. In the next chapter, a theoretical model with a summary of relationships among constructs is provided. Additionally, hypotheses are also presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Research hypothesis

3.1.1. Time perspective and travel intention

Time perspective is one of the most powerful influences on almost all aspects of human behaviour (Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004). It is believed that individual behaviour is highly affected by different types of time perspectives. As mentioned in Chapter 1.2, this study follows cognitive approach which looks at the direct relationship between time perspective and travel intention and the mediating processes between these two constructs.

The three types of time perspectives generally help an individual to understand the process of encode, store, interpret, recall experiences, thereby forming of expectations, goals, beliefs, and behaviour (Corral-Verdugo, Fraijo-Sing, & Pinheiro, 2006). In this sense, it can be assumed that when an individual processes one time perspective which becomes the dominant temporal frame, it can motivate formation of a goal and anticipate subsequent behaviour (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). To put it another way, a cognitive temporal bias is attached to one of these three-time perspectives which lead to different behaviours. Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) offered an explanation for this transition and stated that an individual has a need for self-consistency and often behaves in ways consistent with the time perspective. Thus, the theoretical basis of the relationship between time perspective and behavioural intention has been implied that people consider their past behaviours

as a self-expression of themselves and they are more likely to prefer the activities / destinations that have characteristics similar to their time perspective (Shores & Scott, 2007).

In leisure studies, Garcia and Ruiz (2015) confirm that the leisure choice is driven by time perspective. For instance, past oriented people were found to be keener on activities that involve the creation and maintenance of social networks. Present-oriented people are more associated with outdoor activities, such as travel and shopping. Future-oriented people prefer fitness training and self-improvement activities. Similarly Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003) suggest that past-oriented people are more likely to focus on socializing, such as revisiting old neighbourhoods and stopping by to see the place they grew up in. Present-oriented people tend to be more likely to participate in activities that offer the prospects of immediate rewards, whereas individuals with future time perspectives concentrate on personal development activities. Hence, current leisure research findings supported the effect of time perspective on intention to participate in leisure activities.

Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) emphasised the characteristics of three types of time perspectives and their implications for future behaviour. Past-oriented people showed strong interest in reflective, contemplative reconstruction of past experiences. Thus, past oriented tourists are highly encouraged to visit a destination if such destination provides a large variety of nostalgic experiences. Numerous travel related products or destinations, such as culture and heritage sites, festivals,

or historical ruins, serve nostalgic pursuits (Leong et al., 2015). Moreover, outbound travel is a romanticized way to satisfy tourists' craving for a revival of the past (Christou, 2020), which attracts past-oriented tourists. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Past time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel intention.

Although present time-perspective is situated between past and future, it is far less affected by either past experiences or future implications. Individuals who have present time orientation are more favour to focus more on hedonic value, fun and enjoyment (Legohérel, Daucé, Hsu, & Ranchhold, 2009) and excitement (Martin, Gnoth, & Strong, 2009) as they are not dissatisfied with their current lives (Shores & Scott, 2007). Lu et al. (2016) provided a similar argument in which present oriented individuals are dominated by pleasure-seeking impulses and do not think about future implications of their behaviour. In light of the primacy of hedonism among people with present time orientation, this study argues that it will be important for present-oriented individuals to take a vacation when they expect fun and playfulness at the destination. In other words, if a destination offers hedonic happiness of travel-related consumption to present-oriented tourists, it will increase the likelihood of travel intention towards that destination. Furthermore, Han, Lee, and Kim (2018) show that hedonic happiness had an influence on the intentions.

Based on the arguments above, this study believes that present time-perspective leads toward travel intention. Thus, this study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 1b: Present time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel intention.

Individuals who have a future orientation tend to precisely envisage and be goal oriented. They get used to look to the future implications of their present decisions and plan ahead. When formulating distant goals and developing behavioural projects, their decisions are based on the perceptions of what is given and what is received (Lu et al., 2016). From this benefit-based perspective, they have a great preference for undertaking goal-oriented activities, such as personal development activities (Cotte & Ratneshwar, 2003) and knowledge seeking (Garcia & Ruiz, 2015). In this study, it is argued that future oriented tourists are expected to travel if a destination can provide such goal-oriented activities. Some studies have suggested that travel has the potential to create dynamic situations of learning (Roberson, 2018). Moreover, research has shown that travel creates opportunities for tourists to experience foreign cultures, increase knowledge, maintain physical and mental health, and improve the work or academic performance (Petrick & Huether, 2013). As Lu et al. (2016) noted in their model of decision making process, intention is influenced by future time-perspective. Thus, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1c: Future time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel intention.

3.1.2. Travel motivation as mediator

Bergadaa's (1990) cognitive temporal system predicts that as part of the decision-making process, two mediators influence a tourists' intentions to participate in a given activity. These two mediators are motivation and attitude. Kairys and Liniauskaite (2015) state that the time perspective is grounded on cognitive – motivational process and describes the degree of emphasis placed by an individual on past, present, or future time frames. Such time frames are used by individuals for forming expectations and objectives. When a tendency develops to habitually overemphasize one of these three temporal frames, it leads to goal setting or motivation, thereby influencing subsequent behaviour. To sum up, tourists are motivated to travel because they think travel is consonant with their distant time perspective.

In leisure studies, the temporal perspective has been widely examined in relation to leisure motivation, which in turn influences the choice of behaviour or activity. Shores and Scott (2007) show that time perspective dimensions have implications for various aspects of recreation motivation. Garcia and Ruiz (2015) conducted a follow up study of Shores and Scott (2007) to determine the importance of each time perspective on the level of leisure benefits sought. Only future time perspective had positive effects on all benefits sought. The most recent study that has applied

the time perspective to the context of tourism is that by Lu et al. (2016). Although their findings confirm there are positive relationships between time perspectives and travel motivation, the study addressed only the respondents' present time and future time perspective; the past perspective was not included. With reference to the theoretical framework and empirical findings above, it is reasonable to argue that time perspective plays an important role in travel motivation. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Past time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' push-based travel motivation.

Hypothesis 2b: Present time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' push-based travel motivation.

Hypothesis 2c: Future time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' push-based travel motivation.

As travel motivation forms the core of tourist behaviour, examining the role of travel motivation is essential to understand and explain travel intention. However, the majority of studies concerning the motivation – behavioural relationship have been conducted in a post-visit or during destination context (e.g., Jiang et al., 2017; Li & Cai, 2012; Prayag, 2012; Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011; Xie & Ritchie, 2019).

Few studies provide insight into such relationship in a pre-visit destination selection context.

According to the theory of planned behaviour, Ajzen (1991) argued that intention captures the motivational factors that influence behaviour and indicates how hard people are willing to try. This implies that motivation is associated with behavioural intention. Jang et al. (2009) established an integrated model of motivation and how it affects intention. Novelty seeking and travel intention are almost related, indicating that tourists are highly motivated by seeking something that they have never experienced before. In the study of Xu and Tavitiyaman (2018), Hong Kong young tourists expressed that food, destination's reputation and attractions were the most important motivation factors that contribute to travel intention. Wang et al. (2019) concluded that travel motivation is the most determinant for intention to visit a destination after disaster. Fan and Hsu's (2014) findings confirmed that motivation is highly associated with travel intention. This indicates that the greater is the match between travel motivation factors, the more is it likely that tourists will visit the destination. Although travel motivation has been well-studied, its relationship with travel intention still needs to be further investigated (Jang et al., 2009). Given the above discussion, this study proposes that tourists' travel motivation is considered to have influential impact on tourists' travel intention. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 3: Tourists' push-based travel motivation significantly affects tourists' travel intention.

As Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest, the use of mediators provides the potential to access outcome variables to create internal importance. Studies that explore the mediating role of travel motivation in the relationship between time-perspective and behavioural intention are limited. Nevertheless, some evidence from the literature is there supporting the notion that motivation moderates the relationships between behavioural constructs. Studying brand equity in culinary tourism, Jiang et al. (2017) reports that motivation significantly moderates the effect between brand equity and tourists' behavioural intention. In assessing the expectation, motivation, and attitude (EMA) model, Hsu et al. (2010) found that travel motivation mediates the impact of expectation on attitude. Crawford (2018) investigated the applicability of EMA in the hospitality management context, confirming that motivation had a causal sequence between expectations and attitudes. Saribut, Na Nan, and Assarut (2017) found that travel motivation strengthens the positive relationship between previous experience and behavioural intention.

Bergadaa (1990) recommends that motivation has critical mediating effect between time perspective and intention. According to cognitive temporal model, time perspective is significantly related to travel motivation, thereby impacting travel intention. It is assumed that travel motivation facilitates the development of a time perspective and masters its strength to generate travel intention. Drawing on the

discussion above on the various empirical and theoretical evidence, the current study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4a: Tourists' push-based travel motivation mediates the relationship between past time perspective and travel intention.

Hypothesis 4b: Tourists' push-based travel motivation mediates the relationship between present time perspective and travel intention.

Hypothesis 4c: Tourists' push-based travel motivation mediates the relationship between future time perspective and travel intention.

3.1.3. Attitude as mediator

An individual usually considers time perspective as a value orientation that influences attitude (Zimbardo et al., 1997). Time perspective may affect attitude in two ways. First, if an individual adopts a distant time perspective, he or she is more likely to form a specific attitude correspondingly. For instance, attitudes about future oriented behaviours are likely to be derived from the process of thinking all possible future outcomes, considering a distant future is likely to make such attitudes more salient. If the same mindset is active in the moment of behavioural choice, it is likely that attitudes reconstructed in this moment will match attitudes formed earlier (Rabinovich, Morton, & Postmes, 2010). Some studies have

supported that time-perspective is more likely to result in a corresponding attitude (Taciano, Milfont & Gouveia, 2006; Valizadeh, Bijani, Abbasi, & Ganguly, 2018). The second argument refers to locus of control, which proposes that how strongly people feel they have control over situations and experiences in their lives (Gurel, Altinay, & Daniele, 2010). More specifically, if an individual has a sense of frustration or bad feeling towards the past or present life events, he or she is presumably inclined to feel out of control over future events, thus, time-perspective tends to be focused on the past or present. An individual tends to react to the situations he or she encounters. Their conscious responses associated with particular time perspective are a function of behavioural beliefs whether he or she has a positive attitude towards behaviour. Indeed, a holiday vacation offers different experiences and a wide ranges of benefits, which can be viewed as a way to temporarily escape from routine and stressful environments (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Given these, this study proposes that three dimensions of time perspective positively influence tourists' travel attitude. The following hypotheses are then formulated:

Hypothesis 5a: Past time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel attitude.

Hypothesis 5b: Present time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel attitude.

Hypothesis 5c: Future time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel attitude.

A number of studies in a variety of tourism contexts have shown that attitude toward the behaviour leads to tourist intention to travel against the background of the TPB (e.g. Ahn & Back, 2018; Gardiner et al., 2013; Ryu & Jang, 2006). For instance, Hsieh, Park, and McNally (2016) identify attitude as a positive determinant for predicting young Taiwanese's intention to travel to Japan. However, some studies indicated that attitude does not necessarily correspond with travel intention (e.g., Lam & Hsu, 2006; Shen et al., 2009; Sparks & Pan, 2009). Thus, it may well be that further investigation is required to examine such relationship using different samples, thereby contributing to consumer behaviour research in tourism. In the present study, attitude is conceptualized as the travel behaviour, which is corresponding to travel intention. The major difference between attitude and intention is that attitude is purely affective while travel intention is conative in nature. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 6: Tourists' travel attitude significantly affects tourists' travel intention.

Only a few studies have appeared in the literature describing the mediating role of attitude in travel behaviour. Huang and Hsu (2009) reported that travel attitude has a mediating effect on tourist satisfaction leading to revisit intention. Similarly, Lee, Reisinger, Kim, and Yoon (2014) show that volunteers' attitudes towards

volunteering significantly mediates their satisfaction and actual support to the event relationship. Lee, Lee, & Lee (2005) suggest that tourists' positive affects play an important role in conditioning travel intentions because they can lead to certain behaviour. In this regard, attitudes towards visiting a destination is a conditional travel intention, that has been conceptualized as a behavioural predisposition to visit a destination.

Despite the fact that no studies have tested the mediating role of attitude in the time perspective – behavioural relationship, few studies have justified this relationship with empirical evidence in other disciplines. A recent study conducted by Valizadeh et al. (2018) examined such relationship in the environmental discipline. Their model revealed that present and future time perspective have been shown to be significantly formed a positive attitude toward conservation of resources and associated with farmers' participatory behaviour. Individuals with past time perspective did not show a significant association between attitude and farmers' behaviour. Furthermore, the moderating effects of attitude on behaviour were partially confirmed, in which both present and future time perspective were found to be important mediators. With reference to previous literature, this study tests the possible mediating role of attitude toward visiting a destination in the effects of time perspective on travel intention.

Hypothesis 7a: Tourists' travel attitude moderates the relationship between past time perspective and travel intention.

Hypothesis 7b: Tourists' travel attitude moderates the relationship between present time perspective and travel intention.

Hypothesis 7c: Tourists' travel attitude moderates the relationship between future time perspective and travel intention.

3.1.4. Relationship between travel motivation and travel attitude

Up to now, far too little attention has been paid to adequately test the relationship between travel motivation and travel attitude (Pereira, Gupta, & Hussain, in press). Preliminary work on the relationship between travel motivation and travel attitude was undertaken by Gnoth (1997) who proposed a model to explain the process of motivation and expectation (attitude) formation. He claims that a tourist's attitude is built on the basis of his/her internal needs and value system. However, his claim lacks theoretical foundation. Hsu et al. (2010) presented a detailed theoretical explanation on the impact of travel motivation on travel attitude. Drawing upon the theory of planned behaviour, a tourist's attitude towards traveling abroad is developed based on his or her behavioural belief about the travel needs. Their study further showed that the stronger is the behavioural belief about travel motivation, the more likely they are to have a positive and favourable travel attitude. Wong et al. (2013) further provide empirical evidence for the connection between motivation and attitude with the use of the expectation, motivation attitude model. A similar

finding has also recently been made by Prayag, Chen, & Del Chiappa (2018), who found that travel motivation is a contributing factor in travel attitude. However, they stated that much uncertainty still exists about this relationship as their study considered only domestic tourists which may not be suitable for generalising the result to international tourists. Thus, this study formulates the eighth hypothesis on the above arguments.

Hypothesis 8: Tourists' push-based travel motivation has a significant effect on tourists' travel attitude.

3.2. Proposed model

The conceptual model is developed based on previous research on cognitive temporal model framework by Bergadaa (1990). Travel intention is hypothesized to be influenced by push-based travel motivation and attitude toward visiting a destination. These are in turn influenced by various types of time perspective. Specifically, time perspective is hypothesized to have an impact on push-based travel motivation and attitude toward visiting a destination in either positive or negative. Push-based travel motivation also influences travel attitude. Finally, travel intention is reported to affect time perspective directly. The described framework is presented in Figure 3-1.

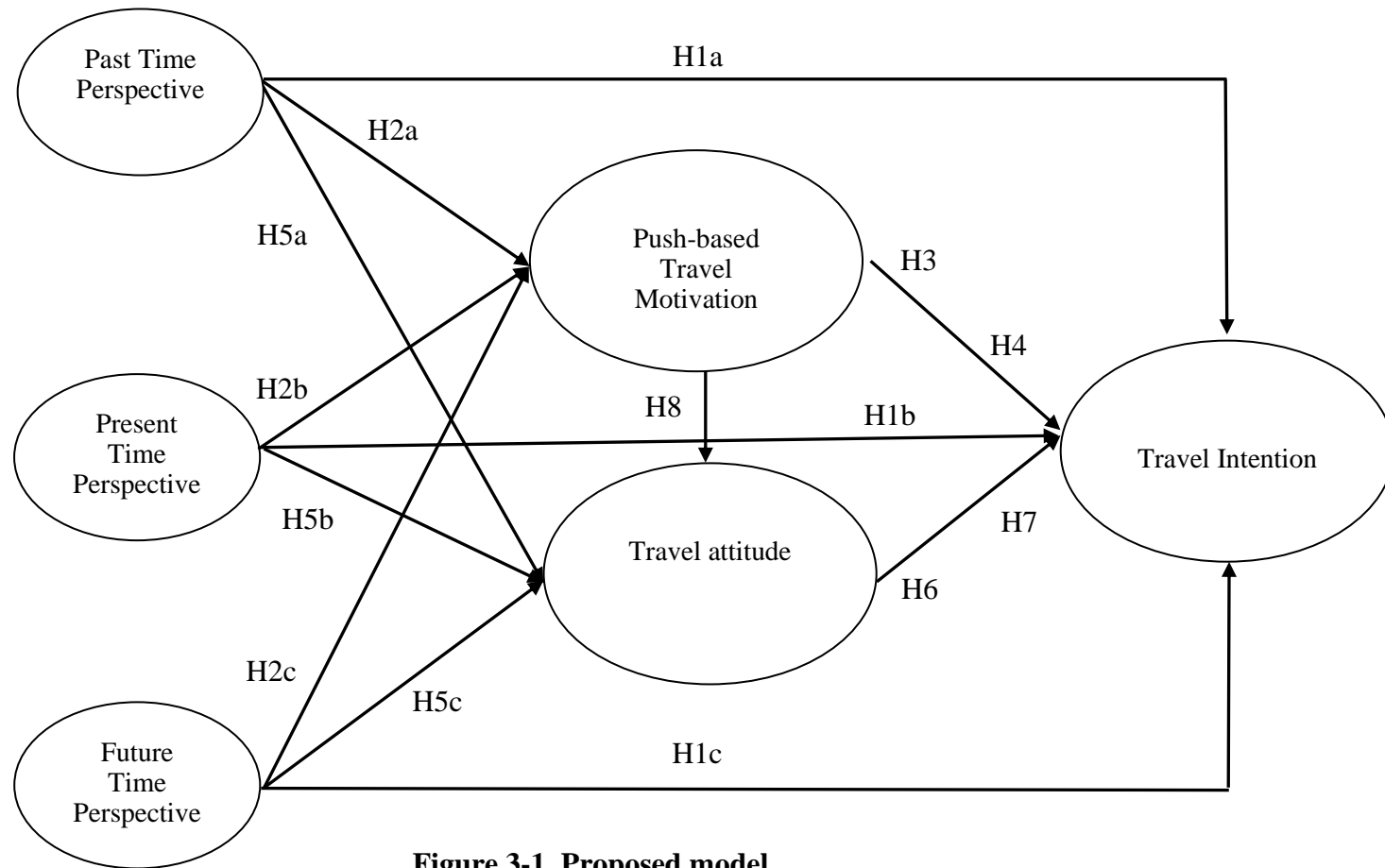


Figure 3-1. Proposed model

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This section describes the methodology and procedure for the data collection. More specifically, research strategies and the research design employed are first discussed and defined. The process of scale development, including research method, data collection method, sample design, selection and data analysis are also highlighted.

4.2. Research strategies

4.2.1. Combining marketing and psychological approaches to tourism

The choice of paradigm determines how knowledge is acquired and interpreted and therefore the chosen paradigm needs to be congruent with underlying aims of the research (Hillman & Radel, 2018). Unlike previous studies, which investigated time perspective from pure sociology or psychology viewpoint, the present study links the psychological constructs (time perspective, motivation, and attitude) to the key marketing construct, travel intention, and uses a quantitative approach in accord with mainstream marketing research. In addition, this study is the pioneer in applying the concept of time perspective to the tourism context. The results of the study may contribute to the theoretical construction of tourist behaviour model, which can be expanded to include tourists' time perspective. According to Hsu, Tsai, and Wu (2009), the extant literature on travel intention has focused on six

domains: psychological, physical, social interaction, seeking/exploration, tangible, and intangibles. This study can highlight the role of time perspective in contributing to psychological domain; therefore, the desirable cognitive psychology objectives could be achieved.

4.2.2. Combination of qualitative and quantitative methods

This study is considered as an exploratory study and therefore it adopts the pragmatism paradigm which combines both, positivist, and constructivism positions within the scope of a single research to best meet my needs and purposes. Therefore, a research strategy combining qualitative and quantitative approaches is undertaken with the research goal being studied.

Although there has been a continuing debate about the benefits and drawbacks of quantitative and qualitative research strategies in the literature, there seems to be general agreement among researchers that there is no single method that can answer all research questions. Therefore, the choice of method depends on the theoretical and practical considerations in relation to research context and objectives being studied.

The advantages of using a mixed method are fully discussed in Creswell (2009) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998). Wheeldon (2010) also suggests that qualitative and quantitative research are complementary methods. The sequential mixed method

approach is proposed in which qualitative approach is first conducted to obtain the latest data from the focus group followed by a phase of quantitative study. In the present study, the sequential mixed method approach is justified for the following reasons.

First, focus group is used to obtain up-to-date insights into tourist perceptions towards time perspective, and travel motivation, and capture specific attributes for the following scale development process. This method aims to minimize the impact of subjectivity of the time perspective and motivation in relation to temporal studies. The flexibility of qualitative research methods may be rewarding in allowing researchers to explore the potential issues occurred in the research progresses and bridge the gap between research context under study and reality (Creswell, 2009). Moreover, the results of qualitative research provide critical information for developing subsequent quantitative research design, which can be helpful in designing and validating an instrument and ensuring that important issues identified from earlier stage are solved. Last but not the least, both methods are used to overcome a weakness in using one method with the strengths of another (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

One of the benefit of a quantitative study is to facilitate theory testing and data synthesizing as each step is standardized to reduce bias when collecting and analysing data (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Second, a quantitative approach allows researcher to compare the findings from different settings and

samples. Additionally, well-established instruments and empirical model can be served as foundation for future study. For instance, the proposed model with valid and reliable measurement can facilitate future study by adding new variables that are not included in this study.

4.3. Research design

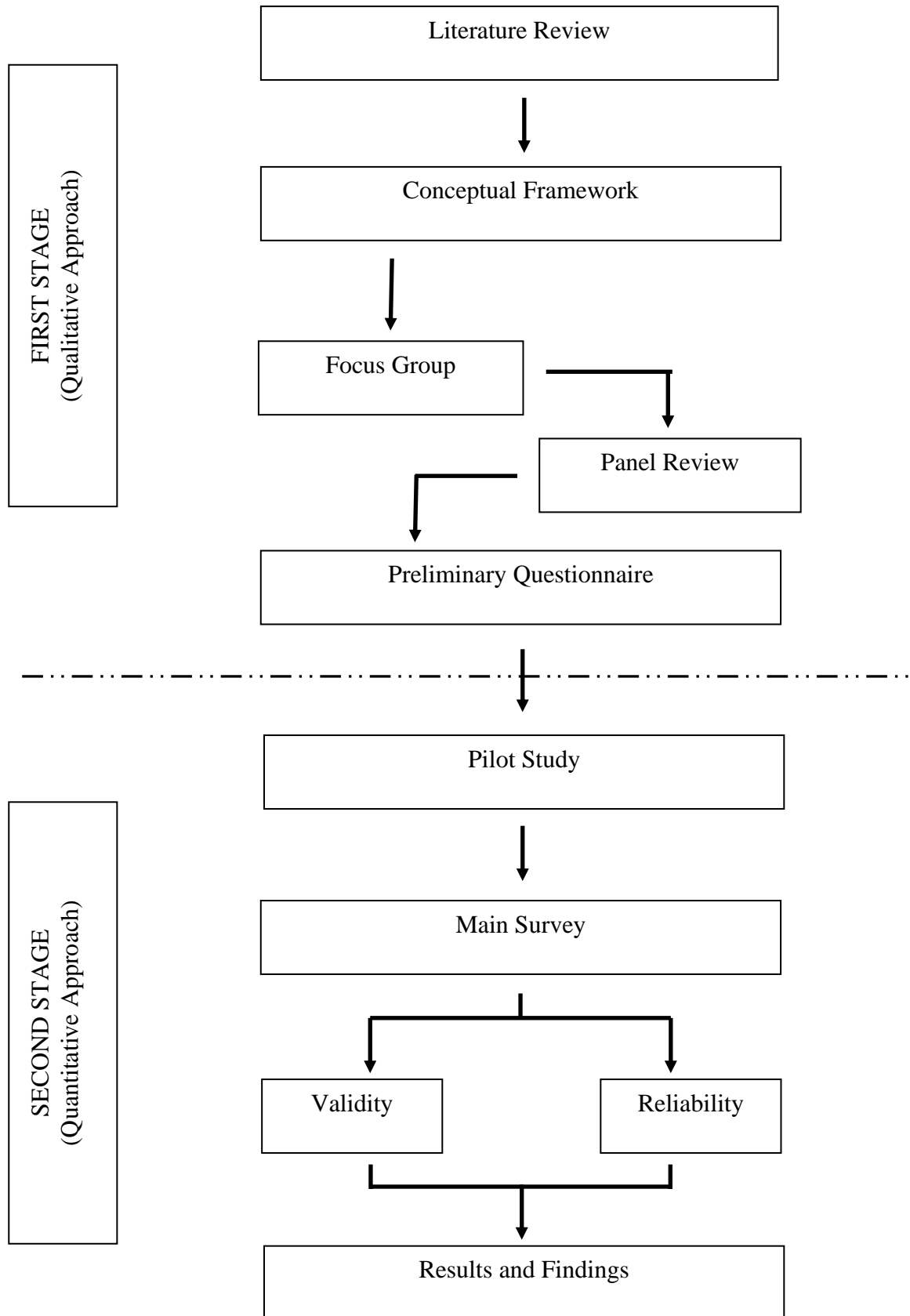
The current study adapts a combination of exploratory research and causal research. Due to the lack of existing tourism studies on the relationship among time perspective, and travel motivation, it is not feasible to fully understand the research problems at the initial stage. Durbarry (2018) suggested that exploratory research is crucially useful to investigate new research area on which few studies have been done. Therefore, the exploratory study was conducted at the first stage. The procedures of this initial stage included three research methods, namely, review of the relevant literature, focus group and expert panel. A thorough review of the relevant literature was conducted to specify the domain of each construct and the relationships among constructs. The results obtained from the literature review were evaluated and transformed into the proposed conceptual model. Due to the outbreak of COVID-19 worldwide, avoiding non-essential trips from home, group gatherings and crowded areas are highly recommended precautions. Furthermore, face masks must be worn in all indoor spaces and when the minimum distance cannot be maintained. This new phenomenon required the author to revisit and consider certain principles and practices when conducting focus group interviews. Dodds

and Hess (2021) present insightful guidelines for online focus group interviews during the pandemic period and highlight several benefits of conducting group interviews online rather than face-to-face. Thus, online focus group interviews via Zoom were conducted.

The second stage involved quantitative research which consists of a pilot study and main survey. The pilot study was used to fine-tune the measurement instrument. Based on results of the pilot study, the instrument was refined for reliability and validity improvement. Finally, a cross-sectional survey among Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months, was conducted. According to Hillman and Radel (2018), a survey with a large sample ensures that the findings can arrive at certain generalizations. The survey method is used because it is relatively effective in collecting information from a larger number of samples, at a low cost, and it is easy to administer (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Taking consideration the requirement for social distancing, it was not feasible to collect data via face-to-face interaction, even though face-to-face survey delivers a more representative result than other research methods (Szolnoki & Hoffmann, 2013). In the seminal study, Wright (2006) pointed out that researchers are able to enjoy several benefits in using online surveys, such as it being timely, low cost, and easy to access for specific populations. To maintain social distancing, Fong, Law, and Ye (2020) recommended that online surveys are an effective and efficient strategy to collect data during the COVID-19 pandemic. Data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 23 and

AMOS 26. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used for item reduction and to identify the dimensionality of the important research concepts. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the goodness-of-fit of each measurement mode. Finally, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to estimate the hypothesized relationships among latent variables and the overall goodness-of-fit of the proposed structural model. The full research procedure is presented in Figure 4-1.

Figure 4-1. Research procedure



4.4. Stage one – Instrument development and questionnaire design

The idea of instrument development significantly contributes to the research design, thereby influencing the research outcomes. Since only a limited number of previous studies have investigated time perspective in tourism studies, it seems that the validity of the Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory is questionable, and thus, the scale cannot be directly applied to the present study. Besides, although the items in measuring tourist motivation have been widely adopted and investigated, the scarcity of studies have explored the Hong Kong tourists' motivation and how it influences tourist behaviour. The validity and reliability of these measurement are questionable. Therefore, stage one aims to develop appropriate measurements to understand tourist motivation particularly for Hong Kong tourists, and further verify the measurement items of time perspective, travel attitude, and travel intention. A literature review was first conducted to discover how the dimensions have been defined previously and how many items they have. The measurement items for each construct were further validated and some were eliminated based on the suggestions and comment obtained from the expert panels.

The scale development process follows Churchill's (1979) suggestions (see Figure 4-2). Churchill's scale development procedure provides well-developed guidelines and a framework to better operationalize, modify, and develop measurement items. The idea of Churchill's (1979) framework is "to unify and assemble the scattered

pieces of information on how measurement could be improved and on how the quality of derived measurements could be accurately assessed” (Zhang, Fan, Tse, & King, 2017, p.65). There have been a number of tourism studies involving Churchill’s method that have used in different research settings. For instance, Huang and Hsu (2010) have developed a comprehensive list of customer-to-customer interactions on cruise experience. Zhang et al. (2017) made an amendment to the original techniques, to develop the social sustainability instruments pool. Table 4.1 presents the summary of the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and previous studies (Huang & Hsu, 2010; Zhang et al., 2017) in the tourism context.

Table 4-1. Suggested procedures for measurement development

Procedures	Churchill (1979)	Huang & Hsu (2010)	Zhang et al. (2017)
1. Specific domain of construct	Literature search	Literature search	Literature search
2. Generate sample of items	Literature search Experience survey Insight stimulating examples Critical incidents Focus group	Literature search Semi-structured interviews Virtual focus groups Expert panel reviews	Literature search In-depth interviews Panel reviews
3. Collect data		Pilot study	Pilot study
4. Purify measure	Coefficient alpha Factor analysis	Coefficient alpha Factor analysis	Coefficient alpha Factor analysis
5. Collect data		Online survey	Telephone survey
6. Assess reliability	Coefficient alpha Spilt-half reliability	Spilt-half reliability	Composite reliability
7. Assess validity	Multitrait-multimethod matrix Criterion validity	Face validity Convergent validity Discriminant validity	Convergent validity Discriminant validity Nomological validity
8. Develop norm	Average and other statistics summarizing distribution of scores	Means Standard deviations	Mean comparison among different groups

Figure 4-2. Measurement development procedure (Churchill, 1979)

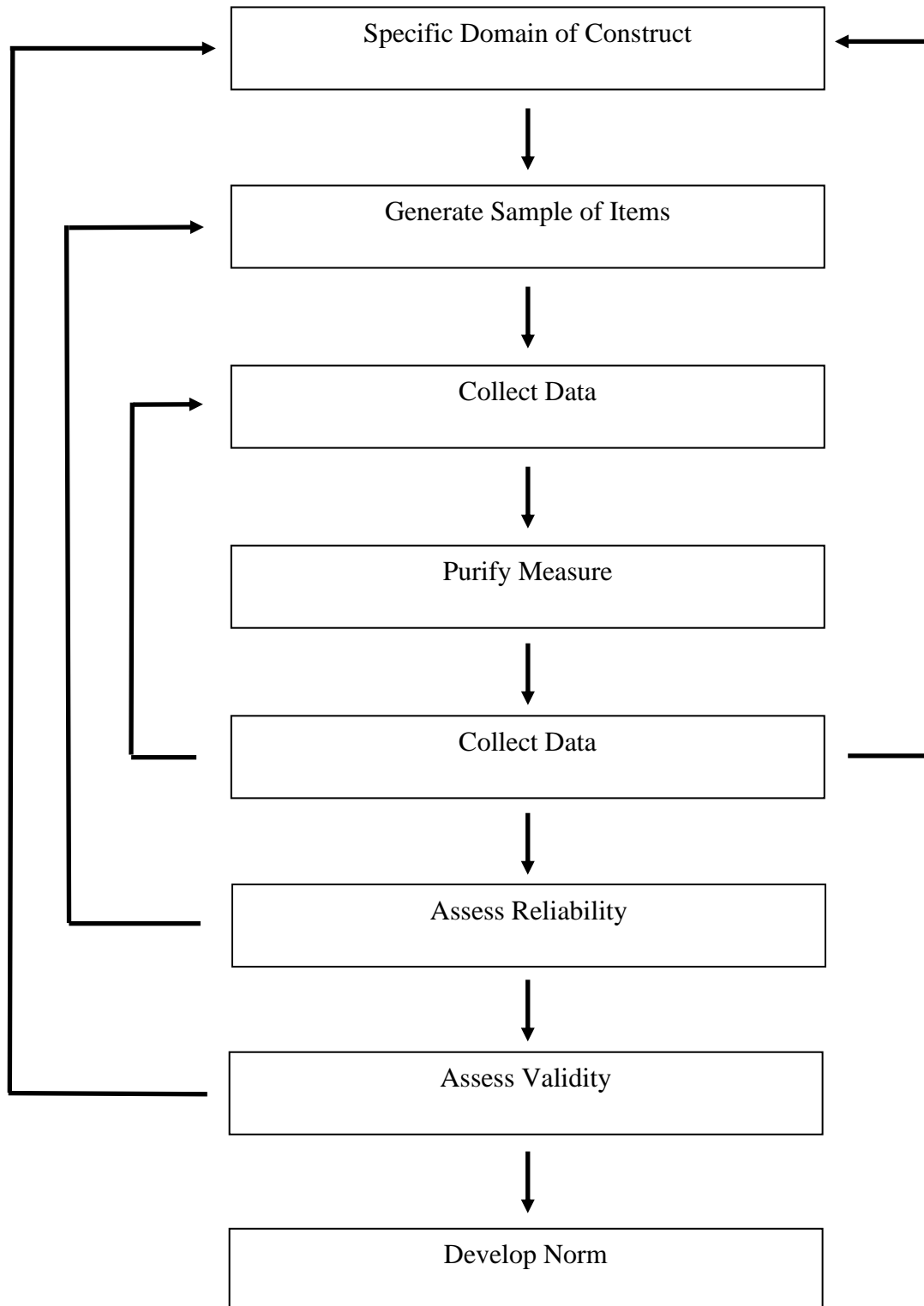


Table 4.2 shows the procedure to be used for scale development. Churchill (1979) recommended researchers following the first four steps to develop initial scales from qualitative research. Based on the results of the first four steps, an initial questionnaire was formulated and used for data collection and analysis. Churchill (1979) also suggested that researchers should be flexible in applying his guidelines. Therefore, this study adapts his framework with some modifications (Huang & Hsu, 2010; Zhang et al., 2017) to steps 2, 5 and 6.

Table 4-2. Measurement development procedures for this study

Procedures	Techniques proposed for the current study
1. Specific domain of construct	Literature review
2. Generate sample of items	Literature review Focus group Panel of review
3. Collect data	Pilot study
4. Purify measure	Coefficient alpha Factor analysis
5. Collect data	Main survey
6. Assess reliability	Composite reliability
7. Assess validity	Content validity Convergent validity Discriminant validity
8. Develop norm	Means Standard deviations

Following Churchill (1979), the first stage, specific domain of construct, has been critically reviewed in the section of literature review. Literature search, two series of focus group interviews and panel review are the key methods used for establishing an initial pool of measurement items. Time perspective, travel attitude, and travel intention are obtained and fine-tuned by panel review. The measurement

of push-based travel motivation is generated by literature search and focus group interviews. Pilot test is performed to identify potential problems in the research instruments before the main survey. The main survey is undertaken to test the proposed conceptual model. The following subsections highlight the key points in stage one.

4.4.1. Specific domain of construct

Churchill (1979) stated that the definitions of each construct being developed should be well defined at the first stage of scale development. The preliminary constructs for time perspective, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention are explained in detail, as follows:

Time perspective: The totality of the individual's views of his psychological future, past and present existing at a given time (Lewin, 1951).

Push-based travel motivation: A dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals (Crompton & McKay, 1997).

Travel attitude: The psychological tendencies expressed by the positive or negative evaluations of tourists when engaged in travelling to a destination (Ajzen, 1991).

Travel intention: Tourists' expectation or anticipation of a future travel to a destination or place for leisure or vacation purpose (Lam & Hsu, 2006).

4.4.2. Generate sample of items

The second step is to generate items for each construct. Extensive search of relevant literature was used to establish the basic theoretical foundation and definition of each construct. Emphasis in the literature search is to discover how the variables have been defined and how many dimensions they contained. Travel motivation gets limited support in relation to Hong Kong tourists; hence they need to be verified by focus group interviews while time perspective, travel attitude and travel intention have been described extensively in existing literature, but there is a need for further validation to fit the current setting via the panel review. Based on the results of literature search, all constructs are conceptualized as reflective constructs. Table 4.3 shows an overview of the sources of measurement development for each construct.

Table 4-3. Sources of measurement development for each construct

Constructs	Instrument sources	Sources
Time perspective	D'Alessio, Guarino, De Pascalis, and Zimbardo (2003), Garcia and Ruiz (2015), and Zimbardo and Boyd (1999)	Literature and panel review
Push-based travel motivation	To be examined and specified based on the results of focus group and panel review	Literature, focus group, and panel review
Tourist attitude	To be examined and specified based on the existing sources	Literature and panel review
Travel intention	To be examined and specified based on the existing sources	Literature and panel review

Literature on time perspective has provided comprehensive and standardized measurement instruments, for example, the Consideration of Future Consequences Scale (Strathman, Gleicher, Boninger, & Edwards, 1994), the Temporal Focus Scale (Shipp et al., 2009), the Future Time Perspective Scale (Carstensen & Lang, 1996), and the Time Attitude Scale (Nuttin, 1985). It has been argued, however, that many of these measures have theoretical and operational limitations, such as low reliability, unstable factor structure, and scoring difficulties (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). Moreover, previous attempts to measure time perspective have mainly focused on just one dimension, with future as the principal dimension of interest. The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI) was developed by Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) to solve the shortcomings of previous scales. ZTPI develops past, present, and future time frames into a five-dimensional scale; past-negative, past-positive, present-hedonistic, present-fatalistic, and future.

The ZTPI is chosen as a time perspective measure for three main reasons: (1) it is a multi-item scale, and one of the few measures that is concerned with the multidimensional nature of time perspective; (2) it comprises more than 20 years of an intensive research program on time perspective; (3) it has been used in several studies across different disciplines and geographical locations, with demonstrated validity and reliability (for example Anagnostopoulos & Griva, 2012; Chan, Kwok, & Fung, 2019; D'Alessio et al., 2003; Shores & Scott, 2007).

The original ZTPI included 56 items. To generate a sufficient response rate, a shortened version of 25 items (five for each TP) is used based on the results (i.e., items with the highest factor loadings) of previous studies conducted in the context of western culture (e.g., D'Alessio et al., 2003; Garcia & Ruiz, 2015) and Asian culture (Chan et al., 2019; J.Lu et al., 2016). The current study adapts ZTPI and follows the instructions provided together with the scale.

Table 4-4. Attributes for time perspective

A short version of The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)	
Positive Past	
1.	On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past.
2.	Family childhood, sights, sounds, smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories.
3.	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.
4.	I get nostalgic about my childhood.
5.	It gives me pleasure to think about my past.
Negative Past	
6.	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.
7.	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.
8.	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake
9.	Things rarely work out as I expected.
10.	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.
Hedonistic Present	
11.	It is important to put excitement in my life.
12.	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what you are doing than to get work done on time.
13.	I make decisions on the spur of the moment.
14.	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.
15.	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.
Fatalistic Present	
16.	Often luck pays off better than hard work.
17.	Fate determines much in my life.
18.	It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway
19.	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.
20.	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.
Future	
21.	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.
22.	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.
23.	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.
24.	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.
25.	I'm able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.

Travel motivation is identified as the best predictor of destination choice (Jang & Cai, 2002). However, limited measurement items have been found associated with

Hong Kong tourists' motivation, the instrument of travel motivation is generated from the focus group interviews. In terms of travel intention, items were adopted from previous studies and were further verified through panel review. In a review of research on attitude, Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) noted researchers tend to view attitude as a relatively simple unidimensional concept containing only the affective component. The present study followed the traditional research stream to apply attitude as an affective construct. Additionally, it is expected that tourists' travel attitude varies from different destinations, therefore, the items for measuring travel attitude towards a destination should also be evaluated by panel review. The following tables present the tentative items for measuring push-based travel motivation, travel attitude towards a destination, and travel intention.

Table 4-5. Potential constructs for push-based travel motivation

Attributes	Source
Knowledge seeking	Alegre et al. (2011); Božić et al.
Relax	(2017); Cha et al. (1995); Chen & Tsai
Novelty Seeking	(2019); Chien et al. (2012); Huang
Experience different culture/ experience	(2009); Khan et al. (2019); Leong et al.
Prestige	(2015); Li & Cai (2012); Park et al.
Fun and excitement	(2019); Prayag et al. (2018); Wang et
Family & Friends Togetherness/ Socialization	al., (2016); Yoon & Uysal (2005)
Escape	
Adventure	
Self-development	
Travel bragging	
Visiting family and friends	
Sport participation	
Exploration	
Achievement	
Nostalgia	
Personal motives	

Spiritual motives
Physical motives
Emotional motives

Table 4-6. Tentative items for travel attitude

Attributes	Source
<i>All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be</i>	
Fascinating	Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang, (2012); Huang & van der Veen (2019); Li et al. (2016)
Exciting	Huang & van derVeen (2019); Ziadat (2015)
Worthwhile	Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang (2012;) Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017); Li et al. (2016); Wong et al. (2013)
Pleasant	Chang (2017); Hsu et al. (2010); Hsu & Huang (2012); Huang & van der Veen (2019); Huang & Hsu (2009); Levitt et al. (2017); Li et al. (2016); Park et al. (2017); Shen et al. (2009); Ziadat (2015)
Attractive	Ahn & Back (2018); Shen et al. (2009); Wong et al. (2013)
Good	Park et al. (2017)
Interesting	Park et al. (2017)
Wise	Han (2015)
Arousing	Sparks (2007)

Table 4-7. Tentative items for travel intention

Attributes	Source
Likelihood to travel abroad in next 12 months	Lam & Hsu (2006)
Intend to travel abroad in next 12 months	Lam & Hsu (2006); Zhang et al. (2017)
Want to travel abroad	Lam & Hsu (2006); Zhang et al., 2017)
I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	Park et al. (2017)

4.4.3. Focus group interviews

4.4.3.1. Focus group interview structure

Using focus group interview at the earlier stage is a systematic approach for obtaining insights about respondents' ideas, views and experiences (Hillman & Radel, 2018). Focus group interview is simply defined as “ a structured and focused discussion with a small group of people, run by a facilitator (moderator) or using a moderating team to produce qualitative data through a set of open-ended questions” (Masadeh, 2012, p.63). The term “focus” represents that the group is purposively formed to give a discussion on a specific topic rather than broad generalities (Brotherton, 2015). Focus group is used for two reasons. The primary reason is used for preliminary exploration of a topic that is currently under explored. More specifically, the focus group interviews aim to obtain in-depth information describing Hong Kong tourists' motivations of visiting a destination. Another reason is survey instrument drafting (Hillman & Radel, 2018).

The focus group interviews consist of three sections. Section one to get informants warm up with the topic and make them recall their recent trip experiences. Section two asks informants to talk about the reason(s) for visiting a destination and experiential feelings about the trip. Probing questions are also used for finding out more detail and checking against the information they shared. Once respondents are agreed to join the focus group, an interview guide with questions will be distributed in-advance. Table 4.8 highlights an overview of the focus group interviews.

Table 4-8. Focus group interview structure

Sections	Structure	Section focuses
1. Warm up	Unstructured	Recall recent travel experience outside Hong Kong
2. Push-based travel motivation	Semi-structured	Express the reasons for visiting a destination

4.4.3.2. Data collection

With reference to the purpose of the study, all focus group interviewees were Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months. To recruit participants, an announcement was posted on one Facebook travel group (flyagainla) in May 2020. This is to briefly introduce the general research topics and invite respondents to join focus group discussions. Flyagainla was selected for the following reasons. First, it is especially established for Hong Kong outbound independent tourists. It is the largest user generated online travel community in Hong Kong, providing the most up-to-date travel diaries, information, and tourism services at various destinations. As of May 01 2020, Flyagainla had over 111,100 members, representing approximately 2% of the total number of social media users in Hong Kong (Datareportal, 2020). Secondly, Flyagainla users tend to provide rich information about their trips. Most of the shared content is presented in both digital diary and textual format. Thirdly, Flyagainla is a highly interactive online community. Any Facebook users, including researchers, can approach the online sharers and enquire about issues. To address socioeconomic differences,

interviewees from different income and education levels, age, and occupation were considered.

Following Hillman and Radel (2018), two rounds of focus group interviews were conducted to achieve valid and useful outcomes. Each group consisted of 4 – 5 respondents. An interview guide including interview questions, invitation link, and initial questionnaire aiming to understand respondents' time perspective were sent to the respondents in advance (see Appendix 2 & 3). This approach enables researchers to prepare the discussion questions and find out potential issue in advance (Hillman & Radel, 2018). The first-round interview was held on 14 June 2020, and the second-round interview on 21 June 2020. Both interviews were conducted in respondents' mother tongue via Zoom. Each session was recorded and transcribed.

4.4.3.3. Data analysis

The purpose of qualitative data analysis is to find out patterns that constitute themes in the data. Content analysis is performed to systematically analyse and organize the interview data. Vaismoradi, Turunen, and Bondas (2013) define content analysis as “a systematic coding and categorizing approach used for exploring large amounts of textual information unobtrusively to determine trends and patterns of words used, their frequency, their relationships, and the structures and discourses of communication” (p. 400). More specifically, considering the nature of research

and research purposes mentioned in stage one, the focus group interview data are analysed with the inductive approach. Elo and Kyngäs (2008) suggest that if there is not enough existing knowledge about the phenomenon or if this knowledge is either scattered or incomplete, the inductive approach is recommended. It has been noted that the inductive approach looks for meaningful pattern in the data and developing a theory that can explain those patterns.

Many scholars have provided precious and clear frameworks for content analysis. For example, Elo and Kyngäs (2008) introduced three practical procedures for performing content analysis, namely preparation stage, organizing stage, and reporting stage while Creswell (2009) suggested content analysis involves four stages: (1) organize and prepare the data; (2) read through all the data; (3) coding; (4) generate descriptions. Braun and Clarke (2006) also developed a six-stage analytical framework. Table 4.9 presents a summary of previous studies on the topic of analytical framework for content analysis. Detailed suggested actions and implications to guide this study are also listed.

Table 4-9. An overview of the qualitative data analysis process

Elo and Kyngäs's data analysis (2008)	Creswell's data analysis (2009)	Braun and Clarke's data analysis (2006)	Suggested action
Preparation	Organizing and prepare the data Read through all the data	Familiarizing with data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Getting transcript ready ➤ Reading and re-reading the transcript to get familiar with ➤ Selecting the unit of analysis
Organizing	Coding the data	Generating initial codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Open coding and creating categories ➤ Coding interesting features of the data
		Searching for themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Collating codes into potential themes ➤ Gathering all data relevant to each potential theme
	Generate descriptions	Reviewing themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Reviewing if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set
		Defining and naming themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Grouping codes under higher order headings ➤ Generating a thematic map to understand the inter-

Reporting	Producing the report	<p>relationship to build up a coherent pattern</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Define and redefine the terms for theme ➤ Verifying by cross checking all the information ➤ Reviewing all coding and themes (main themes and sub-themes) ➤ Generalizing relationships within data ➤ Reporting the findings
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4.4.4. Panel review

To ensure content validity and strengthen the quality of preliminary measurement items, a group of tourism experts was invited to provide recommendations for improvement (DeVellis, 2003). The expert panel included five researchers experienced in the research of tourist behaviour (content experts) and five Hong Kong tourists who had travelled abroad at least five times within 24 months (lay experts). Measurement items are first evaluated by five experienced Hong Kong tourists. The measurement items that survive will then be reviewed by the five researchers.

4.5. Stage two – Pilot test and main survey

4.5.1. Pilot test

A pilot test was administered to pre-test the adaptability of the preliminary questionnaire before the main survey. Pilot testing allows researchers the opportunity to address potential problems and provides room for improvement of a study's design prior to conducting a full-scale study (Jennings, 2001). It should be noted that the optimal pilot test sample size varies across research contexts. Hill (1998) suggested the sample size of a pilot study should be between 10 and 30. Likewise, Johanson and Brooks (2010) found that the number of respondents between 24 and 36 is sufficient for a pilot study. As suggested by Alreck and Settle (2004) and Connelly (2008), a pilot study sample should be at least 10% of the

sample planned for the main study. Therefore, the present study follows Alreck and Settle (2004) and Connelly's (2008) suggestions.

Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months are considered the target population. Since the outbreak of COVID-19 in Hong Kong, it was not feasible to collect the data by face-to-face interview. So, an online survey was used with snowball sampling from 02 August to 16 August 2020. An invitation with survey URL was sent to those who agreed to participate the online survey by instant messaging applications via researcher personal network. Next, each respondent was asked to nominate others for inclusion in the survey process. The use of snowball sampling made the collection process economical and efficient and maintain social distancing. However, this approach does involve potential measurement bias. Perhaps the most serious potential limitation is that researchers make little effort to control sample composition. Respondents are more likely to share the survey to those who have similar demographic features as researcher, such as age, gender, and education level. In order to overcome the potential problem of representativeness, it is encouraging to compare the results of demographic profile of the respondents with that conducted by the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2020a). A descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were carried out to fine-tune the instrument for the main survey. Potential problems and misunderstand of questions can be used to improve the survey's quality.

4.5.2. Main Survey

4.5.2.1. Sample population

The sample population of the present study included Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months. Hong Kong residents were chosen as the context for several reasons. First, there is no significant domestic travel in Hong Kong due to the insufficient domestic resort area. It is not surprising that Hong Kong residents have reason to undertake overseas travel to enjoy their holidays. Recent statistical data show that Hong Kong is the 4th largest outbound market in Asia after China, South Korea and Taiwan (World Tourism Organization, 2018). According to statistics provided by Hong Kong Tourism Board (2019), Hong Kong residents undertook more than 94 million overseas trips in 2019, which represents a significant growth from 80.6 million in 2007 (see Table 4.10). It is important to note that the Hong Kong population was around 7.52 million in 2019 (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2020a). This accords with MoveHub's (2020) findings and shows that each Hong Kong tourist took an average of 11.4 international trips in 2017. Secondly, given the long working hours, high levels of stress, and unaffordable housing, Guillet, Lee, Law and Leung (2011, p.559) noted that “overseas travel has become a way of life for many Hong Kong residents”, implying that outbound travel is the necessity of life for Hong Kong residents. Fourthly, Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) show that ZTPI was built and validated in individualistic societies and therefore special attention has been paid to individualistic values, thus, a collectivist society, like Hong Kong, has not been

examined yet. As Hong Kong prioritizes the needs of group achievement over the needs of an individual as a whole and was born in a sophisticated fusion of East and West, Hong Kong tourists may have different interpretations and behaviours related to time. Finally, Law, Cheung and Lo (2004) have argued that Hong Kong tourists have a reputation for being big spenders, and this has made Hong Kong tourists an attractive market for many destinations. The gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in Hong Kong increased from US \$36,340 in 2012 to US \$46,193 in 2017, and was the fourth highest in the Asia-Pacific region that year after Macau, Singapore, and Australia (World Bank, 2019). In 2019, Hong Kong tourists contributed US \$26.88 billion in terms of international tourism expenditure associated with outbound tourism (World Tourism Organization, 2021). Therefore, Hong Kong residents should be one of the appealing segments to destination management organisations worldwide.

**Table 4-10. Hong Kong resident departures by mode of transport 2003 –
2019**

Year	By air	By sea	By road	Total
2019	12,968,194	5,042,736	76,704,031	94,714,961
2018	12,681,474	6,939,915	72,592,443	92,213,832
2017	12,127,560	7,223,895	71,952,195	91,303,650
2016	11,285,453	7,568,245	72,904,633	91,758,331
2015	10,442,907	7,747,163	70,891,947	89,082,017
2014	9,222,535	7,511,402	67,785,441	84,519,378
2013	8,596,408	7,733,601	68,083,539	84,413,548
2012	7,808,890	7,961,725	69,505,403	85,276,018
2011	7,130,199	8,356,745	69,328,973	84,815,917
2010	6,824,377	8,260,078	69,357,996	84,442,451
2009	6,321,528	8,041,246	67,595,508	81,958,282
2008	6,223,732	8,768,330	66,918,641	81,910,703
2007	6,140,837	8,870,013	65,670,824	80,681,674
2006	5,739,136	7,931,970	62,140,675	75,811,781
2005	5,456,448	7,365,666	59,477,783	72,299,897
2004	5,341,402	7,254,453	56,307,578	68,903,433
2003	4,529,552	6,779,382	49,627,148	60,936,082

Source: Hong Kong Tourism Board (2019)

4.5.2.2. Sample size

One of the main questions in planning methodology is the decision about sample size. It is commonly agreed that increased sample size produces smaller sampling errors and great explanatory power for statistical analysis. According to Nunkoo (2018), the consideration of sample size depends on the following statistical issues:

- the confidence level;
- the margin of error;
- the statistical analyses to be used;
- the size of the target population; and
- how many variables are being analysed.

The sample size determination methods have been widely discussed in many books, such as Cochran (1977) and Singh and Chaudhary (1985). Cochran's (1977) formula is the most popular approach used in the field of tourism (Nunkoo, 2018) because the formula considers majority of the statistical issues listed above. The Cochran formula is:

$$n_0 = \frac{z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

where

z = standard error associated with chosen level of confidence (95%, $z = 1.96$)

p = estimated variability in the population (50%)

$q = (1-p)$

e = acceptable error (desired accuracy 95%)

Based on the formula above, the minimum sample size for this study should be at least 385.

Hair et al. (2010) provides an extensive discussion of how many units are needed to generate sufficient representativeness of a sample for using SEM. They suggest that a rule of thumb should be ten times per measurement item and the optimum sample size is more than 500 cases. Schumacker and Lomax (2010) surveyed the literature and proposed that a sample size between 250 and 500 is sufficient to get a meaningful result. Indeed, SEM usually involves a large sample size. Nunkoo (2018) recommended a sample size of 151 – 400 for using SEM. Based on the Cochran's (1977) estimation and the results of literature search, sample sizes should be within in the range of 151 – 500. Therefore, a minimum sample size of 500 is proposed to ensure reliable results.

4.5.2.3. Data collection

It should be noted that a street survey with face-to-face interviews at different public areas in Hong Kong was originally proposed, and this approach had been approved by the research committee. Owing to the COVID-19 pandemic though, collecting data on the street was not feasible. As Fong, Law, and Ye (2020) suggested, an online survey is the best option during the pandemic while social distancing. Consistent with pilot study, an online survey with snowball sampling was used for the main survey. In addition to snowball sampling, this study followed Lau, Chui, Lin, and Chan's (2019) data collection approach in which an online survey was posted on various social media channels based in Hong Kong. Table 4.11 showed

the selected Hong Kong online travel communities. These Facebook pages and online forum are widely used and popular in Hong Kong. The researcher first contacted that online travel communities' administrator to request permission for posing an online questionnaire. After the request was approved, the researcher created a post (invitation) with the attachment of an online survey on social media channels from 1st September to 17th December 2020 (See Appendix 6). To get respondents to want to complete the survey, the researcher was engaged in the discussion in the post and created a post every week. This helped improve the response rate because the researcher can briefly introduce the research topic and the rationale of the survey and increase the post visibility as "hot topic," which is often shown at the top of social media content. Moreover, the "tell me how you feel and I will tell you who you are" approach was used, where the results of the respondents' time perspective were sent back to the correspondent respondent. So, they were able to know their correspondent's time perspective which further understand how their inner experiences organize their visible behaviour.

Table 4-11. Distribution channels: Facebook pages and online forum

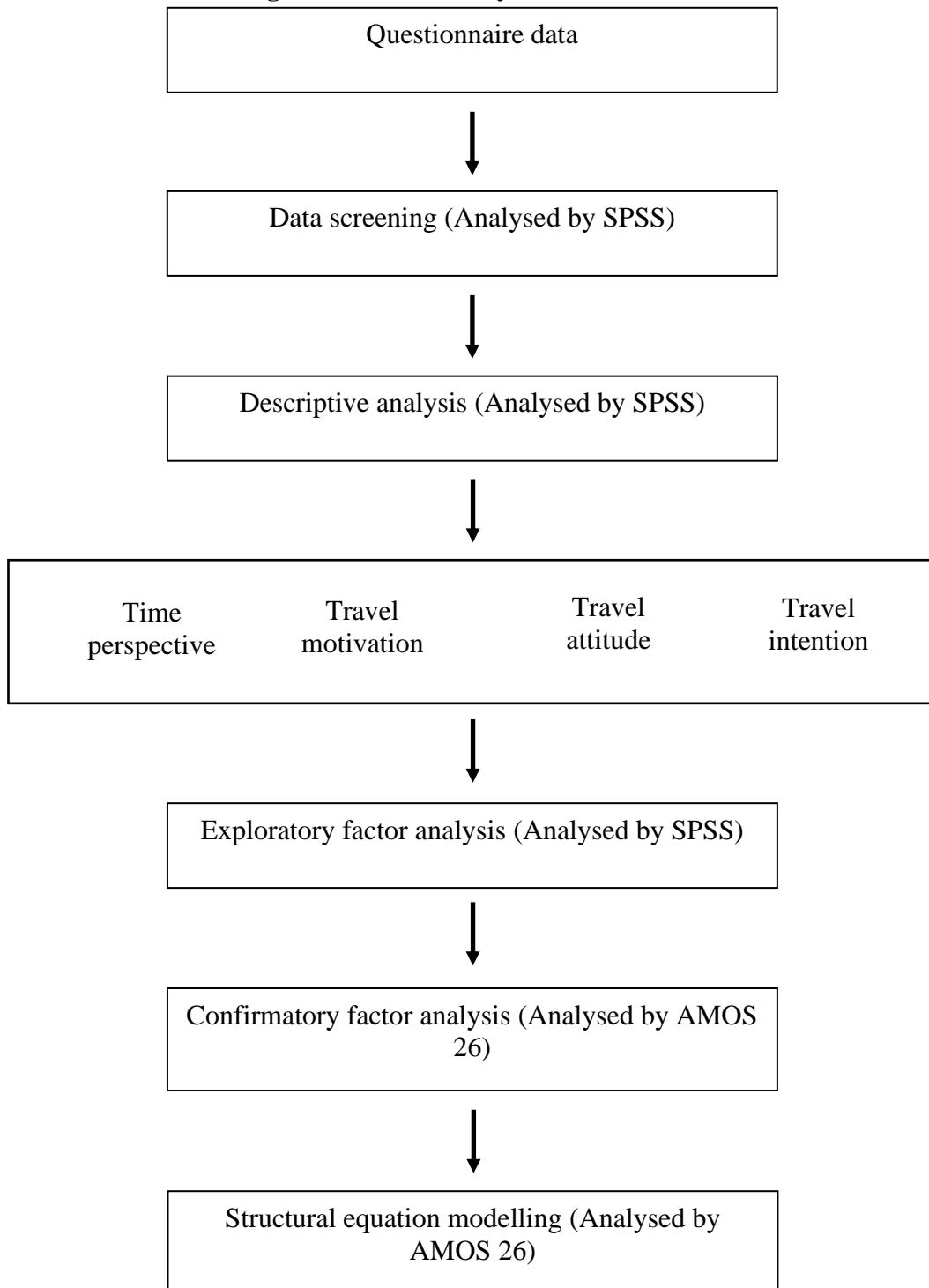
Facebook pages	Number of followers / members
Flyagain.la https://www.facebook.com/groups/flyagainla	110, 294 members
Online forums	Rank in global internet engagement
Hong Kong Discuss Forum https://www.discuss.com.hk/	1150 (no. 1 in Hong Kong)
LIHKG https://lihkg.com/category/1	2280 (no. 2 in Hong Kong)

4.5.2.4. Data analysis

4.5.2.4.1. Analysis framework

Raw data was entered in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for initial statistical processing. Normality test and descriptive analysis were used to examine the normality, profiles of respondents, and means score of each item. To ensure the factor structure stability, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to identify the factor structure of each latent construct, while confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was tested the fit of overall measurement model after latent construct are confirmed in earlier stage. Finally, the hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling (SEM). AMOS 26 was used to supplement with SPSS, particularly with the use of CFA and SEM. The data analysis framework is presented in Figure 4-3.

Figure 4-3. Data analysis framework



4.5.2.4.2. Assessing reliability and validity

Regarding the procedure of scale development, the fourth is to verify reliability and validity. Reliability and validity are the primary concerns when developing reliable and valid measurement items, a more detailed account of reliability and validity are given in the following paragraphs.

- Reliability

Reliability refers to “the degree to which measures are free from error and, therefore, yield consistent results” (Zikmund, 2000, p.280). According to Zikmund (2000), two methods have been widely adopted in order to examine reliability, namely test-retest, and internal consistency. The former involves mastering the same scale twice over a period to a group or individuals to test for stability, while the latter concerns whether the same construct produce similar results. Hair et al. (2010) state that the second approach is more common, which applied the consistency of respondent’s responses across the items on a multiple-item measure. The most common measure of internal consistency used by tourism researchers is Cronbach’s alpha (Nunnally, 1978). Hair et al. (2010) propose that Cronbach’s alpha is preferably assessed at two levels: item reliability and construct reliability. Item reliability refers to “the amount of variances in an item due to underlying construct rather than an error and

can be obtained by squaring the factor loading” (Chau, 1997, p. 324). Construct reliability or composite reliability refers to the measure of internal consistency of an observed instrument representing an underlying factor (Nusair & Hua, 2010). Technically speaking, low coefficient between items yields low internal consistency, whereas high low coefficient between items indicates high internal consistency. The general rule of thumb is that Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.60 to 0.70 are acceptable in exploratory study, a value of 0.70 and above is good, 0.80 and above is better, and .90 and above is best (Nunnally, 1978).

- Validity

An empirical research reliance on reliability alone is not adequate. For a test to be reliable, it also needs to be valid. Validity is “the degree to which a measure accurately represents what it is supposed to” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 7). It is expected that well-developed research objectives with solid theoretical framework provide high accuracy of research outcomes. Hair et al. (2010) strongly recommended that the validity should be estimated by three tests: content validity, criterion validity and construct validity.

- a. Content (face) validity

Content validity is the “assessment of the correspondence of the variables to be included in a summated scale and its conceptual definition” (Hair et al., 2010, p.

92). This type of validity appears to be measuring a representative sample of the subject matter or behaviour under study through a systematic review of related literature and through expert panel. Hair et al. (2010) recommended that content validity is to be established prior to any theoretical analysis. It is not reasonable to develop and precisely specify a measurement model without prior understanding of the intended construct's meaning.

b. Criterion validity

Criterion validity refers to “the ability of some measure to correlate with other measures of the same construct” (Zikmund, 2000, p.282). There are two main types of criterion validity: concurrent validity and predictive validity. The former is measured at the same time as the construct, while the latter is measured at some point in the future (after the construct has been measured). Among these two different methods, it is recommended that concurrent validity tends to generate higher validity coefficients than predictive validity because the passage of time will tend to attenuate correlations between the two sets of scores (DeVellis, 2003). To measure criterion validity, correlation coefficients are widely adopted.

c. Construct validity

Construct validity states that the results of a measure should correspond to other valid measures of the same concept (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, construct

validity is determined by the levels of estimate accuracy between factors. Empirically, convergent validity and discriminant validity are used to be confirmed construct validity. Convergent validity refers to “the scale correlates with other psychological measures to which it is conceptually similar”, while discriminant validity refers to “the scale does not correlate with measures to which it is conceptually dissimilar” (Piedmont, 2014). Concerning the interpretation of convergent validity and discriminant validity, it is useful to think of convergent and discriminant measures as being on a continuum. Practically speaking, strong intercorrelations among items and constructs are evidence in support of convergent validity, whereas a low correlation indicates good discriminant validity. Average variance extracted (AVE) is often considered as the best indicator to verify convergent and discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Convergent validity is adequately supported if AVE is 0.50 or above, while discriminant validity is confirmed if AVE estimates between two factors is higher than the square of the correlation coefficient between the two factors.

4.5.2.4.3. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

The central idea of EFA is to identify the underlying factor structure among the variables. EFA is to define the data structure about how many factors are emerged to best describe the data pattern. EFA is a data driven approach without fully considering the applicability of theoretical groundwork. Hair et al. (2010) suggested the determination of factor extraction in EFA should be reached in the following

criteria: (1) factors with an eigenvalue higher than 1; (2) the total explained variance should be 60% or higher; (3) factor loading should be at least 0.50 or higher; and (4) cross-loadings cannot be higher than 0.40.

Indeed, EFA is not a robust method, whereby the factors are extracted from the data, not from theory. In other words, EFA is a data driven approach. Researchers can only label the factor after EFA is executed. Hence, Costello and Osborne (2005) recommend that EFA is best employed to be associated with CFA that “can allow researchers to test hypotheses via inferential techniques, and can provide more informative analytic options” (p. 8).

4.5.2.4.4. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

The identified factor structure derived from EFA is tested by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the validation sample. CFA is employed to test “how well the theoretical specification of the factors matches reality” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 669). In other words, CFA is a theory driven approach which is not same as EFA. CFA allows researchers to either confirm or reject proposed theory or model.

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) provide an extensive discussion of the application of CFA. According to their suggestions, the measurement model should be empirically tested prior to testing the structural model. The former model examines the effects of latent variables on their indicators, while structural model estimates the

relationships among latent variables as posited by theory. Following two-step modelling approach, CFA will be first applied to confirm and test proposed constructs, and then followed by testing structural model.

The decision to either confirm or reject the measurement model is accessed by the overall model fit. Some measures are considered as reliable goodness-of-fit indices based on previous studies (e.g., Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hair et al., 2010). These indices include chi-square (χ^2), nonnormed fit index (NNFI), relative fit index (RFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (INF) and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The measurement model will then be modified and improved based on Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) suggestions if necessary. Finally, the overall measurement model will then be examined by reliability tests and validity tests in accord with guidelines from the previous literature.

4.5.2.4.5. Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) has now received a strong attention from tourism studies as the most popular statistical analysis (Assaf, Tsionas, & Oh, 2018). SEM aims to analyse the structural relationships between variables and latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010). By nature, this multivariate statistical technique is the bundle of factor analysis and a series of multiple regressions (Kline, 2011). Hence, SEM is “the most appropriate when a study deals with multiple latent constructs,

with each one of the constructs represented by several observed and measurable variables” (Nusair & Hua, 2010, p. 316).

After the measurement model is identified and confirmed, the structural model is tested to identify the causal relationship with each variable by path analysis. The structural model fit is examined following goodness-of-fit indices as CFA.

4.5.2.4.6. Assessing model fit

As discussed, model specification is estimated using goodness-of-fit indices. Model fit represents the degree to which an observed data fit the relationships proposed in a hypothesized model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). There are many and different fit indices scholars employ to assess CFA and SEM. Generally, these indices are grouped into two categories: absolute model fit indices (χ^2 , GFI, RMSR, SRMR and RMSEA) and incremental fit indices (NFI, CFI, TLI and RNI) (Hair et al., 2010). The former indices determine how far a hypothesized model is from perfect fit, and the latter indices test the fit between hypothesized model and alternative baseline model (i.e., a model with the worst fit) (Hair et al., 2010). Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) commented that “for practical purposes, results of the Chi-square test used in conjunction with RMSEA, SRMR, GFI and CFI indices should be more than sufficient to reach an informed decision concerning the model’s overall fit” (p. 88). However, Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar, and Dillon (2005) suggested that GFI should be avoid as it is largely depend on sample size. They have also recommended

that, of the GFI, the TLI should be the index of choice. Thus, RMSEA, RMR, CFI, and TLI were adopted in this study. Table 4.12 summarizes all fit indices and their associated cut-off values used in the assessment of both measurement and structural model.

Table 4-12. Summary of model fit index used in the assessment of both measurement and structural model

Fit Index	Description	Cut-off Value
Chi-Square (χ^2)	Indicates the discrepancy between hypothesized model and data; Test the null hypothesis that the estimated covariance-variance matrix deviates from the sample variance-covariance matrix because of sampling error	$p > 0.05$
χ^2/df	Because the chi-square test is sensitive to sample size and is only meaningful if the degrees of freedom are considered, its value is divided by the number of degrees of freedom	2-1 or 3-1
RMSEA	Shows how well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available	< 0.05 is an acceptable fit
RMR or RMSR or SRMR	Reflects the discrepancies between the implied and observed covariance matrices	< 0.07 is a close fit
TLI	Also known as Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI). This index considers the size of the correlations in the data and the number of parameters in the model. It is also less affected by sample size.	> 0.90 is a good fit
CFI	Shows how much better the model fits, compared to a baseline model, normally the null model, adjusted for the degrees of freedom	> 0.90 is a good fit

Sources: Based on Hair et al. (2010), Schumacker and Lomax (2010), and Sharma et al. (2005)

4.6. Summary

This chapter describes the methods used in this investigation. In stage one, the instrument development process proposed by Churchill (1979) is presented. Focus group interviews are introduced in terms of interview content, sample size, and sampling procedure. Expert panel review is invited to clarify the measurements based on the results of the focus group. In stage two, a pilot study is used to ensure feasibility and make further improvement regarding the study design before main survey. After achieving the expected outcomes of pilot study, main survey is distributed to Hong Kong residents who plan to travel aboard in the coming twelve months. Data collection, including sampling process, sample size, proposed questions, are described. Finally, data analysis framework with data analyses are also provided and highlighted. EFA and CFA are conducted to examine and confirm the proposed measurement model. Finally, proposed hypotheses are then tested by SEM. Table 4.13 presents the summary of the methodological procedures.

Table 4-13. Summary of the methodological procedures

	<i>First Stage</i>	
	Focus Group Interviews	Expert Panel
Sample	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ An expert panel is chosen from three faculty members and five Hong Kong experienced tourists
Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To identify participants' motivation to visit a destination ▪ To evaluate the attributes from the literature 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To clarify the items and provide suggestions as to how to reinforce the representativeness of the developed constructs
Expected outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Conceptualization of the research model and constructs ▪ Salient attributes in tourist motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Consolidation of the preliminary measurement
	<i>Second Stage</i>	
	Pilot Study	Main Survey
Survey type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Online survey 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Online survey
Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To explore the reliability and validity of the preliminary questionnaire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To collect data to validate the research model
Sample	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months 	
Sample size	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ > 50 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ > 500
Sampling procedure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Snowball sampling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Snowball sampling and convenience sampling
Data collection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Personal network via instant messaging 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Personal network via instant messaging; ▪ Online survey at various online travel communities based in Hong Kong
Data analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Descriptive analysis, EFA, and reliability analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Descriptive analysis, EFA, CFA, and SEM
Expected outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A valid and reliable survey instrument for assessing the proposed constructs via the main survey in the research model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A verified model representing the relationships among time-perspectives, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS OF STAGE ONE STUDY

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the procedure of instrument development for all proposed constructs corresponding to the conceptual model. The instrument development process covered an extensive literature review, focus group interviews, expert panel review, and pilot test. An initial measurement pool derived from the findings of literature review and focus group interviews was developed and validated by the expert panel. The expert panel consisted of three researchers experienced in the research of tourist behaviour (content experts) and five Hong Kong tourists who had travelled abroad at least five times within 24 months (lay experts). Measurement items were first evaluated by five experienced Hong Kong tourists. The measurement items that survive were reviewed by three researchers.

5.2. Results of focus group interview

5.2.1. Demographic profile of informants

A total of nine Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming 12 months participated in the focus group interview. As can be seen in Table 5.1, the gender ratio was nearly equal, including five female and four male respondents. In terms of age, five informants were aged under 44, while the remaining respondents were over 45. Moreover, half of the informants were well educated and married.

Table 5-1. Demographic profile of informants

Interviewee	Gender	Age group	Education	Marital status
A	Female	55 – 64	Secondary school	Married
B	Female	25 – 34	Undergraduate	Single
C	Male	55 – 64	Primary school or below	Married
D	Female	55 – 64	Primary school or below	Married
E	Female	55 – 64	Secondary school	Married
F	Male	25 – 34	Undergraduate	Single
G	Male	35 – 44	Undergraduate	Married
H	Female	18 – 25	Undergraduate	Single
I	Male	35 – 44	Undergraduate	Single

5.2.2. Hong Kong tourists’ push-based travel motivations

As presented in Table 5.2, a total of 41 items with 212 codes were extracted from the focus group interviews. The most mentioned item was “to have fun and/or be entertained”, followed by “to have a good time with friends/family”, “to have a hassle-free vacation” and “to broaden my horizon”. In addition, eight themes were critically found through content analysis. Figure 5-1 indicates the preliminary findings of Hong Kong tourists’ motivational factors.

Knowledge and experience seeking

The first theme is about “knowledge and experience seeking”. All of the focus group informants said that seeking new knowledge and travel experience was the

major motivations for travelling abroad. Hong Kong tourists are highly motivated to travel due to novelty and need for personal development. Many informants indicated that they would like to explore a destination that is totally different from Hong Kong. Some informants stated that: “*Hong Kong is too small and tiny. I just want to walk around in beautiful places and enjoy playing with snow. But you cannot experience them in Hong Kong. Then, what should I do? ... This is the reason why I want to travel to Japan. Maybe... this psychological deficit motivates me to travel*” (Informant B, female, 25 – 34).

Some informants also said that visiting a destination enabled them to have an opportunity to learn something new, broaden their horizon, and experience the special atmosphere at the destination, as well as fulfil their curiosity. For instance, informant F (male, 25 – 34) mentioned: “*I need travel because I want to open my eyes to ways of life you would never know ... it allows me to learn and to love other cultures, and value what I have... I want to know more than what I can learn at the school*”. Other interviewees emphasized the excitement of learning new things: “*I am interested in visiting a foreign destination because there is always something new to taste*” (Informant D, female, 55 – 64). Informant F also stated: “*People should read 10,000 books and travel 10,000 miles. Travel is a means to increase experience and enrich my knowledge*”. Informant C (male, 55 – 64) said: “*To me, travel takes me out of my comfort zone and I am learning about local residents’ way of life - culture, traditions, food. And seeing what makes each place so unique*”

An interesting finding can be found from the statements expressed by two informants. *“In recent years, many in Hong Kong have become concerned with China’s efforts to encroach on the city’s political system ... this leads me to have a significant uptick in migration interest. For the next trip, I am looking for an opportunity to visit a destination for future immigration other than sightseeing”* (Informant E, female, 55 – 64). Informant F (male, 25 – 34) also commented that *“Currently, travel is not just sightseeing. I think a large wave of emigration will be imminent ... Travel is an opportunity to experience foreign country if I can make a good fit in that environment, such as legal system, democracy, and business system. I also plan to visit a destination that is for future immigration”*. Their expression implied that push-based travel motivation is not reliant on a single factor. Given the changing nature of the Hong Kong political situation, Hong Kong residents are more willing to travel to a destination with the purpose of immigration.

Family and friends togetherness

The second theme is about “family and friends togetherness”. All informants said that they would like to go on vacation with their family and friends. They believed that travelling with family and friends is an opportunity to have a good time and create good memory at the destination. One informant commented: *“I love to travel with family because every turn makes a new memory”* (Informant H, female, 18 – 25). Informant G (male, 35 – 44) mentioned that: *“If we travel outbound, we must go together with my son. I think it is important for the whole family together. To me,*

travel is a family union". In addition to enjoy a vacation with family and friends, four informants said that travelling is a good way to spend time with their parents. They explained that their parents are getting old, travelling with parents enables them to show a desire to repay parents with the kindness they provided and to love and care for them more.

Fun and excitement

Seeking fun and excitement was strongly emphasized in the focus group interviews. All interviewees said they are motivated to visit a destination because it is the best way to have a fun or to be entertained. Given the variety of attractions and tourist activities at the destination, many interviewees stated that travel is all about having fun. Informant E (female, 55 – 64) commented: *"I want to maximize pleasure moments and enjoy my vacation without thinking about consequences. To me, travel is a necessity. I cannot make myself happier other than travel"*. Some informants stated that they have similar expression towards the need for fun. *"I just retired. My life is boring in Hong Kong ... Having future trips already planned brings me joy and gives me something to look forward to. If I can experience something new at the destination, I will be very excited"* (Informant D, female, 55 – 64). *"My favourite part of traveling is being exposed to food, people, places, and things I've never experienced. To get that feeling of the first time is exciting"* (Informant H, female, 18 – 25).

Some respondents mentioned that they want to check in and take a photo at the tourist places. Informant B (female, 25 – 34) expressed: *“Taking a photo at the tourist site, especially at the popular attraction ... I am able to share and upload photos on my Facebook. I am so sure ... I feel happier and more excited if I receive some feedback from my friends.*

Rest and relaxation

Rest and relaxation is also one of the important themes of push factor that interviewees mentioned. They indicated that their travel is motivated by a need for rest and relax from the daily life. They believed that travel encourages them to relax, refresh, and recharge. To do this, tourists may *“do nothing at all at the destination”* (Informant B, female, 25 – 34), *“relax in a natural setting”* (Informant A, female, 55 – 64), and *“enjoy the facilities at the ski resort* (Informant B, female, 25 – 34 & Informant G, male 35 – 44). Informant E (female, 55 – 64) further commented: *“Vacation means relaxation to me. When I travel my primary goal is to have a hassle-free vacation, recharge my energy and spend my holiday. Nothing relaxes me as much as travel”*. Some informants also commented that free time or holiday is a major determinant to travel outside Hong Kong. Informant I (male, 35 – 44) said, *“When I have a holiday, the first thing comes to my mind ... is travel. I spend most of the holiday on vacation.”*

Escape

Some interviewees stated that the main reason to visit a foreign destination is to escape Hong Kong's competitive work culture. They expressed that they are busy with work, and vacation is a means to get away from daily stress/pressure as well as the usual demands of life. One informant said that: *"I need to escape from it all. I go on vacation to be away from all the people I know. Honestly, when I travel I don't want to see people I know."* (Informant F, male, 25 – 34). Other interviewees further explained: *"I use travel as an escape from daily life so that I don't have to text anyone for a week"* (Informant B, female, 25 – 34). *"I travel because I want to get away from the chaos of life and search for inner peace ... When I am too busy with work, I do not pay attention to or appreciate the surrounding environment ... When I am all surrounded by the natural environment in a foreign destination, I realized that the world is beautiful, and I should not focus only on working"* (Informant I, male, 35 – 44).

Self-challenge

Some informants are willing to take up challenges by explaining that travel puts them out of comfort zone and inherently breeds challenge. Those who are senior respondents expressed a common expression towards travel. Informant C (male, 55 – 64) stated that *"travel means testing my own boundaries and abilities by living new adventures that make me feel unique and special"*. Informant E (female, 55 – 64) further elaborated: *"I am not young anymore, I think travel is a physical fitness*

test to identify my current fitness level. A few years ago, I spent 2 days 1 night for trekking at Mount Fuji. I look forward to challenge my physical abilities on my next trip". Informant D (female, 55 – 64) agreed and stated that: *"I want to travel as much as possible before my vigour degenerates. I don't want to wake up one day when I'm 80 years old and say to myself I have not travelled there"*. Informant A (female 55 – 64), C (male, 55 – 64), D (female, 55 – 64) and E (female, 55 – 64) strongly agreed with her point.

Self-fulfilment needs

Some informants D (female, 55 – 64) and H (male, 35 – 44) are Christians, it is thus not surprising that pilgrimage is considered as one of their travel motives. Informant D (female, 55 – 64) said: *"I plan to travel to Vatican City for the purpose of worship"*. Informants F (male, 25 – 34) and H (male, 35 – 44) also mentioned that they travel to a foreign destination for healthcare needs.

Social interaction

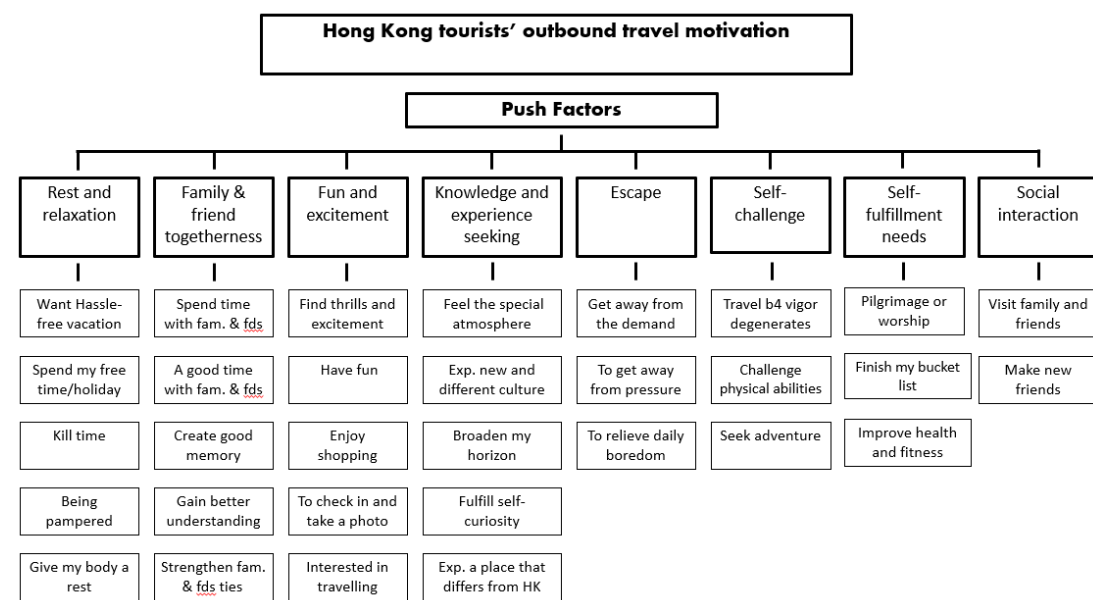
The need to meet new friends and visit friends and relatives are also mentioned during the interviews. *"My daughter is studying in UK. I want to visit her, more importantly, I wish to experience her life in UK"* (Informant E, female, 55 – 64). *"I'm not a social butterfly, in fact, I'm a very shy person. But traveling has pushed me forward and helped me overcome that social obstacle. So that, travel is a best way to meet new friends"* (Informant H, female, 18 – 25).

Table 5-2. Items of push travel motivation

Push factors	Frequency (n=212)
Knowledge and experience seeking (n=72)	
1. To broaden my horizon	12
2. To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	11
3. To feel the special atmosphere of the vacation destination	10
4. To visit a destination that I have never been to	7
5. To see how other people live and their way of life	6
6. To see the authentic aspects of a destination	5
7. To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	5
8. To inspect a place for future immigration or study	3
9. To experience new and different foreign culture	2
10. To enrich my knowledge about a foreign country	1
Family & friends togetherness (n=40)	
11. To have a good time with friends/family	15
12. To create good memory with friends/family	9
13. To spend time with family and friends on trip	7
14. To develop better understanding of family and friends	7
15. To strengthen family or friend ties	2
Fun and excitement (n=33)	
16. To have fun and/or be entertained	18
17. To enjoy shopping	6
18. I am interested in travelling	5
19. To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	3
20. To find thrills and excitement	1
Rest and relaxation (n=31)	
21. To have a hassle-free vacation	12
22. To spend my free time/holiday	9
23. To refresh my mind	3
24. To kill time	2
25. To let off some steam	1
26. To give my body a rest	1
27. To slow down	1
28. Being pampered	1
29. To enjoy life	1
Escape (n=17)	
30. To get away from regular routine	7
31. To get away from daily stress/pressure	5
32. To relieve daily boredom/busyness	3

Self-challenge (n=16)	
33. To challenge my physical abilities	7
34. To travel as much as possible before my vigour degenerates	6
35. To seek adventure	3
Self-fulfilment needs (n=9)	
36. To improve health and fitness	5
37. To go on pilgrimage or worship	3
38. To finish my bucket list	1
Social interaction (n=6)	
39. To visit friends and relatives	3
40. To make new friends	3

Figure 5-1. Preliminary findings of focus group interview – Push-based travel motivation



5.3. Results of the expert panel review - Lay experts

To ensure content vitality, a group of expert panels was invited to review measurements extracted from the focus group interview and provide suggestions as to how to reinforce the representativeness of the developed constructs. The first round of the expert panel review, including five Hong Kong tourists who had travelled abroad at least five times within 24 months (lay experts), was conducted in early July 2020. Each member was required to provide written comments on each section and overall questionnaire design.

As can be seen in Table 5.3, the gender ratio was nearly equal, including three female and two male members. Two-thirds of panel members were middle-aged adults (aged between 35 and 44). Moreover, all of the panel members were well educated.

Table 5-3. Demographic profile of lay experts

Lay Expert	Gender	Age group	Education	Occupation
A	Female	18 – 25	Undergraduate	Student
B	Female	35 – 44	Graduate or above	Prefer not to answer
C	Male	35 – 44	Undergraduate	Architectural designer
D	Female	35 – 44	Undergraduate	Prefer not to answer
E	Male	55 - 64	Graduate or above	Retired

The major revision of the measurement items is listed below.

Time perspective

- “On balance, there is much better to recall than bad in my past.” was suggested to change to “On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past”.
- “A flood of wonderful memories” was suggested to change to “a lot of wonderful memories”

Travel motivation – Push factors

- “To kill time” was deleted
- “To enjoy my life” was deleted
- “To gain better understanding of family and friends” was suggested to change to “To know about family and friends”.
- “To experience new and different foreign culture” and “To enrich my knowledge about a foreign country” are suggested to combine to “To broaden my horizon”.
- “To improve my health and fitness” was deleted.

Travel attitude

- “Fascinating” was deleted.

Travel intention

All lay experts commented that the measurement scales of travel intention are satisfactory. Therefore, all items remained.

As suggested by panel members, some of the items are very similar. Participants may not be able to distinguish between them, and the results may mix together. So, the results from the first round of panel expert discussions might not be robust enough. Therefore, a second round of panel experts were invited to further reinforce the representativeness of the developed constructs in the preliminary survey.

5.4. Results of the expert panel review - Content experts

A second round of the expert panel was used to ensure that existing items proceed to pilot study are subject to appropriate representative. Three academic researchers who are expertise in tourist behaviour were invited. Each panel member was asked to rate the existing items by using three-point Likert scale, where 1 = Not representative, 2 = Somewhat representative, and 3 = Clearly representative. The review was conducted in mid July 2020. An item who scored less than 2 was deleted reflecting lack of representative. According to the expert's comments, items that were unrepresentative, redundant, or imprecise were dropped, and inappropriate wording was revised. Table 5.4 presents the results of the panel review.

Time perspective

Rating for items for time perspective were mostly high, and mean score of each item scored two or above. Therefore, none of the items were deleted in this part. However, one potential issue was raised by panel members. Two members questioned the accuracy and creditability of translation from English to Chinese. One member recommended that the back-to-back translation technique may be used to overcome translation problems across cultures. Therefore, back-to-back translation was adopted for all items in the pilot study.

Travel motivation – Push factor

The initial eight dimensions and 35 items were reduced to seven dimensions containing 27 items. The dimension “Social interaction” was combined with the dimension “Family & friends togetherness” as two members consider they were not well differentiated by their respective meanings. In addition, some items in rest and relaxation share same meaning and highly similar with each other. A re-check of focus interviews showed that very few respondents (only one) mentioned “to let off some steam”, “to have a hassle-free vacation”, “to slow down”, and “being pampered”. Those items were deleted as their meaning appeared to be addressed by other items in rest and relaxation. The same issue can also be found in the dimension, “Fun and excitement”. Items “to find thrills and excitement” and “to have fun and/or be entertained” revealed potentially highly correlation of content validity. The expert panel recommended that it would be better to delete either one of them. Therefore, the item “to find thrills and excitement” was deleted.

Travel attitude and travel intention

The results of the expert panel on travel attitude were satisfactory, all items scored two or above. In terms of travel intention, all members commented that items have enough content validity. Therefore, none of the items were deleted in travel attitude and travel intention.

Table 5-4. Content panel review results for all items

	Member A	Member B	Member C	Mean score*
Time perspective				
1. On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past.	2	3	2	2.33
2. Family childhood, sights, sounds, smells often bring back a lot of wonderful memories.	3	2	2	2.33
3. Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	3	3	3	3
4. I get nostalgic about my childhood.	2	3	2	2.33
5. It gives me pleasure to think about my past.	3	3	3	3
6. Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	3	3	2	2.67
7. I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	3	3	3	3
8. I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	2	2	2	2
9. Things rarely work out as I expected.	3	3	2	2.67
10. I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	3	3	2	2.67
11. It is important to put excitement in my life.	3	2	3	2.67
12. I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	2	3	2	2.33
13. I make decisions on the spur of the moment.	2	2	2	2
14. I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	3	3	2	2.67
15. I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	3	2	2	2.33
16. I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	2	2	3	2.33
17. I feel that fate determines much in my life.	3	2	2	2.33
18. It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway.	2	2	3	2.33
19. Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	3	3	3	3
20. I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	3	3	3	3

21. When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	3	3	3	3
22. Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	3	3	3	3
23. Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	3	3	3	3
24. I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	1	2	3	2
25. I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	2	2	2	2

Push-based travel motivation

Rest and relaxation				
1. To let off some steam.	1	2	1	1.33
2. To spend my free time/holiday.	3	3	3	3
3. To have a hassle-free vacation.	1	2	1	1.33
4. To refresh my mind.	1	2	1	1
5. To give my body a rest.	3	3	3	3
6. To slow down.	1	1	2	1.33
7. Being pampered.	1	1	1	1
Family & friends togetherness				
1. To spend time with family and friends on trip.	3	3	3	3
2. To have a good time with friends and family.	2	1	1	1.33
3. To create good memory with friends and family.	3	3	3	3
4. To know more about family and friends.	3	3	3	3
5. To strengthen family and friend ties.	3	3	3	3
6. To visit friends and relatives.	3	3	3	3
7. To make new friends.	3	3	3	3
Escape				
1. To get away from daily routine.	3	3	3	3
2. To get away from daily stress/pressure.	3	3	3	3
3. To relieve daily boredom/busyness.	2	3	2	2.33
Knowledge and experience seeking				
1. To feel the atmosphere of the vacation destination.	1	2	1	1.33
2. To experience the authentic aspects of a destination.	3	3	3	3
3. To visit a destination that I have never been to.	3	3	3	3

4.	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong.	3	3	3	3
5.	To see how local people live and their way of life.	3	3	3	3
6.	To broaden my horizon.	3	3	3	3
7.	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit.	3	3	3	3
8.	To inspect a place for future immigration or study.	3	3	3	3
Fun and excitement					
1.	To find thrills and excitement.	2	2	2	2
2.	To have fun and/or be entertained.	3	3	3	3
3.	To enjoy shopping.	3	3	3	3
4.	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places.	2	2	2	2
5.	To travel as much as possible before my vigor degenerates.	2	2	2	2
Self-challenge					
1.	To challenge my physical abilities.	2	2	2	2
2.	To have a feeling like I am on an adventure.	2	2	2	2
Self-fulfilment needs					
1.	To go on pilgrimage or worship.	3	3	3	3
2.	To finish my bucket list	2	2	3	2.33

Travel attitude

1.	Exciting	3	3	3	3
2.	Worthwhile	3	2	3	2.33
3.	Pleasant	3	3	3	3
4.	Interesting	3	3	3	3
5.	Attractive	3	3	3	3
6.	Good	2	3	2	2.33
7.	Wise	2	3	2	2.33
8.	Arousing	2	3	3	2.67

Travel intention

1.	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	3	3	3	3
2.	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	3	3	3	3
3.	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	3	3	3	3
4.	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of abroad.	2	2	2	2

*1 = Not representative, 2 = Somewhat representative, and 3 = Clearly representative

Based on the comments from the two rounds of the panel review, an additional section regarding respondents' travel profile was added to understand their travel characteristics.

5.5. Summary

This part of the thesis discusses the findings which emerged from focus group interviews, and two rounds of expert panel reviews. After the data screening conducted by panel review, the remaining items were then transferred to the preliminary survey for pilot study. The next chapter of this paper presents the results of the pilot study and the main survey.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS OF STAGE TWO STUDY

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative studies, including pilot test and main survey. Therefore, this chapter is subdivided into two sections. The findings of pilot test are presented in the first section including respondents' profile, normality test, descriptive analysis, and reliability analysis. The second section involves the results of the main survey. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural equation modelling (SEM) are used to achieve stated research objectives.

6.2. Pilot test

The next step in the procedure of scale development is the pilot test. The advantages of pilot test are well documented in the literature. For this study, the core purpose of pilot test is for item purification. Second, a pilot test prior to large scale quantitative study, using initial instruments used for measurements in main study and planned research procedures for data collection, would identify some potential problems associated with questionnaire structure and data collection techniques. Third, studies focusing on time perspectives in tourism are relatively few, therefore, a preliminary analysis was used to test the applicability of time perspective in tourism.

6.2.1. Questionnaire design

An initial questionnaire (see Appendix 4) was established, based on the findings of previous scale development procedures. The questionnaire started with two screen questions, “are you a Hong Kong permanent resident over age 18?”, and “assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, do you have any travel plans for the next 12 months? The purpose of the two screening questions was to screen out irrelevant submissions.

Apart from the screening questions, the questionnaire included six sections. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire without considering the intervention of COVID-19. The second section aimed to understand respondents’ time perspective. 25 items were measured of time perspective. Respondents were required to ask this section based on the question “how characteristic or true is this of you?”, using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = Very uncharacteristic, 2 = Uncharacteristic, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Characteristic, 5 = Very characteristic). The third section contained a checklist of 27 motives in relation to visiting a destination. Travel attitude was measured with eight items in the fourth section. The fifth section was related to respondents’ travel intention. These three sections, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention, were evaluated by using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree). Respondents’ travel profile was then be asked before demographic

profile. The questions included where to visit, duration, number of visits at the destination, etc. The last section was about respondents' demographic information.

As recommended by content panel experts, a back-to-back translation technique was used to ensure the translation of the questionnaire is accurate. An experience editor who majored in Chinese and bilingual studies first did a translation from English to traditional Chinese, and then the traditional Chinese version survey was translated into English by another editor who is currently a journalist. Any discrepancies in both versions were modified to correspond to the true meaning of the statements. The final version was reviewed by a small group of tourism researchers with competencies in both languages.

6.2.2. Data collection

An online survey was distributed from 02 August to 16 August 2020. The online survey was administered by the researcher with the online questionnaire tool SurveyMonkey (<https://www.surveymonkey.com/>), and a snowball sampling technique was adopted. An informal invitation with research purposes was first distributed to the potential respondents via researcher personal network. A survey URL was sent to those who agreed to participate the online survey. Next, each respondent was asked to nominate others for inclusion in the survey process. As a result, 178 samples were received.

6.2.3. Results of pilot test

6.2.3.1. Data screening and normality test

To ensure the data was capable of fulfilling the requirement of performing quantitative analysis, the data was first scrutinized and cleaned. As discussed in section 4.8, the sample size of the pilot test was to be 10% of the main survey. Since the main survey should collect at least 500 samples for SEM, so that at least 50 valid responses should be received in the pilot study. 178 responses were collected from online sources. Among of these, 28 cases were invalid due to incomplete records. Eventually, 150 responses were useable for the sequence analysis.

Next, the data was examined to see if there are outliers in the dataset. The rule of thumb to determine that the outliers need to be more than three standard deviations away from the mean (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 6.1, the standard deviations for all items were between 0.67 and 1.15, so no items were found to be unusual in the dataset.

Besides detecting outliers, a normality test was performed to determine whether the data has been presented from a normally distributed population. Kline (2011) set the cut-off point for skewness <3 and kurtosis <10 that are acceptable. The result suggested the deviation of data from normality was below three for skewness and ten for kurtosis, respectively. Although some of items (e.g., TP8, TM25, TA2, and TA5) revealed a relatively high kurtosis (between three and four), respondents who

volunteer for social science subject surveys tended to be more positive in their responses. Nevertheless, the data collected for pilot test was assumed to be normally distributed. Table 5.5 presents the descriptive statistics for time perspective, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention.

Table 6-1. Descriptive statistics for time perspective, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention (n=150)

Code	Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Time perspective¹					
TP1	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	3.85	0.78	0.02	-0.86
TP2	Things rarely work out as I expected.	2.84	0.80	0.22	-0.04
TP3	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	2.85	0.98	0.44	-0.47
TP4	On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past.	3.73	0.86	-0.49	-0.26
TP5	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	3.45	0.92	-0.32-	-0.17
TP6	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	3.51	1.01	-0.53	0.09
TP7	Family childhood, sights, sounds, smells often bring back a lot of wonderful memories.	3.70	0.82	-0.89	1.02
TP8	It is important to put excitement in my life.	4.46	0.68	-1.53	4.10
TP9	It gives me pleasure to think about my past.	3.63	0.76	-0.46	0.93
TP10	It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway.	3.19	1.02	-0.36	-0.35
TP11	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	3.20	1.15	-0.13	-0.83
TP12	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	3.67	0.81	-0.25	-0.35
TP13	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	3.23	0.95	-0.25	-0.23
TP14	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	3.01	0.87	0.16	-0.35
TP15	I make decisions on the spur of the moment.	3.23	0.86	0.06	-0.83
TP16	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help	3.34	0.84	-0.17	-0.45

	me get ahead.				
TP17	I get nostalgic about my childhood.	3.44	0.96	-0.15	-0.38
TP18	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	3.35	0.79	-0.22	0.24
TP19	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	3.34	0.93	-0.13	-0.37
TP20	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	3.55	0.95	-0.51	-0.19
TP21	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	3.11	0.89	-0.11	0.06
TP22	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	3.36	0.86	-0.20	-0.22
TP23	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	3.40	0.72	0.19	-0.15
TP24	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	3.65	0.69	-0.42	0.14
TP25	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	3.21	0.88	0.07	-0.63

Push-based travel motivation ²

TM1	To strengthen family and friend ties	3.27	1.10	-0.39	-0.68
TM2	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	4.21	0.85	-1.15	1.39
TM3	To visit a destination that I have never been to	4.07	0.89	-0.93	0.59
TM4	To spend my free time/holiday	3.85	0.97	-0.70	-0.04
TM5	To give my body a rest	4.45	0.66	-1.24	2.08
TM6	To travel as much as possible before my vigour degenerates	4.32	0.85	-1.47	2.27
TM7	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	3.58	0.91	-0.29	-0.23
TM8	To finish my bucket list	3.53	1.07	-0.53	-0.42
TM9	To enjoy shopping	3.67	1.01	-0.61	0.05
TM10	To go on pilgrimage or worship	2.32	1.05	0.59	-0.06
TM11	To challenge my physical abilities	2.43	1.12	0.62	-0.26
TM12	To see how local people live and their way of life	3.89	0.91	-0.72	0.15
TM13	To visit friends and relatives	3.23	1.09	-0.43	-0.48
TM14	To have a feeling like I am on an	3.04	1.10	-0.02	-0.82

	adventure				
TM15	To have fun and/or be entertained	4.41	0.66	-1.09	1.87
TM16	To get away from daily routine	4.33	0.76	-1.27	2.32
TM17	To make new friends	3.25	1.00	-0.10	-0.19
TM18	To know more about family and friends	3.30	1.02	-0.56	-0.31
TM19	To inspect a place for future immigration or study	2.47	0.98	0.42	-0.21
TM20	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	4.11	0.79	-1.28	2.92
TM21	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	4.21	0.74	-0.75	0.42
TM22	To spend time with family and friends on trip	4.03	0.86	-1.15	2.04
TM23	To broaden my horizon	4.43	0.61	-0.72	0.55
TM24	To visit certain places at least once in a lifetime	4.05	0.87	-0.61	-0.34
TM25	To get away from daily stress/pressure	4.32	0.78	-1.66	4.29
TM26	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	4.21	0.66	-0.53	0.53
TM27	To create good memory with friends and family	4.12	0.87	-1.30	2.40

Travel attitude²

All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be

TA1	Exciting	4.28	0.68	-0.80	1.07
TA2	Worthwhile	4.21	0.74	-1.34	3.83
TA3	Pleasant	4.28	0.72	-1.03	1.56
TA4	Interesting	4.23	0.67	-0.72	1.05
TA5	Attractive	4.23	0.71	-1.29	3.61
TA6	Good	4.28	0.68	-0.94	1.69
TA7	Wise	3.90	0.74	-0.54	0.98
TA8	Arousing	4.19	0.72	-0.74	0.70

Travel intention²

TI1	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	4.39	0.74	-1.47	3.24
TI2	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	4.35	0.79	-1.36	2.22
TI3	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	4.33	0.83	-1.56	3.17
TI4	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	3.81	0.94	-0.56	-0.03

Note¹: 1 = Very uncharacteristic, 2 = Uncharacteristic, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Characteristic, 5 = Very characteristic

Note²: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

6.2.3.2. Demographic profile of respondents and travel behaviour

As stated in the previous chapter, the sample population was Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months. As shown in Table 6.2, a total of 150 usable responses were collected. Over half of the respondents were female (58.7%). A nearly equal distribution was found in age, 36.0% (aged between 18 and 34) of the respondents were young, 38.7% (aged between 35 and 54) were middle-aged adults, 25.3% (aged over 55) were senior adults. Nearly 50% of the samples holds at least a bachelor degree or post graduate degree qualification, indicating they are well educated. These three demographic characteristics (gender, age, and education level) were found to be nearly representative of Hong Kong residents by comparing the sample with past Hong Kong population statistics. Personal monthly income varied, with approximately 23% of the respondents earning HKD 10,001 – 19,999, 18.0% earning HKD 20,001 – 29,999, and 8.7% earning HKD 30,001 – 39,999. The occupation mostly varied, with the most frequently reported being work in advertising, public relations, and the marketing industry (8.7%), followed by hospitality and tourism industry (7.3%) and education industry (6.7%). The data shared similar percentages across marital status, 42% of respondents were single while 41.3% were married.

Table 6-2. Demographic profile of samples (n=150)

	n	%		n	%
Gender			Monthly personal income (Optional)		
Male	62	41.3	HKD 10,000 or below	8	5.3
Female	88	58.7	HKD 10,001 – 19,999	34	22.7
			HKD 20,001 – 29,999	27	18.0
Age			HKD 30,001 – 39,999	13	8.7
18 – 24	16	10.7	HKD 40,001 – 49,999	5	3.3
25 – 34	38	25.3	HKD 50,001 – 59,999	4	2.7
35 – 44	43	28.7	HKD 60,000 or above	6	4.0
45 – 54	15	10.0	Not applicable	53	35.3
55 – 64	33	22.0			
65 or above	5	3.3	Occupation by industry (Optional)		
Education			Advertising / Public relations / Marketing	13	8.7
Primary school or below	13	8.7	Hospitality and tourism	11	7.3
Secondary school	31	20.7	Education	10	6.7
Diploma, Higher diploma, or	36	24.0	Medical	9	6.0
Associate degree			Students	7	4.7
Undergraduate	47	31.3	Others	7	4.7
Graduate or above	23	15.3	Human resources management / Consultancy	4	2.7
Marital status (Optional)			Housewife	4	2.7
Single	63	42.0	Architecture / Building / Construction	3	2.0
Married	62	41.3	Food and beverage	3	2.0
Divorced	3	2.0	Information technology	3	2.0
Widowed	1	0.7	Customer service	3	2.0
Not applicable	21	14.0	Engineering	2	1.3
			Delivery / Shipping	2	1.3
			Property management	2	1.3
			Trading	1	0.7
			Insurance	1	0.7
			Media / Publishing	1	0.7
			Not applicable	52	34.7

Over 60% of samples are more likely to travel to Northeast Asia (e.g., Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan). 30.7% of respondents had been on seven or more visits at the destination, whereas 30% and 34.7% of the pilot test participants had been on one

to three, and four to six, respectively. Majority of respondents (80.7%) commented their travel plan was affected by COVID-19.

Table 6-3. Travel characteristics of samples (n=150)

	n	%		n	%
Prefer to visit			No. of visits at the destination		
Northeast Asia	97	64.7	None	22	14.7
Southeast Asia	21	14.0	1 – 3 times	45	30.0
Others	32	21.3	4 – 6 times	37	24.7
			7 times or above	46	30.7
Duration			Does COVID-19 affect your travel plan?		
1 – 2 days	0	0.0	Yes	121	80.7
3 – 5 days	37	24.7	No	29	19.3
6 – 8 days	74	49.3			
9 days or above	39	26.0	How has COVID-19 affected? (n=121)		
			Very slightly	1	0.7
			Slightly	9	6.0
			Moderately	38	25.3
			Very	32	21.3
			Extremely	41	27.3

6.2.3.3. Exploratory factor analysis results

As recommended by Churchill's (1979) scale development process, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used for item purification on all constructs. Although the measurements for time perspective, travel attitude, and travel intention were borrowed from the existing literature, there should be further examined to fit the context of Hong Kong. The process of reassessed all items is very key step while considering particular attention to dimensionality and reliability across cultures. Therefore, EFA with the principal component was employed to determine the underlying factors structure of time perspective (25 items), push-based travel

motivation (27 items), travel attitude (8 items), and travel intention (4 items). The suitability of exploratory factor analysis for structure detection was determined by Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The former may vary between 0 and 1; High values (close to 1) imply that the data is adequate for factor analysis. If the value is less than 0.70, the results probably will be redundant (Field, 2009). Bartlett’s test of sphericity examines whether a matrix is significantly different from an identity matrix. As for exploratory factor analysis to work, a small value (< 0.05) of the significance level is required (Kaiser, 1974). Furthermore, the determination for a factor is based on several considerations: (1) eigenvalue is greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1974); (2) factor loading should be higher 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010); and (3) factor loading >0.50 on more than one factor were deleted.

EFA for time perspective

Considering KMO (0.711) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$), the results indicate that the results revealed sufficient items for each factor. As expected, the result was a three-factor structure with a total of 46.232% of explained variance. These three factors were past time perspective, present time perspective, and future time perspective. Six items (TP4, TP7, TP9, TP10, TP15, TP17), were deleted because they had low factor loadings (< 0.50). Table 5.8 shows the findings of EFA for time perspective.

Table 6-4. Results of EFA for time perspective (n=150)

Code	Factor	Factor Loading	Eigen value	% of variance
Time perspective (KMO = 0.711; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)				46.232
	Past time perspective		2.951	17.360
TP13	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	0.761		
TP23	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	0.701		
TP3	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	0.681		
TP14	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	0.681		
TP11	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	0.675		
TP2	Things rarely work out as I expected.	0.572		
	Present time perspective		2.743	15.967
TP12	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	0.727		
TP25	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	0.700		
TP18	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	0.678		
TP20	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	0.636		
TP21	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	0.623		
TP8	It is important to put excitement in my life.	0.604		
TP19	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	0.555		
TP6	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	0.523		
	Future time perspective		2.194	12.905
TP5	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	0.692		
TP24	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	0.667		
TP16	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	0.634		
TP22	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	0.623		

TP1	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	0.602
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EFA for push-based travel motivation

The KMO index showed 0.774 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was highly significant. Thus, the factor analysis was suitable enough for the data explained. After EFA, four factors were extracted with a total of 56.449 % of explained variance. These four factors labelled Fun and escape (six items), Knowledge and experience seeking (six items), Self-fulfilment needs (five items), and Family & friends togetherness (four items). Table 5.9 shows the findings of EFA for push-based travel motivation.

Table 6-5. Results of EFA for push-based travel motivation (n=150)

Code	Factor	Factor Loading	Eigen value	% of variance
Push-based travel motivation (KMO = 0.774; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)				56.449
	Fun and escape		3.770	17.951
TM15	To have fun and/or be entertained	0.761		
TM20	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	0.755		
TM16	To get away from daily routine	0.663		
TM25	To get away from daily stress/pressure	0.662		
TM5	To give my body a rest	0.652		
TM9	To enjoy shopping	0.636		
	Knowledge and experience seeking		3.119	14.850
TM3	To visit a destination that I have never been to	0.754		
TM23	To broaden my horizon	0.684		
TM21	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	0.640		
TM19	To inspect a place for future immigration or study	0.616		
TM2	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	0.615		
TM26	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	0.608		
	Self-fulfilment needs		2.605	12.407
TM7	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	0.731		
TM8	To finish my bucket list	0.717		
TM11	To challenge my physical abilities	0.653		
TM10	To go on pilgrimage or worship	0.628		
TM24	To visit certain places at least once in a lifetime	0.613		
	Family & friends togetherness		2.361	11.241
TM1	To strengthen family and friend ties	0.776		
TM18	To know more about family and friends	0.766		
TM22	To spend time with family and friends on trip	0.679		
TM13	To visit friends and relatives	0.616		

EFA for travel attitude and travel intention

Separate factor analyses were also conducted to examine the underlying dimensions of travel attitude and travel intention, respectively. In terms of travel attitude, KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity gave satisfactory results, with overall KMO = 0.894, and significant level (<0.001) at Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. As shown in Table 6.6, travel attitude was found as a unidimensional construct with 62.919 % of explained variance. The factor loading of each item was above the minimum requirement (>0.50), which indicates that each item is able to provide the basis for interpreting the factor, travel attitude.

Given that the KMO is higher than 0.60 with significant level (<0.001) on Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Table 6.6 indicates that the test for sampling adequacy on travel intention was sufficient to reveal satisfactory findings. In line with the EFA finding of travel attitude, travel intention was a unidimensional construct providing 68.378% of the explained variance.

Table 6-6. Results of EFA for travel attitude and travel intention (n=150)

Code	Factor	Factor Loading	Eigen value	% of variance
Travel attitude (KMO = 0.894; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)				62.919
	Travel attitude		5.034	
TA3	Pleasant	0.882		
TA2	Worthwhile	0.866		
TA5	Attractive	0.852		
TA4	Interesting	0.837		
TA8	Arousing	0.783		
TA1	Exciting	0.783		
TA6	Good	0.750		
TA7	Wise	0.540		
Travel intention (KMO = 0.773; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)				68.378
	Travel intention		2.735	
IT2	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	0.920		
IT3	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	0.883		
IT1	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	0.875		
IT4	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	0.587		

6.2.3.4. Construct reliability

After assessing dimensionality on each construct, a reliability test was used to examine the internal consistency across all constructs. With reference to the findings of factor analysis, time perspective and push-based travel motivation were multi-dimensional constructs, while travel attitude and travel intention were treated as unidimensional constructs. The reliability is confirmed if Cronbach's Alpha is higher than the cut-off value of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010). As indicated in Table 6.7,

Cronbach's Alpha values for all constructs were 0.70 or above, indicating that all of the items really do reflect the respective construct.

Table 6-7. Construct reliability

Construct	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Time perspective		
Past time perspective	6	0.768
Present time perspective	8	0.734
Future time perspective	5	0.780
Push-based travel motivation		
Fun and escape	6	0.820
Knowledge and experience seeking	6	0.770
Self-fulfilment needs	5	0.724
Family & friends togetherness	4	0.706
Travel attitude	8	0.912
Travel intention	4	0.824

6.2.4. Final instrument

The final instrument consisted of eight sections with samples shown in Appendix 5. The first part included two screening questions, which were aimed at filtering out irrelevant samples. The second section assessed the respondents' time perspective (19 questions). 21 questions regarding respondents' push-based travel motivation were asked in the third section. The fourth section required respondents to evaluate their travel attitude with eight items regarding the feelings towards outbound travel. The fifth section measured respondents' travel intention in the coming twelve months with four questions. The sixth section aimed to understand the travel characteristics of the respondents. Questions regarding the desired destination plan

to visit, length of travel, and the impact of the degree of COVID-19 were then asked. The final section included demographic variables.

6.3. Main survey

Data screening is first conducted to ensure the data are useable, reliable, and valid. Respondent profile and descriptive analysis are shown in this chapter. To examine stability of the factor structure, the data was randomly split into two groups. The first group was used for exploratory factor analysis (EFA), while the remaining group was for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Once the measurement model was developed, follow-up data analyses (e.g., validity and reliability tests) were subsequently conducted. Finally, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to examine the proposed research model with the whole sample.

The online survey was posted on various online travel communities based in Hong Kong. Eventually, 719 answers to the questionnaire were received, and the completion rate was 75%. On average, respondents spent about five minutes in total, answering the whole questionnaire. Prior to testing the measurement model and the structural model, raw data were checked for missing values, univariate outliers, and normality. The following paragraphs present the results of data examination.

6.3.1. Missing value and normality

Although an online survey collected 719 responses, this was not a valid sample size for sequential data analysis. The reason was that some respondents did not meet the screening questions of having travel plans in the coming twelve months, and some did not complete the whole survey. Among the 719 responses, 98 were eliminated over the two screening questions, so the remaining 621 were qualified sample respondents. However, an additional 89 cases were found to be in serious violation of the terms of the survey as these respondents had quit the survey after answering several questions. So, they were also excluded from this study, leaving 532 cases.

No missing values for the items testing measurement model and structural model were found in the data set because the respondents were forced to answer each question except some demographic variables.

A normality test was conducted to determine if the sample data were normally distributed. The most widely used indicators for normality test rely on skewness and kurtosis (Kline, 2011). In the present study, skewness and kurtosis were used to check how well all items fit a distribution from a population with a normal distribution. Although there is no consensus on the cut-off value for normality, Field (2009) and Kline (2011) suggested that a value of standardized skewness greater than three may cause a problematic situation, and a value of standardized kurtosis higher than ten may reflect an outlier.

Table 6.8 presents the skewness and kurtosis of variables for measuring time perspective, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention. Most of the variables were negatively skewed. The skewness statistics ranged from -0.976 to -0.335 for time perspective, from -0.732 to -0.291 for push-based travel motivation, from -0.979 to -0.729 for travel attitude, and from -0.884 to -0.493 for travel intention. On the other hand, most variables showed positive kurtosis, ranging from 0.959 to -0.525 for time perspective, from 1.031 to -0.828 for push-based travel motivation, from 1.552 to 0.456 for travel attitude, and from 0.572 to -0.258 for travel intention. Thus, the data are considered acceptable in normal univariate distribution.

Table 6-8. Descriptive statistics for all measurement items (n=532)

	Time perspective¹	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
TP8	It is important to put excitement in my life.	4.02	0.883	-0.976	0.959
TP6	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	3.81	1.016	-0.766	0.138
TP1	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	3.80	0.742	-0.351	0.152
TP24	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	3.79	0.757	-0.465	0.113
TP23	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	3.77	0.755	-0.443	0.360
TP12	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	3.76	0.837	-0.462	0.040
TP20	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work	3.73	0.896	-0.522	-0.121

TP5	on done on time. Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	3.70	0.855	-0.646	0.347
TP19	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	3.69	0.912	-0.453	-0.158
TP16	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	3.68	0.824	-0.409	-0.282
TP13	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	3.68	0.891	-0.770	0.569
TP11	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistakes.	3.68	0.973	-0.881	0.521
TP14	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	3.65	0.906	-0.557	-0.022
TP18	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	3.58	0.855	-0.335	-0.098
TP22	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	3.55	0.883	-0.476	0.069
TP21	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	3.55	0.908	-0.460	0.035
TP3	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	3.51	0.996	-0.377	-0.668
TP2	Things rarely work out as I expected.	3.50	0.952	-0.340	-0.525
TP25	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	3.46	0.931	-0.382	-0.317

	Push-based travel motivation²	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
TM26	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	4.10	0.740	-0.521	0.022
TM23	To broaden my horizon	3.94	0.812	-0.404	-0.359
TM22	To spend time with family and friends on trip	3.92	0.810	-0.793	1.031
TM2	To see and experience a destination that is different	3.90	0.843	-0.610	0.328

	from Hong Kong				
TM3	To visit a destination that I have never been to	3.87	0.855	-0.553	-0.016
TM5	To give my body a rest	3.85	0.871	-0.421	-0.298
TM13	To have fun and/or be entertained	3.85	0.843	-0.705	0.581
TM21	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	3.81	0.857	-0.449	-0.254
TM20	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	3.80	0.878	-0.625	0.214
TM16	To get away from daily routine	3.78	0.996	-0.620	-0.118
TM25	To get away from daily stress/pressure	3.75	0.945	-0.627	0.112
TM7	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	3.73	0.895	-0.623	0.203
TM15	To visit certain places at least once in a lifetime	3.73	0.882	-0.485	0.059
TM8	To finish my bucket list	3.72	0.964	-0.790	0.329
TM18	To know more about family and friends	3.70	0.888	-0.617	0.501
TM24	To visit friends and relatives	3.70	1.055	-0.711	-0.066
TM1	To strengthen family and friend ties	3.56	0.956	-0.437	-0.116
TM9	To enjoy shopping	3.54	0.927	-0.483	-0.018
TM11	To challenge my physical abilities	3.35	1.178	-0.532	-0.719
TM19	To inspect a place for future immigration or study	3.30	1.133	-0.291	-0.785
TM10	To go on pilgrimage or worship	3.28	1.210	-0.446	-0.828

Travel attitude²		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be</i>					
TA8	Arousing	4.21	0.727	-0.732	0.456
TA1	Exciting	4.21	0.722	-0.766	0.641
TA3	Pleasant	4.20	0.751	-0.857	0.755
TA6	Good	4.20	0.732	-0.818	0.807
TA4	Interesting	4.19	0.709	-0.729	0.755
TA5	Attractive	4.09	0.770	-0.856	1.126
TA2	Worthwhile	4.05	0.836	-0.979	1.441
TA7	Wise	3.83	0.795	-0.735	1.552

Travel intention²		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
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TI3	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	4.22	0.829	-0.884	0.572
TI1	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	4.20	0.832	-0.726	-0.119
TI2	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	4.18	0.844	-0.842	0.440
TI4	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	3.90	0.908	-0.493	-0.258

Note¹: 1 = Very uncharacteristic, 2 = Uncharacteristic, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Characteristic, 5 = Very characteristic

Note²: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

6.3.2. Outliers

The most widely used approach for detecting outliers relies on univariate, bivariate and multivariate perspectives. The first two perspectives were not relevant because the variables employed in the present study were more than two. Kline (2011) commented that it is important to detect multivariate outliers, especially for a study performing SEM. Taking into account of survey design and data analysis technique, multivariate outliers were selected.

Multivariate outliers detection was tested by Mahalanobis distance. This method is based on the detection of data points far from the centroid that is calculated as the intersection of the mean of the variables being assessed. The results showed that 13 cases were detected as outliers as they were significant at 0.001 level. After the deletion of 13 cases, the eligible sample size was 519 for testing the measurement model and the structural model.

6.3.3. Demographic profile of respondents and travel behaviour

Table 6.9 summarizes the profile of the sample in terms of principal demographic characteristics, which are briefly described hereunder.

Gender: 43.2% were male and 56.8% female.

Age: A considerable proportion of respondents were in the 25 – 34 age group (31.4%) and 18 – 24 (25.0%). Some were in the age group 35 – 44 (24.1%). Respondents aged over 55 accounted for a very small percentage (8.5%). This accords with the previous studies, which showed that Hong Kong online travel community users are mostly young people (Lau et al., 2019; Luo & Lam, 2020).

Education level: Majority of the respondents had received undergraduate education or above (71.9%), and nearly 14% of the respondents were secondary school or below. It appears that the sample respondents were well educated – a trend consistent with previous studies (Lau et al., 2019; Luo & Lam, 2020).

Marital status: Two thirds of them were single, divorced, or widowed, while the remaining ones were married.

Monthly personal income: Nearly half of the respondents had a monthly personal income of HKD 20,001 – HKD 29,999 (45.1%), followed by HKD 10,001 – HKD 19,999 (20.5%) and HKD 30,001 – HKD 39,999 (16.4%). The results are consistent with the latest statistics provided by the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2020b), which indicate that the median monthly personal income is HKD 19,000.

Occupation by industry: Around 10% of the respondents were related to hospitality and tourism industries. The next largest category comprised food and beverage related industries (8.7%), students (8.3%) and customer services related industry. Nearly 240 respondents (34.7%) preferred not to answer.

Concerning the representativeness of the survey, the sample profile was cross-checked with the recent statistics provided by Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2020a). The demographic profile of sample respondent in this study showed similar distributions of gender, age, and personal monthly income as that found in the findings of Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department (2020a). Regarding the education level, since those in the sample were well-educated and familiar with the use of information technology to gain travel related information, so that they were slightly different from the general population.

Table 6-9. Demographic profile of samples (n=519)

	n	%		n	%
Gender			Monthly personal income (Optional)		
Male	224	43.2	HKD 10,000 or below	28	9.6
Female	295	56.8	HKD 10,001 – 19,999	60	20.5
			HKD 20,001 – 29,999	132	45.1
Age			HKD 30,001 – 39,999	48	16.4
18 – 24	130	25.0	HKD 40,001 – 49,999	14	4.8
25 – 34	163	31.4	HKD 50,001 – 59,999	5	1.7
35 – 44	125	24.1	HKD 60,000 or above	6	2.0
45 – 54	57	11.0	Not applicable	226	
55 or above	44	8.5			
			Occupation by industry (Optional)		
Education			Hospitality and tourism	29	10.5
Primary school or below	21	4.0	Food and beverage	24	8.7
Secondary school	49	9.4	Students	23	8.3
			Customer service	23	8.3
Diploma, Higher diploma, or Associate degree	76	14.6	Accounting / Banking / Financial services / Audit	22	7.9
			Education	21	7.6
Undergraduate	327	63.0	Civil services	17	6.1
Graduate or above	46	8.9	Advertising / Public relations / Marketing	16	5.8
Marital status (Optional)			Information technology	13	4.7
Single / Divorced	173	61.0	Medical	12	4.3
			Engineering	11	4.0
/ Widowed			Property management	11	4.0
Married	111	39.0	Delivery / Shipping	9	3.2
Not applicable	235		Human resources management / Consultancy	8	2.9
			Human resources management / Consultancy	8	2.9
			Housewife	8	2.9
			Media / Publishing	8	2.9
			Architecture / Building / Construction	6	2.2
			Trading	5	1.8
			Insurance	5	1.8
			Legal services	4	1.4
			Not applicable	242	

Table 6.10 presents the results of the travel characteristics of the respondents.

Prefer to visit: Over 65% of the respondents were most impressed with destinations in Northeast Asia (i.e., South Korea, Japan, Taiwan, and China), and followed by Southeast Asia (17.0%).

Duration: Approximately 40% of the respondents plan to spend between three and five days on their vacation. The next largest category was made up of those between six and eight days. These findings are consistent with Lau et al. (2019), which found that most of the Hong Kong tourists surveyed spent between three and nine days at destinations away from Hong Kong.

Number of prior visits to the destination: Majority of respondents indicated they were repeat travellers. 43% had travelled to the destination one to three times, and nearly 37% had travelled four to six times.

Does COVID-19 affect your travel plan: Because of the nearly ubiquitous presence of COVID-19 in people's lives, there is a clear consensus among respondents about its ultimate impact on existing and future travel plans. Over 80% of the respondents reported that their travel plans were affected by COVID-19. This impact was described as "moderate" (30.9%) and "extreme" (23.7%) also, but the largest proportion (41.5%) of respondents said they had been "very" affected.

Table 6-10. Travel characteristics of samples (n=519)

	n	%		n	%
Prefer to visit			No. of prior visits at the destination		
Northeast Asia	340	65.5	None	29	5.6
Southeast Asia	88	17.0	1 – 3 times	223	43.0
Europe	75	14.5	4 – 6 times	195	37.5
Others	16	3.0	7 times or above	72	13.9
Duration			Does COVID-19 affect your travel plan?		
1 – 2 days	93	17.9	Yes	431	83.0
3 – 5 days	217	41.8	No	88	17.0
6 – 8 days	136	26.2			
9 days or above	73	14.1	How has COVID-19 affected? (n=431)		
			Very slightly	3	0.7
			Slightly	14	3.2
			Moderately	133	30.9
			Very	179	41.5
			Extremely	102	23.7

6.3.4. Descriptive statistics

6.3.4.1. Time perspective

The 19 items in the time perspective were ranked by mean value (Table 6.11). The two items related to the present time perspective, “It is important to put excitement in my life” (mean = 4.03) and “Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past” (mean = 3.82) were ranked the highest. However, relatively low mean scores were recorded for items related to the present time perspective, “I can't really plan for the future because things change so much” (mean = 3.51) and past time perspective, “Things rarely work out as expected” (mean = 3.51).

Table 6-11. Ranking of items in time perspective by mean value (n=519)

Code	Item	Mean*	SD
TP8	It is important to put excitement in my life.	4.03	0.865
TP6	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	3.82	1.001
TP1	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	3.80	0.743
TP24	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	3.79	0.762
TP23	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	3.78	0.741
TP12	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	3.76	0.827
TP20	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	3.75	0.874
TP5	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	3.71	0.848
TP16	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	3.70	0.816
TP19	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	3.70	0.902
TP13	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	3.68	0.882
TP11	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	3.68	0.966
TP14	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	3.65	0.907
TP18	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	3.58	0.852
TP21	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	3.56	0.900
TP22	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.	3.56	0.879
TP2	Things rarely work out as I expected.	3.51	0.954
TP3	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	3.51	0.986
TP25	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	3.47	0.925

Note: 1 = Very uncharacteristic, 2 = Uncharacteristic, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Characteristic, 5 = Very characteristic

6.3.4.2. Push-based travel motivation

As shown in Table 6.12, 21 items were used to measure push-based travel motivation. Broadly speaking, respondents gave relatively high scores to push-based travel motivation, as all items were above the standard benchmark (>2.5). Four items concerning seeking new travel experience scored the highest, which were “To experience the authentic aspects of a destination” (mean = 4.09), “To broaden my horizon” (mean = 3.94), “To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong” (mean = 3.90), and “To visit a destination that I have never been to” (mean = 3.88). Generally, scales relating to push-based travel motivation were well-regarded by Hong Kong outbound tourists as they scored higher than average mean scores.

**Table 6-12. Ranking of items in push-based travel motivation by mean value
(n=519)**

Code	Item	Mean*	SD
TM26	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	4.09	0.736
TM23	To broaden my horizon	3.94	0.812
TM22	To spend time with family and friends on trip	3.92	0.791
TM2	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	3.90	0.839
TM3	To visit a destination that I have never been to	3.88	0.846
TM13	To have fun and/or be entertained	3.84	0.847
TM5	To give my body a rest	3.83	0.872
TM21	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	3.81	0.851
TM20	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	3.80	0.868
TM16	To get away from daily routine	3.76	0.993
TM25	To get away from daily stress/pressure	3.75	0.940
TM7	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	3.74	0.882
TM18	To know more about family and friends	3.72	0.870
TM8	To finish my bucket list	3.72	0.951
TM15	To visit certain places at least once in a lifetime	3.72	0.884
TM24	To visit friends and relatives	3.71	1.044

TM1	To strengthen family and friend ties	3.58	0.937
TM9	To enjoy shopping	3.54	0.931
TM11	To challenge my physical abilities	3.34	1.174
TM19	To inspect a place for future immigration or study	3.31	1.126
TM10	To go on pilgrimage or worship	3.28	1.211

Note: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

6.3.4.3. Travel attitude

In terms of travel attitude, all measurement items received relatively high mean scores, as all mean values were higher than 3.80. It may be said that travelling abroad is “arousing”, “exciting”, “pleasant”, “interesting”, and “good”.

Table 6-13. Ranking of items in travel attitude by mean value (n=519)

Code	Item	Mean*	SD
	<i>All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be</i>		
TA8	Arousing	4.23	0.707
TA1	Exciting	4.22	0.703
TA3	Pleasant	4.22	0.725
TA4	Interesting	4.20	0.684
TA6	Good	4.20	0.719
TA5	Attractive	4.10	0.750
TA2	Worthwhile	4.06	0.802
TA7	Wise	3.84	0.782

Note: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

6.3.4.4. Travel intention

Overall, the vast majority of respondents said that they expected to travel abroad within the next 12 months, indicated by the relatively high scores for travel

intention. Specifically, “I want to travel abroad within 12 months” (mean = 4.23) received the highest mean score.

Table 6-14. Ranking of items in travel intention by mean value (n=519)

Code	Item	Mean*	SD
TI3	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	4.23	0.802
TI1	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	4.21	0.817
TI2	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	4.20	0.813
TI4	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	3.91	0.901

Note: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

6.3.5. Assessing factor structure stability

Assessing factor structure stability is a critical step in predicting endogenous variable(s) and ensuring generalizability of research findings. To examine factor stability, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested that researchers should take a data set and cut it into two parts. One data set to find the factor structure, the other data set to confirm it. Cross validation may produce additional justification of robustness of the sample and help avoid capitalization by chance. In that case, a total of 519 samples were divided into two subsets, namely group one and group two. The former group (n=260) is examined by EFA while the latter (n=259) was tested by CFA to further validate the results generated from EFA in group one. After the measurement model was confirmed, the SEM was examined using the whole sample.

6.3.5.1. Exploratory factor analysis of the measurement model

EFA was performed to assess dimensionality of the four constructs. Consistent with pilot study, principal component matrix with varimax rotation has been used in this section. Determination of factor structure is based on several criteria: (1) the total percentage of explained variance is higher than 50%; (2) KMO is above 0.700 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity at 0.05 significance level; and (3) an item is dropped if the factor loading is either below 0.50 or cross loading where loading is higher than 0.300 on more than one item.

Regarding time perspective, of the 19 items, three items (TP2, TP6, and TP8) were dropped because their factor loadings were below 0.50. The second round of factor analysis were conducted, and a three-factor solution was derived, including five items for past time perspective, six items for present time perspective, and five items for future time perspective. In terms of travel motivation, two items (TM19 and TM24) yielded low factor loadings (< 0.50) from the results for push-based travel motivation, so they were eliminated. Travel attitude and travel intention were treated as a single factor. However, TA7 and IT4 were dropped as their loadings were below 0.50. Following the general consensus recommended guideline for using a reliability level of 0.70, the analysis indicated that all constructs were highly reliable.

Table 6-15. Results of the exploratory factor analysis in group one (n=260)

Code	Factor	Factor Loading	Eigen value	% of variance
Time perspective (KMO = 0.842; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)				57.394
Past time perspective ($\alpha=0.832$)			3.158	19.740
TP11	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	0.784		
TP13	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	0.781		
TP23	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	0.762		
TP3	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	0.743		
TP14	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	0.709		
Present time perspective ($\alpha=0.811$)			3.142	19.636
TP19	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	0.755		
TP25	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	0.715		
TP18	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	0.714		
TP21	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	0.711		
TP20	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	0.695		
TP12	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	0.695		
Future time perspective ($\alpha=0.818$)			2.883	18.018
TP1	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	0.771		
TP22	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.	0.761		
TP16	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	0.758		
TP24	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	0.751		
TP5	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	0.666		
Push-based travel motivation (KMO = 0.773; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)				54.671

Fun and escape ($\alpha=0.820$)			3.251	17.112
TM15	To have fun and/or be entertained	0.759		
TM5	To give my body a rest	0.734		
TM25	To get away from daily stress/pressure	0.723		
TM9	To enjoy shopping	0.722		
TM20	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	0.719		
TM16	To get away from daily routine	0.686		
Knowledge and experience seeking ($\alpha=0.756$)			2.632	13.852
TM2	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	0.747		
TM23	To broaden my horizon	0.725		
TM21	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	0.698		
TM26	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	0.687		
TM3	To visit a destination that I have never been to	0.671		
Self-fulfilment needs ($\alpha=0.735$)			2.288	12.042
TM11	To challenge my physical abilities	0.773		
TM10	To go on pilgrimage or worship	0.761		
TM8	To finish my bucket list	0.730		
TM7	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	0.686		
Family & friends togetherness ($\alpha=0.700$)			2.216	11.665
TM1	To strengthen family and friend ties	0.766		
TM18	To know more about family and friends	0.732		
TM22	To spend time with family and friends on trip	0.729		
TM13	To visit friends and relatives	0.657		
Travel attitude				
(KMO = 0.864; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p<0.000$)				
Travel attitude ($\alpha=0.852$)			3.763	53.751
TA5	Attractive	0.793		
TA2	Worthwhile	0.789		
TA3	Pleasant	0.785		
TA8	Arousing	0.749		
TA6	Good	0.739		
TA4	Interesting	0.728		
TA1	Exciting	0.508		
Travel intention				
(KMO = 0.741; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p<0.000$)				
Travel intention ($\alpha=0.887$)			2.448	81.597

IT1	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	0.919
IT3	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	0.900
IT2	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	0.890

Note: α = Cronbach's alpha

6.3.5.2. Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model

CFA was conducted using AMOS 26 to validate the results obtained from the EFA (Group 1). Since push-based travel motivation included sub-constructs, the second order confirmatory factor analysis techniques were adopted. As highlighted in Section 4.9.5.5, Chi-square test used in conjunction with RMSEA (< 0.05), RMR (< 0.70) and TLI (> 0.90) and CFI (> 0.90) indices were used to determine whether the measurement model fits well. After achieving the guideline-recommended fit indices, the hypothesized model was subsequently checked by construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. First, construct reliability was understood through composite reliability. In general, a composite construct reliability value of 0.70 or higher indicates good reliability, while a value between 0.60 and 0.70 is acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). Second, as shown in previous section (Chapter 4.9.5.1), convergent validity is adequately confirmed if average variance extracted (AVE) passes the cut-off point of 0.50. Third, discriminant validity is confirmed if AVE estimates between two factors is higher than the square of the correlation coefficient between the two factors.

The results of CFA showed that the chi-square is statistically significant ($p < 0.000$) which indicates that the proposed model and the observed data are different. Indeed,

the chi-square test is largely dependent on sample size. It appears that a higher sample size increases the possibility of generating a statistically significant chi-square. (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). More importantly, there is now broad consensus that CFA and SEM should be conducted with large sample sizes, thus, the chi-square is often significant. As such, the need is to use other fit indices in conjunction with chi-square test.

Overall, the goodness-of-fit indices were within an acceptable range ($\chi^2 = 1217.625$, $df = 933$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.305$, $RMSEA = 0.036$, $RMR = 0.052$, $TLI = 0.934$, $CFI = 0.933$). It can be concluded that the overall fit indices indicate that the hypothesized model reasonably fitted into the structure underlying the observed data.

Based on the results of CFA, push-based travel motivation is confirmed as a multi-dimensional construct, which contains four factors. The first factor confirmed in CFA, Fun and escape, consisted of six items associated with the fulfilment of having fun and being escape through holiday vacation. Fun has been commonly considered as a fundamental concept of motivation factor in the general travel population (Li & Cai, 2012). The implication is that Hong Kong tourists expect travel is a way to look for fun and pleasant. In a review of travel motivation theories, escape was also considered as a top motivation (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pearce, 1988). This study also proved that the dichotomy of these two travel motivations were

correspondent with each other because tourists may be engaged in both motives simultaneously.

Knowledge and experience seeking is the second dimension of push-based travel motivation. This factor underscores Hong Kong tourists' interests in learning and discovering unique experience that cannot be found in their daily lives apart from travel. This dimension broadly supports the work of some motivational frameworks linking novelty-seeking and learning with travel motivation (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Pearce, 1988). An item, to broaden my horizon, seems to associate with a holistic learning experience for Hong Kong tourists by travelling abroad. Hong Kong tourists appear to view visiting a destination as an important means to familiarize themselves with a broader range of knowledge.

The third factor, self-fulfilment needs included five items. It involves both spiritual and physical motives to achieve personal goals. As each tourist is unique, the self-fulfilment needs lead tourists in different directions. This study found that tourists' self-fulfilment needs can be achieved through challenging physical abilities, visiting a sacred place for religious devotion, and finishing the bucket list. This dimension corroborates the findings of a great deal of the previous work in travel motivation (Chen & Tsai, 2019; Chen & Xiao, 2013). One of the most interesting observation in this factor contains a unique statement, to check in and take a photo at the tourist places. It should be mentioned that this item was originally extracted from the focus group interview as part of the fun dimension. This item expresses

Hong Kong tourists' desire to remember memorable travel experience long after it has passed.

The last factor is family & friends togetherness, including four items. Tourism scholars have supported that travel reveals an opportunities for family and friends to build intimacy relationships and promote a sense of togetherness (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The function of pleasant travel for the purpose of building intimacy relationships among a group of people, e.g., family members, couples, friends, and colleagues, appears to be important to Hong Kong tourists, as shown by some items being included in this dimension. Given the unfamiliar environment of tourism settings, travel can facilitate the ease with which individuals develop strong relationships and maintain an emotional connection within the tourist bubble.

Table 6-16. Results of the confirmatory factor analysis in group two (n=259)

	Std. Factor Loading	CR	P
Past time perspective		0.852	
I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	0.757		NA
I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	0.743		***
Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	0.739		***
Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	0.714		***
I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	0.704		***
Present time perspective		0.855	
I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	0.740		***
I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	0.726		***
I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	0.714		***
I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	0.691		***
I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	0.677		***
I feel that fate determines much in my life.	0.674		NA
Future time perspective		0.848	
Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	0.754		NA
Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	0.741		***
When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	0.733		***
I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	0.711		***
I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	0.688		***
Fun and escape		0.861	
To have fun and/or be entertained	0.780		NA
To give my body a rest	0.727		***
To relieve daily boredom/busyness	0.706		***
To get away from daily routine	0.705		***
To get away from daily stress/pressure	0.680		***

To enjoy shopping	0.677	***
Knowledge and experience seeking	0.866	
To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	0.805	***
To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	0.787	NA
To broaden my horizon	0.752	***
To visit a destination that I have never been to	0.752	***
To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	0.650	***
Self-fulfilment needs	0.827	
To challenge my physical abilities	0.773	NA
To go on pilgrimage or worship	0.761	***
To finish my bucket list	0.730	***
To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	0.686	***
Family and friends togetherness	0.796	
To spend time with family and friends on trip	0.742	***
To strengthen family and friend ties	0.716	NA
To visit friends and relatives	0.690	***
To know more about family and friends	0.662	***
Travel attitude	0.880	
Pleasant	0.788	***
Attractive	0.742	***
Interesting	0.738	***
Arousing	0.728	NA
Worthwhile	0.689	***
Exciting	0.671	***
Good	0.652	***
Travel intention	0.901	
I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	0.888	***
It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	0.867	NA
I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	0.855	***

Note: CR = Composite reliability; NA= not available because the item was used as a reference variable; *** = Significant level at 0.001 level

Construct reliability indicators: Composite reliability

Composite reliability is calculated for each factor. The composite reliability estimates were ranging from 0.796 to 0.901, above the suggested cut-off of 0.700.

This indicates satisfactory internal consistency of multiple indicators of each construct.

Construct validity: Convergent validity

AVE was calculated for each factor to assess convergent validity. As shown in Table 6.17, most of the factors passed the cut-off point of 0.500, except present time perspective (AVE = 0.496) and family & friends togetherness (AVE = 0.494). It should be noted that all items in these factors were newly developed from existing literature, focus group interview and panel review. As suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), convergent validity of the construct is still adequate if AVE is between 0.40 and 0.50 but composite reliability is higher than 0.60. In this case, the results for these two constructs were found acceptable.

Construct validity: Discriminant validity

The discrepancies between the measures of constructs were examined by discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is considered strong if AVE between two constructs is greater than the squared correlation between any two constructs. In this study, all corresponding AVE values are greater than each of the square correlation between any two constructs. Hence, discriminant validity was not an issue. Table 6.17 presents the results of this action.

Table 6-17. Correlations (Squared Correlations) and AVE for the measurement model

	Past	Present	Future	Fun	Know	Self-fulf	Family	Attitude	Travel Intention
Past	1.000								
Present	0.132 (0.017) ^a	1.000							
Future	0.296 (0.088)	0.078 (0.006)	1.000						
Fun	0.123 (0.015)	0.066 (0.004)	0.035 (0.001)	1.000					
Know	0.079 (0.006)	0.017 (0.001)	0.036 (0.001)	0.117 (0.014)	1.000				
Self-fulf	0.578 (0.334)	0.288 (0.083)	0.306 (0.094)	0.139 (0.019)	0.107 (0.011)	1.000			
Family	0.123 (0.015)	0.092 (0.008)	0.206 (0.042)	0.049 (0.002)	0.009 (0.001)	0.123 (0.015)	1.000		
Attitude	0.057 (0.003)	0.063 (0.004)	0.060 (0.004)	0.137 (0.019)	0.185 (0.034)	0.157 (0.025)	0.061 (0.004)	1.000	
Travel intention	0.082 (0.007)	0.139 (0.019)	0.067 (0.004)	0.086 (0.007)	0.122 (0.015)	0.204 (0.042)	0.037 (0.001)	0.204 (0.042)	1.000
AVE	0.535	0.496	0.527	0.509	0.564	0.545	0.494	0.514	0.753

Note: Past = Past time perspective; Pre = Present time perspective; Fut = Future time perspective; Fun = Fun and escape; Know = Knowledge and experience seeking; Self-fulf = Self-fulfilment needs; Family = Family and friends togetherness; Attitude = Travel attitude; AVE = Average variance extracted. ^a Squared correlations.

6.3.6. Path analysis of the structural model

Given that the measurement model is confirmed and validated, an overall structural model is tested based on the developed hypotheses. Past time perspective, present time perspective and future time perspective were the three exogenous variables which were correlated. The causal relationships tested included: (a) from past, present, and future time perspectives to travel intention; (b) from past, present, and future time perspectives to push-based travel motivation; (c) from past, present, and future time perspectives to travel attitude; (d) from push-based travel motivation to travel intention; (e) from travel attitude to travel intention; and (f) from push-based travel motivation to travel attitude.

Extant literature has debated extensively whether a first-order construct or a second-order construct should be used for the measurement model. Each has its own strengths and drawbacks. A first-order construct has observed variables as indicators of the construct while a second-order construct is the causal construct that impacts the first order factors. In other words, the first-order factors are the results of the second-order factors. Theoretically, Byrne (2010) expresses “judgment as to whether or not a measuring instrument should be modelled as a first-order or as a second-order structure ultimately rests on substantive meaningfulness as dictated by the underlying theory” (p. 143). Tourists have unlimited travel needs which cannot be satisfied at one time, and therefore, many

scholars agreed that travel motivation is a dynamic and multifaceted phenomenon depending on which theory is being used. Practically, as most existing scales include many items, researchers often struggle to run SEM, and even just a few latent constructs (Matsunaga, 2008). From a modelling perspective, aggregation has been shown to stabilise parameter estimates and also to improve model fit. Chen, Sousa, and West (2005) suggest that “aggregation can provide a more parsimonious and interpretable model when researchers hypothesize that higher order factors underlie their data” (p. 472). Their arguments are based on the nature of second-order construct which can reflect the overall meaning of many first-order latent variables. In this situation, the number of first order factors that need to be estimated in the context of a structural model can be replaced by a second-order construct. Likewise, Coffman and MacCallum (2005) found that the domain representative construct that contains factors from each of the first-order variables reveals consistently good and stable overall model fit compared with first-order constructs. Aggregation has been recommended by some tourism researchers as a simple way to estimate models with reflective indicators (e.g., Pereira et al., 2019; Su, Nguyen, Nguyen, & Tran, 2020; Tang, 2014).

Considering the idea of travel motivation has been comprehensively proved to be a multi-dimensional construct and Coffman and MacCallum (2005) and Chen et al.'s (2005) recommendations for SEM, push-based travel motivation is conceptualized as a second-order composite of first-order constructs including fun and escape, knowledge and experience seeking, self-fulfilment needs, and family and friends

togetherness. Such an approach is appropriate because the core objective of the current study was not to understand the impacts of each push factor on other constructs but to investigate the relationships between other constructs globally. The remaining constructs, such as three types of time perspectives, travel attitude, and travel intention are considered as a first order construct.

Goodness-of-fit indices exhibited a fairly good fit, with $\chi^2 = 1489.170$, $df = 924$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.612$, $RMSEA = 0.034$, $RMR = 0.044$, $TLI = 0.940$, $CFI = 0.940$, compared with the cut-off point values stated in the previous section. The interrelationships between three types of time perspectives and three pairs of parameters were set to be free based on AMOS's suggestions which further improve the model fit. These three parameters were TP22 and TP13, MOT7 and MOT8, and TA2 and TA6. All standardized factor loadings were significant at 0.001 level. To compare the factor loadings in structural model with overall measurement model, the vast majority of standardized factor loadings were slightly lower but they were above the rule of thumb of 0.50 (see Figure 6.1).

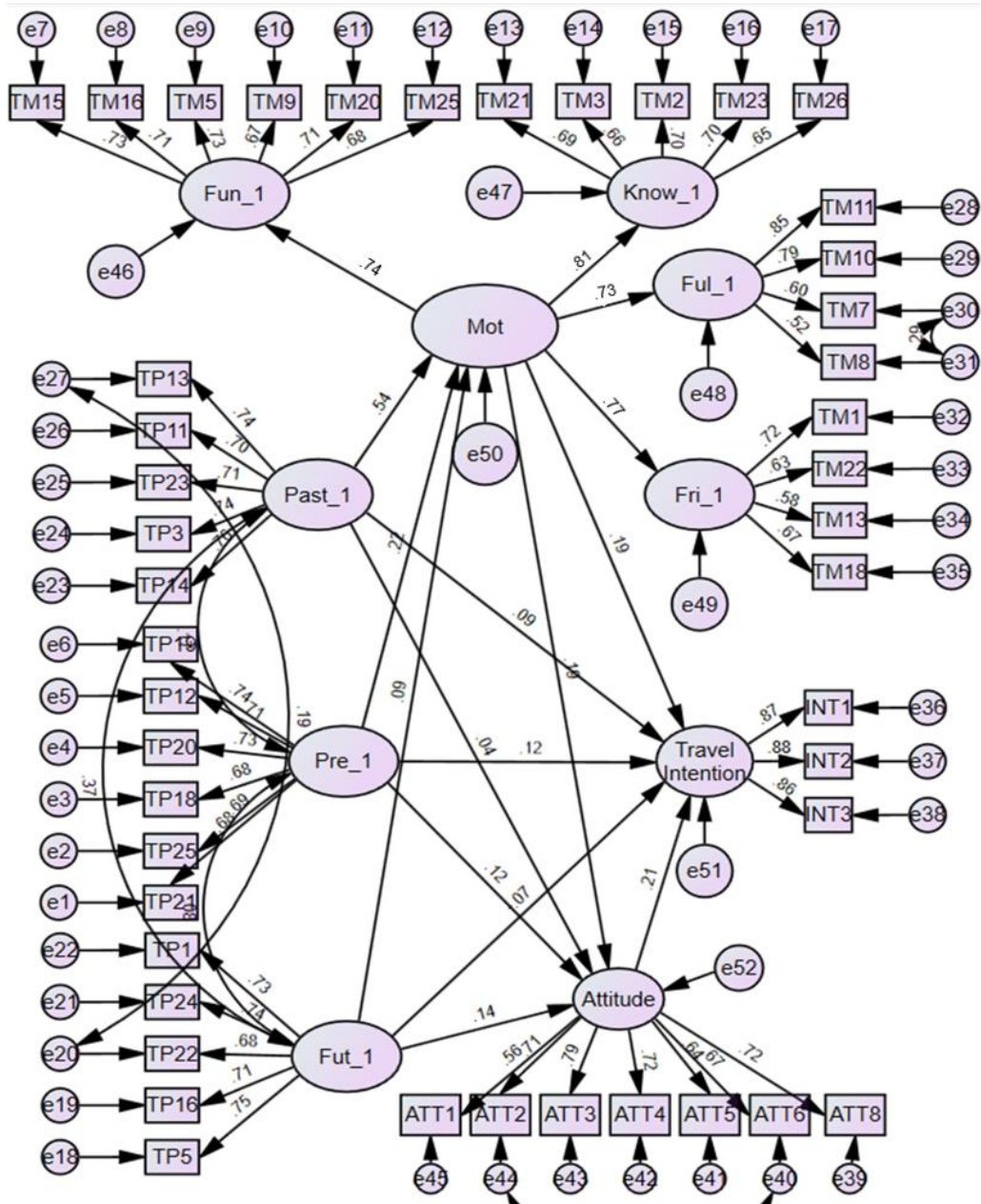


Figure 6-1. Results of the structural model

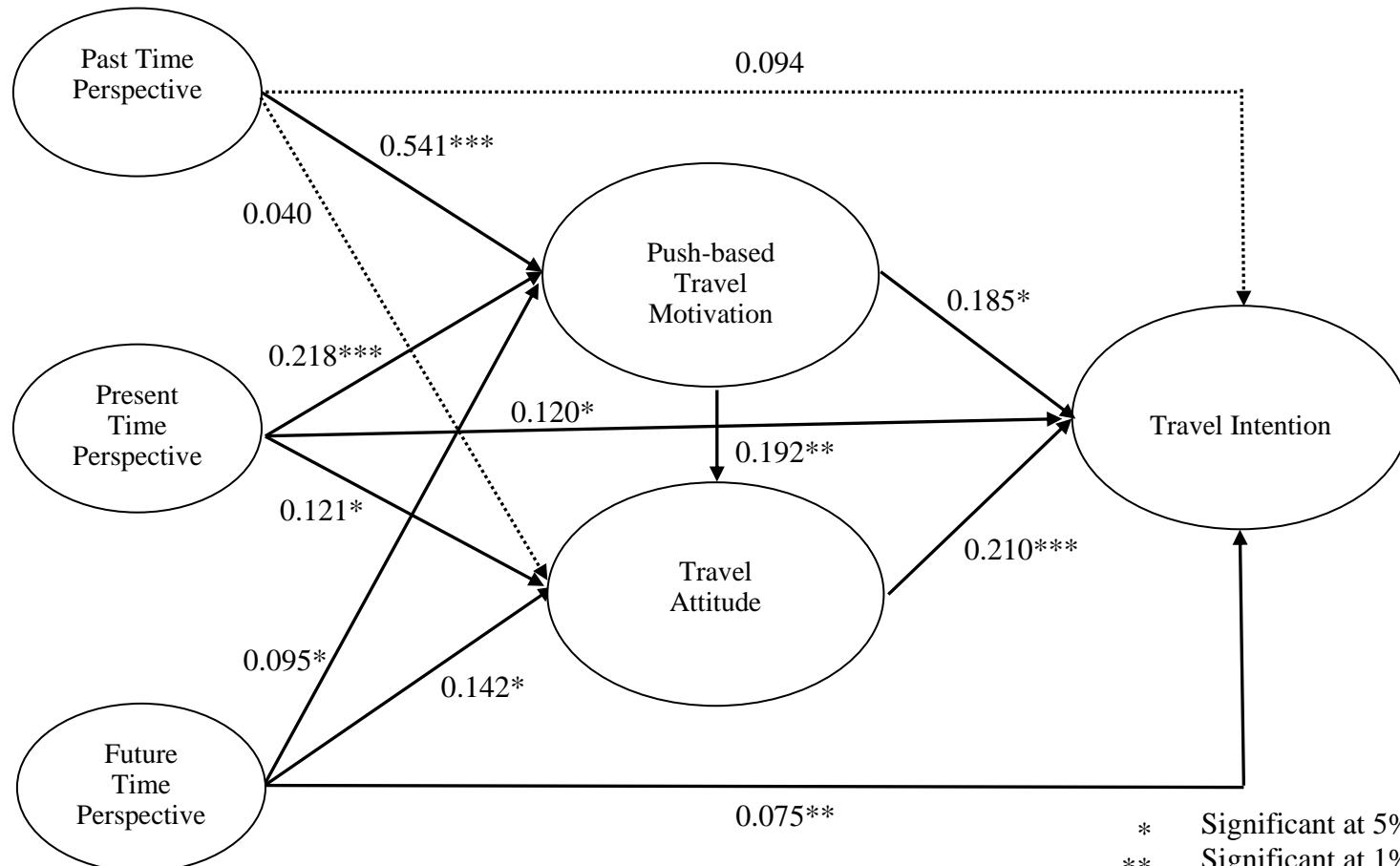


Figure 6-2. Structural model with standardized coefficient

Fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 1489.170$, $df = 924$, $p < 0.000$, $RMSEA = 0.034$,
 $RMR = 0.044$, $TLI = 0.940$, $CFI = 0.940$

Hypothesized correlations between latent variables and standardized coefficients and p-values in the conceptual model were then tested after a satisfactory structural model was developed. As shown in Table 6.18, ten out of twelve paths were significant. More specifically, present time perspective was positively associated with travel intention (coefficient = 0.120, $p < 0.05$), push-based travel motivation (coefficient = 0.218, $p < 0.001$), and travel attitude (coefficient = 0.121, $p < 0.05$). In other words, each one unit increase in present time perspective is associated with a 0.120 unit increase in travel intention, a 0.218 unit increase in push-based travel motivation, and a 0.121 unit increase in travel attitude. Future time perspective showed significant effects on travel intention (coefficient = 0.075, $p < 0.01$), push-based travel motivation (coefficient = 0.218, $p < 0.001$), and travel attitude (coefficient = 0.142, $p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, past time perspective indicated significant effect on push-based travel motivation (coefficient = 0.541, $p < 0.001$), but no significant effect on travel intention (coefficient = 0.094, $p > 0.05$) and travel attitude (coefficient = 0.040, $p > 0.05$). Finally, the results of the structural model showed that push-based travel motivation was a useful predictor of travel attitude (coefficient = 0.192, $p < 0.01$).

The summary of the hypotheses testing is presented in Table 6.19. Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3, Hypothesis 6, and Hypothesis 8 were fully supported, while Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 5, and Hypothesis 7 were partially supported.

Table 6-18. Summary of the structural model results

Construct	Path	Construct	Standardized Coefficient	P
Past time perspective	→	Travel intention	0.094	0.201
Present time perspective	→	Travel intention	0.120	0.023*
Future time perspective	→	Travel intention	0.075	0.007**
Push-based travel motivation	→	Travel intention	0.185	0.020*
Travel attitude	→	Travel intention	0.210	***
Past time perspective	→	Push-based travel motivation	0.541	***
Present time perspective	→	Push-based travel motivation	0.218	***
Future time perspective	→	Push-based travel motivation	0.095	0.017*
Past time perspective	→	Travel attitude	0.040	0.567
Present time perspective	→	Travel attitude	0.121	0.024*
Future time perspective	→	Travel attitude	0.142	0.011*
Push-based travel motivation	→	Travel attitude	0.192	0.007**

Note: * Significant path at 5% level; ** Significant path at 1% level; *** Significant path at 0.1% level

Table 6-19. Summary of hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	Path	Results
H1	a. Past time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel intention.	Not supported
	b. Present time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel intention.	Supported
	c. Future time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel intention.	Supported
H2	a. Past time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel motivation.	Supported
	b. Present time perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel motivation.	Supported
	c. Future perspective has a significant effect on tourists' travel motivation.	Supported
H3	Tourists' push-based travel motivation significantly affects tourists' travel intention.	Supported

H4	a.	Tourists' push-based travel motivation mediates the relationship between past time perspective and travel intention.	Supported
	b.	Tourists' push-based travel motivation mediates the relationship between present time perspective and travel intention.	Supported
	c.	Tourists' push-based travel motivation mediates the relationship between future time perspective and travel intention.	Supported
H5	a.	Past time perspective has a significant effect on travel attitude.	Not supported
	b.	Present time perspective has a significant effect on travel attitude.	Supported
	c.	Future time perspective has a significant effect on travel attitude.	Supported
H6		Travel attitude significantly affects tourists' travel intention.	Supported
H7	a.	Travel attitude moderates the relationship between past time perspective and travel intention.	Not supported
	b.	Travel attitude moderates the relationship between present time perspective and travel intention.	Supported
	c.	Travel attitude moderates the relationship between future time perspective and travel intention.	Supported
H8		Tourists' push-based travel motivation has a significant effect on tourists' travel attitude.	Supported

6.3.7. Mediating effects of travel motivation and travel attitude

After assessing the direct effects among proposed constructs, the mediating effects were also tested for the stated hypotheses in Chapter 3. Additionally, as shown in Tables 6.18 & 6.19, travel intention appeared to be unaffected by past time perspective, but the relationships between past time perspective and push-based travel motivation, and push-based travel motivation and travel intention were

significant. Therefore, it was necessary to assess whether a mediating effect exists between past time perspective and travel intention via push-based travel motivation.

Mediating effects were tested by the bootstrapping procedure (resampling). This method resamples the original dataset with replacements carried out many thousands of times to create simulated datasets. This technique involves extracting random samples from the original dataset. The resampling process was repeated 5000 times and the indirect effects were calculated for each new sample. Eventually, a distribution coefficient of the indirect effect was computed for 5000 times resampling. The 95% of confidence interval for the true value of indirect effect was given all the resampled estimates. If the value of zero falls outside of this interval, then it may be concluded that the estimate value rejects the null hypothesis that the indirect effect index equals zero.

Table 6.20 shows the summary of mediating effects in the structural model. Although past time perspective did not directly affect travel intention, its indirect effects, as mediated by push-based travel motivation were significant (coefficient = 0.105, $p < 0.05$). However, no mediating effect existed between past time perspective and travel intention via travel attitude (coefficient = 0.009, $p > 0.05$). In terms of the relationship between present time perspective and travel intention, significant mediating effects were found on push-based travel motivation (coefficient = 0.048, $p < 0.05$) and travel attitude (coefficient = 0.030, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, push-based travel motivation (coefficient = 0.020, $p < 0.05$) and travel

attitude (coefficient = 0.034, $p < 0.05$) were found to have mediating effects on the relationship between future time perspective and travel intention. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected whereas Hypothesis 7 was only partially supported.

The mediating effects with push-based travel motivation and travel attitude were also tested simultaneously. The results showed that the relationships between three types of time perspective and travel intention were fully mediated by push-based travel motivation and travel attitude. Specifically, the impact of past time perspective on travel intention was through push-based travel motivation and travel attitude (coefficient = 0.023, $p < 0.05$). Present time perspective also significantly influenced travel intention through push-based travel motivation and travel attitude (coefficient = 0.010, $p < 0.05$). Likewise, the mediating relationship between future time perspective and travel intention through these two variables were also confirmed and were found to be significant (coefficient = 0.004, $p < 0.05$). To sum up, the relationship “time perspective \rightarrow push-based travel motivation \rightarrow travel attitude \rightarrow travel intention” can be established.

Table 6-20. Results for mediation testing

Path	Standardized Coefficient	p
PAST → TM → TI	0.105	0.014*
PRE → TM → TI	0.048	0.012*
FUT → TM → TI	0.020	0.020*
PAST → ATT → TI	0.009	0.610
PRE → ATT → TI	0.030	0.043*
FUT → ATT → TI	0.034	0.021*
PAST → TM → ATT → TI	0.023	0.026*
PRE → TM → ATT → TI	0.010	0.025*
FUT → TM → ATT → TI	0.004	0.028*

Note: * Significant path at 5% level; PAST = Past time perspective; PRE = Present time perspective; FUT = Future time perspective; TM = Push-based travel motivation; ATT = Travel attitude; TI = Travel intention

6.3.8. Total effects of the structural model

The direct, indirect, and total effects of the final SEM are presented in Table 6.21. According to Cole, Crompton, and Willson (2002), if an exogenous variable has more than one path of indirect effect on an endogenous variable, the overall indirect effects of endogenous variable are calculated by the summation of the all indirect paths of the exogenous variable on the endogenous variable. Moreover, the total effects are the combination of direct and indirect effects.

Travel intention is either directly or indirectly influenced by three types of time perspectives, push-based travel motivation, and travel attitude. It should be noted that three types of time perspectives not only directly impact travel intention, but also indirectly contribute to travel intention through three paths (see Table 6.13).

One path is through push-based travel motivation → travel intention, while the second path is through travel attitude → travel intention. The final path is via both push-based travel motivation and travel attitude to travel intention.

The present time perspective has total effects of 0.208 on travel intention, with a direct influence of 0.120 and an indirect influence of 0.088. Since the direct relationship between past time perspective and travel intention was found to be insignificant, past time perspective has only an indirect influence of 0.137 on travel intention. In addition, future time perspective affects travel intention directly as well as indirectly via push-based travel motivation and travel attitude. Therefore, of the three types of time perspectives that influence travel intention, present time perspective contributes the most to formation of travel intention.

Apart from the three independent variables, two mediating factors, push-based travel motivation and travel attitude showed significant direct and indirect relationships on travel intention. The total effect of push-based travel motivation on travel intention (0.225) was found to be stronger than of travel attitude.

To sum up, push-based travel motivation has the strongest total effect on travel intention, followed by travel attitude and present time perspective. Future time perspective has the lowest total effect on travel intention among all variables.

Table 6-21. Direct, indirect, and total effects of the final SEM

	TM			ATT			TI		
	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
PAST	0.541***	-	0.541***	0.040	0.021*	0.021*	0.094	0.137*	0.137*
PRE	0.218***	-	0.218***	0.121*	0.026*	0.147*	0.120*	0.088*	0.208*
FUT	0.095*	-	0.095*	0.142*	0.014*	0.156*	0.075**	0.038*	0.133*
TM	-	-	-	0.192**	-	-	0.185*	0.040*	0.225*
ATT	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.210***	-	0.210***

Note: * Significant path at 5% level; ** Significant path at 1% level; *** Significant path at 0.1% level. PAST = Past time perspective; PRE = Present time perspective; FUT = Future time perspective; TM = Push-based travel motivation; ATT = Travel attitude; TI = Travel intention

6.4. Summary

This chapter reports on the analysis of the quantitative studies. The results of EFA reveal that push-based travel motivation yield four underlying dimensions, fun and escape, knowledge and experience seeking, self-fulfilment needs, and family & friends togetherness. CFA indicated that the measurement models have good model fit, and exceed the recommended levels of construct reliability, discriminant validity and convergent validity. SEM was used to examine all proposed hypothesis based on the results of CFA. The results demonstrate that ten out of twelve paths were statistically supported. Present time perspective and future time perspective have significant impacts on travel intention, whereas past time perspective does not. push-based travel motivation and travel attitude are the antecedents of travel intention. push-based travel motivation leads to travel attitude. Additionally, push-based travel motivation is significantly affected by three types of time perspective. Present time perspective and future time perspective are both found to have significant effect on travel attitude, but past time perspective are not. In that case, H1, H5, & H7 are partially supported and H2, H3, H4, H6, and H8 are supported. Finally, mediating effects between three types of time perspective and travel intention are identified by bootstrapping, through both push-based travel motivation and travel attitude.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1. Introduction

Time perspective has long been considered as having the potential to predict individual future behaviour, but its role in the tourism industry has not yet been examined adequately. The present study extends the existing literature regarding tourist behaviour to the psychological realm by further investigating several related theories to understand the influences on travel intention. In particular, this study examines the influences of three types of time perspectives, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention. It also examines the mediating effects between three types of time perspectives and travel intention via push-based travel motivation and travel attitude. Finally, the relationships between push-based travel motivation, travel attitude and travel intention are also explored. The main points pertaining to each of the four research objectives are discussed below. Both theoretical and practical implications are outlined. Finally, conclusions, limitations, and directions for future research are also highlighted.

7.2. Discussion

This section discusses the results of the present study by incorporating them into relevant findings in the existing literature and is divided into two parts. The first part examines the direct effects based on the stated objectives in Chapter one, while

the second discusses the mediating effects of push-based travel motivation and travel attitude on the relationship between time perspective and travel intention.

7.2.1. Objective one: The impacts of various time perspectives on travel intention

Time perspective explains the way decision-making by humans is framed by biased temporal orientations one tends to prefer and often end up overusing (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). It serves as a reliable and psychological factor that leads an individual to act in certain ways and at any given time and day. It is believed that the induction of a particular time perspective affects travel intention. Although the impact of the time perspective on behavioural intention has been frequently documented in the leisure, environmental, and psychological studies, its role and predictive power in relation to other psychological variables has received scant attention in the tourism literature. The present study has taken a step to explore the effects of three types of time perspectives on the three closely related concepts, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention.

The main survey confirms that the present time perspective has a direct impact on behavioural intention, and this provides reasonably consistent evidence of previous leisure studies. As addressed in the literature, a high level of present time perspective results in higher possibility to exhibit a behaviour which associates with pleasure and novelty seeking. An individual with present time perspective believes

travel abroad is an opportunity to seek fun, sensation, and unique experience, and avoid being unhappy. This mindset can perhaps be partly attributed to a depressed mood and a feeling of powerlessness. For instance, the housing crisis in Hong Kong is a big issue, and owning a home is an impossible dream for most Hong Kong residents due to the unaffordable housing prices. This notorious problem has been motivating Hong Kong residents to look for immediate rewards and *carpe diem* rather than concern for the future (i.e., getting on the housing ladder). They would like to enjoy an exotic and indulgent vacation and escape any difficulties associated with the current situation. The findings thus suggest that individuals who attach great importance to the consequences of their actions are more likely to visit a particular destination.

Although the results are in accordance with a vast number of studies, a few exceptions that showed the opposite findings were also found. For instance, Lu et al. (2016) find no significant impact of the present time perspective on behavioural intention. The differences between Lu et al. (2016) and the results of this study could be explained by the notable differences in the sample population in terms of the sample size and the profile. They sampled 360 senior Chinese residents with a strong bias towards remembering “old days” and saving money for the next generation, so they were not willing to travel abroad. Second, the cultural factor. While senior Chinese and Hong Kong residents share some common cultural values; there still exist some common values among people in China and Hong Kong. Hong Kong residents tend to be more “Westernized” which result from the influence of

being a British colony since the 18th century, and therefore the emphasis is on both immediate and long-term gratification and enjoyment, while senior Chinese residents are more tilted toward the traditional Confucian values, which tend to de-emphasize short-term gratification.

This study has also demonstrated that tourists' future time perspective positively affects travel intention. In other words, the stronger of a future time perspective an individual has, the more positively he/she would likely to travel abroad. This is consistent with earlier findings suggesting that future time oriented individuals tend to undertake activities that they perceive as goal-oriented or productive during their free time (Shores & Scott, 2007). Indeed, a satisfactory and meaningful vacation determines whether the expectations are being met, and the perceived benefits and risks are being anticipated (Lin, Lee, & Wang, 2012). It may be argued that respondents evaluate various potential risks, and possible options as well as planning processes that they use to obtain the best outcomes. In this case, tourists value all expected outcomes derived from the trip, when making travel decisions. Thus, this study further supports that tourists with future time perspective make travel decisions based on the trade-off between what is given and what is received. Additionally, the positive and significant path between travel intention and future time perspective might be pointing at the "beneficial" effect that travel abroad has on this time perspective. Travel abroad helps broaden horizons and gain life experience, and develop a person's capabilities and potential (Lo & Lee, 2011). So, they are more likely to spend more time on planning vacation and take enriching

vacations (Bergadaa, 1990). In summary, future time-oriented Hong Kong tourists are definitely pragmatic.

It is important to acknowledge that this study found a non-significant association between past time perspective and travel intention, which establishes an empirical basis for concluding that this time perspective is dysfunctional. Indeed, past time perspective reflects an anxious cognitive style (Tekeş, Özdemir, & Özkan, 2020). When making decisions, people using past time perspectives may process their negative past experiences, which reflects higher anxiety levels. Thus, their decisions are largely associated with engagement in low-risk behaviours. Garcia and Ruiz (2015) note that an individual with past time perspective is more engaged in indoor activities (i.e., listening to music and the radio, and reading books) than outdoor activities, which may partly indicate why past oriented people tend to be unlikely travellers. Despite past time perspective evidently being deemed essential from the theoretical point of view, this study concludes that tourists' travel intention to visit a particular destination is primarily affected by present and future time perspectives.

7.2.2. Objective two: The influences of various time perspectives on travel attitude and on travel motivation

In the present study, push-based travel motivation is confirmed and identified as a second order factor and includes four factors: namely fun and escape, knowledge and experience seeking, self-fulfilment needs, and family and friends togetherness.

Although data were not available to test the relative impacts of the time perspective on each push factor, this study also confirms that time perspective is a significant variable in explaining why people engage in travel. Generally speaking, the findings support that the motivational – cognitive process exists between time perspective and push-based travel motivation, where potential tourists from Hong Kong were motivated to travel abroad as travel is seen to be consistent with their distant time perspective. In terms of hypotheses testing, this study supports the hypotheses regarding different time perspectives exert essential influences on people’s push travel motivation, and shows a result accord with previous leisure studies in terms of the relationship between perceived benefits and time perspective. Garcia and Ruiz (2015) found that past oriented people are more associated with sociability. These individuals enjoy visiting nostalgic places and activities that involve the creation and maintenance of relationships with family and friends (Shores & Scott, 2007). Present time perspective is more related to the joy and the pleasure of the current moment and novelty seeking (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). This study presents additional support to the notion that Hong Kong potential tourists are spontaneous and prefer to live in the moment. Future time perspective is intensively related to goal setting, learning and competence testing. The findings of the current study reflect those of Shore and Scott (2007) who also found that self-fulfilment, and knowledge and experience seeking are the key push factors. It may conclude that emphasis on achieving future goals is a trigger for seeking self-fulfilment, and new experiences and knowledge through pleasure travel.

In terms of the relationships between the three types of time perspective and travel attitude, the effect of past time perspective on travel attitude was not found to be significant. Although some scholars have proved that there is no association between past time perspective and attitude, Phau, Quintal, Marchegiani, and Lee (2016) stated that a sentimental longing for the past lead an orientation toward behavioural belief, explaining its positive correlation to travel attitude. Therefore, the findings of this study seem somewhat puzzling. The significant positive effect of present time perspective on travel attitude was predictable and confirmed. Such a finding is in keeping with what Valizadeh et al. (2018) and Milfont and Gouveia (2006) reported in their environmental studies. That is, present oriented tourists are not distracted by the future and tend to have a positive attitude towards travel without feeling concerned for the future consequences. Their positive attitude toward travel implies that present oriented tourists display a certain degree of immediate reward seeking because travel abroad is coherent with a short term pleasant and exciting experience. Future time perspective can lead to travel attitude. Theoretically, this finding can be explained by the planned theory which posits that attitude can be formed by the perceived likelihood of particular outcomes occurring (Ajzen, 1991). Individuals are more likely to have a favourable attitude if they believe that the behaviour will produce a positive outcome. In this situation, it can therefore be assumed that future time-oriented tourists who actively pursuit their future goals and with a greater anticipation of future rewards have a strong desires and beliefs about travel, and, therefore, value them higher.

7.2.3. Objective three: the relationships among travel motivation, travel attitude and travel intention

SEM results indicate that push-based travel motivation has a positive effect on travel intention. Given that no significant domestic travel can take place within Hong Kong, residents are very fond of outbound travel to look for a truly memorable and unique travel experience. Lee, Guillet, Law, and Leung (2012) identified that Hong Kong residents' motivational factors are not robust enough to explain outbound travel demand. The association recognized in their study recruited a sample of Hong Kong residents regarding their travel experiences in the past twelve months. Nowacki (2009) suggests that "measuring motivation after the experience is loaded with too large an error because of the benefits gained, which disrupt the original picture of motivation" (p. 307). Thus, captured tourist motivation during, or post a visit may not have reflected tourists' real motivation because motivations may have changed during the period of travel. This study instead measured Hong Kong tourists' travel motivation before the actual travel and the link between push-based travel motivation and the likelihood of visiting a destination. The findings explicitly provide evidence that the more tourists are motivated to travel, the higher the chances that they will travel abroad in the coming twelve months.

The results obtained in the present study provide much support to the hypothesis that travel attitudes have been an important factor in intention to travel abroad. This

result mirrors those of the previous studies that have established the importance of attitude in relation to behavioural intention (Park et al., 2017; Seow et al., 2017). Moreover, although having different focuses and contexts, the study shows results somewhat similar to another tourism study which also indicated that Hong Kong tourists have a positive emotional response to travel abroad (Xu, Chan, & Pratt, 2018). This result may be explained by the fact that Hong Kong residents have a lot of enthusiasm for travel. Outbound travel is the necessity of life for Hong Kong residents (Guillet et al., 2011). Nevertheless, the results of the present study might seem to contradict previous findings, which revealed insignificant effect of Chinese outbound tourists' travel attitude on travel intention (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009). A possible explanation for this lies in the fact that Chinese outbound tourists are known for their collectivist outlook and are more affected by social and peer groups, thus, social norms play a key role in decision-making and destination selection (Hsu & Huang, 2012), while Hong Kong prospective tourists are relatively guided by personal-intrinsic values and beliefs (Lo & Lee, 2011).

One interesting finding is presented regarding the relationship between push-based travel motivation and travel attitude, based on the results of structural equation modelling. The results showed that push-based travel motivation positively impacts travel attitude. The stronger the behavioural belief of travel motivation, the higher positive and favourable attitude towards travel abroad. Theoretically, this finding may be explained by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), which suggests that an individual's attitude towards behaviour is derived from behavioural beliefs,

implying that cognitive motivation may impact affective attitude. Gnoth (1997) also argued that motivation engenders and builds on attitude. From the empirical standpoint, this finding provides a further evidence for the connection between motivation and attitude (Hsu et al., 2010; Pereira et al., in press).

7.2.4. Objective four: The mediating effects of travel motivation and travel attitude on the relationship between the three types of time perspectives and travel intention

With regard to mediating relationships, this study also tested whether the relationship between the time perspective and travel intention is mediated by push-based travel motivation or travel attitude. Although the direct effects of past time perspective on travel intention and travel attitude were not significant, mediating effects were confirmed between past time perspective and travel intention through push-based travel motivation and travel attitude. In other words, this study confirms the mediating roles of push-based travel motivation and travel attitude, which had significantly positive effects on the relationship between time perspective and intention to travel abroad. This suggests that temporal considerations in which individuals characteristically focus on the past, present, and/or future induce them to fulfilment of their internal needs of travel, influence the formation of a favourable attitude toward visiting a particular destination, and this favourable attitude in-turn facilitates tourists' expectations of future travel to the said destination for vacation

purpose. In summary, the effects of past orientation on travel intention and travel attitude are not significant.

As shown in Table 6.14, the study also found that push-based travel motivation appears to be the most important construct for travel intention than other variables. That is to say, the driving force within tourists that impels them to travel abroad (coefficient = 0.225) may be even more important for prediction of travel intention than positive attitude towards visiting a destination (coefficient = 0.210), present time perspective (coefficient = 0.113), past time perspective (coefficient = 0.137), and future time perspective (coefficient = 0.133). The general tourism literature shows an individual's intrinsic needs are more important than the emotions towards the destination, knowledge, and perceptions in influencing tourist behaviour (Hsu & Huang, 2012; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Lu et al., 2016). This offers some clues to explain why push-based travel motivation show the greatest impact on travel intention.

7.3. Conclusions

This thesis aims to bridge the knowledge gap by investigating the role of the time perspective in tourism studies and its impact on travel intention. For this reason, the study combined qualitative and quantitative approaches. First, a thoughtful literature review was conducted to develop a conceptual model and hypothesis about the relations between the key constructs. The results of literature review

indicated that it was a need to develop new instruments for travel motivation. Thus, a qualitative study was adopted for scale development. More specifically, two rounds of focus interviews were conducted to build the measurement pool for push-based travel motivation. The results of the focus group interviews showed that Hong Kong potential tourists had a wide range of travel motives. Eventually, a total of eight factors that functioned as stimuli to travel abroad were identified. Items derived from the literature review and focus group interviews were transferred to expert panel for further validation and improvement. The panel members consisted of tourism scholars with expertise in tourist behaviour and experienced tourists. After validation and refinement of the items, a preliminary questionnaire was developed for pilot testing.

The second stage involved a quantitative approach which aimed to test whether the proposed theoretical model is accepted or rejected in the tourism domain. A pilot test was used to test the feasibility of the main survey in terms of wordings, design, and format. It also provided an opportunity to check the reliability and validity of the data. Hong Kong residents who plan to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming twelve months were invited to fill in an online survey via snowball sampling. As a result, 150 responses were received. The main survey was revised based on the results of the pilot study.

The main survey was conducted between September and December 2020. Owing to the current situation of COVID-19, the main survey was posted on several Hong

Kong based online travel communities. In total, 519 responses qualified for data analysis. Of the seven hypotheses, four were fully supported, while three were partially supported. Present and future time perspectives were found to have positive impacts on travel intention, whereas past time perspective did not show a significant relationship with travel intention. Push-based travel motivation and travel attitude were found to be the determinants of travel intention. Three types of time perspectives were stated to have positive impacts on push-based travel motivation, but only present and future time perspectives had positive influences on travel attitude. A new path was also identified based on the suggestion of SEM, where push-based travel motivation was shown a positive impact on travel attitude. Finally, mediating effects of push-based travel motivation and travel attitude on the correlations between three types of time perspectives and travel intention are identified by bootstrapping. The results indicate that the mediating roles of push-based travel motivation and travel attitude had significantly positive effects on the relationship between three types of time perspective and travel intention.

From a broad theoretical perspective, this study demonstrates that travel intention can be directly and indirectly derived from time perspective, travel attitude and push-based travel motivation. A clear implication of this study is that the travel intention takes place in a multi-faceted psychological process and travel intention is not only dependent on certain needs of the tourist but is also influenced by the tourist's emotional feelings towards travel as well as the temporal consideration focusing on the past, present, and/or future. Interestingly, little effort has been made

to explore this arena. This study has made a pioneering effort to apply time perspective in the tourism domain and develops a framework to underscore the direct and mediating effects of time perspective on travel intention. This study also enriches the understanding of push-based travel motivation and travel attitude as mediators in the tourism literature. Travel motivation varies over time and depends upon respondents' socio-demographic profiles (Kim & Prideaux, 2005). No universally accepted measure is yet available for Hong Kong tourists. This study fills this gap by providing a robust measurement instrument.

The empirical evidence presented in this study will be beneficial for destination management organisations (DMOs) and tourism planners for the design and implementation of promotion strategies to attract the Hong Kong population. Contemporary Hong Kong tourists may look for a unique experience that differs from the usual every-day one, and matched to their temporal consideration. This is an appropriate strategy to attract more Hong Kong tourists and it is something that DMOs should take into account when designing their marketing campaigns. This study also addresses the relationships among push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention to provide insights for tourism promotion strategy formulation. Tourism bodies from overseas may learn from this study for deeper understanding of Hong Kong tourists' characteristics, in terms of push travel factors, attitudes towards travel abroad, and travel planning, so as to maintain and boost the tourism development.

7.4. Implications

7.4.1. Theoretical implications

When viewing travel as a form of mobility, the role of an individual's temporal considerations focusing past, present, or future in relation to travel intention need to be understood and recognized. Time perspective, an important psychological concept, suggests perceptions of time influence emotions, perceptions, and future actions (Zimbardo et al., 1997). A combination of psychology and marketing approaches allowed this study to link and integrate some important psychological variables into the tourism context. This echoes Bergadaa (1990) who pointed out future research needs to study the applicability of cognitive temporal model in other domains, and test whether and how the individual's action is influenced by different types of time perspectives. As the discussion has shown in the previous section, the present study provides implications for scholars in the following ways.

Prior to this study the role of time perspective in tourism studies was unknown. This study provides the first comprehensive application of time perspective to the tourism domain and examines the interrelationships among time perspective, push-based travel motivation, travel attitude, and travel intention. The framework underscores the direct and indirect effects of time perspective on travel intention. Time perspective has long been examined in predicting pro-environmental attitudes and behaviours, health concerns, financial risk taking, and academic achievement. Nevertheless, its role in prediction of tourist behaviour, more particularly, its

relationship with travel intention has been largely missing from the tourism literature. In this study, the time perspective comprises of three dimensions, namely past, present, and future time perspective, and present and future time perspectives are shown to have impacts on travel intention. Present and future oriented tourists are more likely to have a higher possibility of travelling abroad, while past oriented tourists do not. These findings suggest that their travel decisions are dependent on whether the expected benefits and enjoyment derived from the trip are being met rather than remembering the good old days. The results of time perspective provide additional findings for tourism researchers to understand the antecedents of travel intention.

Push-based travel motivation and travel attitude have been empirically shown to play mediating roles between time perspective and travel intention. It was found that three types of time perspectives can indirectly influence travel intention through push-based travel motivation and travel attitude. A higher push-based travel motivation can bolster the travel intention for the same time perspective. Likewise, travel attitude can strengthen or weaken the travel intention for the same time perspective but at a relatively moderate scale. If these findings are further validated by future studies, there may be important potential implications for theories predicting tourist behaviour because prior studies have put in much effort on either attitude or motivation as predictor.

Considering the direct and indirect effects of time perspective on travel intention, the findings contribute to current theories in four ways. First, Bergadaa's (1990) proposal for the construction of a cognitive temporal model in the tourism context is reinforced. Second, it provides empirical support to Gnoth's (1997) conceptual framework in which travel motivation precedes attitude. Third, this study has made an important contribution to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) by addressing the lack of consistency regarding the role of attitude in determining behavioural intention. Finally, the findings have added to a growing body of literature on the theory of travel motivation (Crompton, 1979).

Some studies have applied the short version of ZTPI to measure time perspectives, however existing scale items have failed to reveal stable internal consistency, discriminant, and concurrent validity because they were simply brought in from the existing literature without robust investigation. Thus, the development of a systemic scale that is a shorter version of ZTPI with a comprehensive understanding of its factor structure and application in a collectivist society is necessary. Following a thorough scale development process, the findings of the shorter version of ZTPI yielded good reliability and validity and could serve as the basis for further empirical study, particularly for sample populations having cultural backgrounds and values similar to those of Hong Kong residents. Furthermore, future research could also adapt this scale to predict other key outcome variables (e.g., perceived risks, values and destination images, and engagement). Although a shorter version of ZTPI in this study is readily applicable to capture time perspective, different

operational frameworks and conceptualizations compared with the present study are needed to extend the concept of time perspective to another realm.

Furthermore, the study has provided additional theoretical and empirical evidence with respect to the role of tourists' motivation on destinations. More specifically, the findings of this study reveal that travel motivation is a key feature of understanding and answering the question "Why do people want to travel?" Furthermore, the findings accords with Crompton and McKay (1997), which showed that travel motivation is multifaceted. In this instance, it was found that travel motivation can be represented by four dimensions, namely fun and escape, knowledge and experience seeking, self-fulfilment needs, and family and friends togetherness. Similar to other nationalities, Hong Kong tourists are driven by motivational factors in the forms of seeking potential rewards (e.g., fun, and knowledge), escaping from personal and interpersonal situations, as well as building and maintaining social relationships (Lee & Crompton, 1992; Li & Cai, 2012; Wang et al., 2016). Thus, these four push factors might be understood as the "backbone" of Hong Kong tourists' travel motives. The research has also shown that incorporating both qualitative and quantitative approaches can offer various perspectives into travel motivation studies that extend beyond the existing literature. Such a design offers further evidence that overcomes the measurement bias emanating from researcher subjectivity. Therefore, this study contributes to the extant literature by developing a measure of push-based travel motivation, which

establishes the basis for future study. For example, the items for push travel factors could be used to explore its antecedents and consequences.

7.4.2. Practical implications

Because of the COVID-19 pandemic, currently visiting a destination for vacation purposes is strongly discouraged. Understanding tourists' travel behaviour can provide tourism operators and planners insights that may help boost the post-pandemic tourism recovery. It should be noted that tourists are afraid of travel due to the perceived severity and possibility of being affected by COVID-19 (Zheng, Luo, & Ritchie, 2021). Thus, in the post-pandemic period, destination management organisations (DMOs) need to put in serious efforts and use innovative and different strategies to stimulate tourists' interest in undertaking travel, and to demonstrate that travel is as much fun as it was before the pandemic. This study offers valuable data that answer several key questions of practitioners. These are discussed next.

This study shows that different time perspectives influence Hong Kong tourists' travel intentions differently. This may suggest that tourists with different time perspectives could become different segments for marketing by DMOs. For tourism companies, market research should be first conducted to identify the time perspectives of the desired target groups and consequently they should design the promotional plans in accord with that information. Garcia and Ruiz (2015) found that a present orientation places great reliance on social networks, whereas a future

orientation is more likely to be influenced by newspapers and magazines. Past oriented people are often influenced by TV advertising. In this regard, online marketing campaigns can be made appealing to individuals with present time perspective by featuring immediate rewards associated with travel abroad. For example, tourism businesses can offer online limited time offers and special discounts to stimulate time-oriented tourists' interest to travel. Furthermore, tourism businesses can manipulate the future time perspective in print advertising to offset any negative benefits from the trip and encourage a more positive outcome of the trip. Promotional materials could show the tourist(s) dreaming about being the competent persons after visiting a destination. One of the examples might be to show one looking at a brochure describing the tourist(s) and saying, "This is the kind of person I want to be after vacation". Although those with past time perspectives did not show as much interest in travel abroad, tourism businesses can emphasize nostalgic images with heritage visitation for attracting tourists from Hong Kong.

Another important practical implication associated with the time perspective, travel intention relationship, is to provide DMOs with a direction for special interest tourism development, such as nostalgia tourism, voluntourism and slow tourism. Voluntourism offers meaningful travel experience as it invites tourists to participate in voluntary work during their visit. This increasingly popular form of tourism appeals to future-oriented tourists who aim for personal growth and self-achievement. Voluntourism has provided more and more tourists the opportunities

to achieve both altruism (e.g., contributing to local communities) and egotism (e.g., explore new life meaning, and increasing new knowledge and experience), rather than merely pursuing a “normal” travel experience (Lu, Chan, & Cheung, 2020). Similarly, by participating slow tourism, tourists are able to experience a deep and authentic experience within the journey through participation in relatively slower forms of travel, such as travel less and stay longer in the community (Oh, Assaf, & Baloglu, 2016). On the other hand, Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003) found that people with present time perspectives are highly inclined toward hedonic pursuits, when making decisions. Engineering tourism products and promotions associated with enjoyable and memorable experiences may be beneficial for tourism planners as they can target an individual’s present time perspective by directing greater attention toward their hedonic characteristics. It should be noted that tourists having had higher levels of pleasure reveal higher favourable behavioural intentions in terms of loyalty and willingness to pay more (Oliver, 2010). Additionally, past time perspective tourists are attracted to destinations because of a desire to revisit the same cultural environment and to relive personal bygone experiences. DMOs may activate, stimulate, and promote nostalgia tourism in their advertising campaigns using refined photography and promotional videos. As indicated in this study, time perspective helps foster positive push-based travel motivation and travel attitude and therefore increase the possibility of travel in the future. There is a need to promote these kinds of special interest tourism and create attractions to increase the number of tourist arrivals. Likewise, DMOs should advise the stakeholders to invest in infrastructure of the particular site to deal with the needs of these kinds of tourism.

Virtual reality (VR) use in tourism research may become a method during the COVID-19 transition period. Lu et al. (In press) suggested that people become more inclined to see AR as a potential substitute for traditional travel during the pandemic. In terms of functionality, VR could reduce the frequency of tourist movements and allow tourists to experience tourism destinations or attractions without physically visiting the place. In this situation, DMOs, especially for attraction management organisations, are advised to develop and offer VR-based site visits via mobile app or videos. For instance, attraction site managers are recommended to offer exciting and interesting virtual tours, with the concept of “edutainment”, to tourists with present and future time perspectives. In order to survive, it is imperative to add economic value to virtual tours. It is up to attraction site managers to make use of the resources and the ability to recognise the gap between tourists’ expectations towards AR and their interest to visit a site which eventually leads to the purchase intention.

Fourth, the findings indicate that travel attitude and push-based travel motivation mediate the impacts of the three-time perspectives on tourists' travel intention. Also, the findings reveal that both tourists’ travel attitude and push-based travel motivation positively and significantly impact the intention to visit a destination. In this regard, motivating the tourists to satisfy their travel needs and changing their behaviour to influence their attitudes toward visiting a destination are considered to be crucial aspects, which in turn can lead to high possibility of visiting a destination.

Therefore, DMOSs could concentrate on those tourists who have a strong travel desire by promoting the appropriate tourism product and destination according to their respective time perspectives. Tourism practitioners should consider developing a fit to arousal outbound travel intentions. More specifically, DMOs should develop promotional strategies to attract tourists to a particular destination by emphasising affective elements rather than functional attributes. Storytelling can be a powerful tool to explicate a destination associated with emotional and symbolic images that help tourists understand a destination's particular qualities in accordance with time perspective (Megehee & Woodside, 2010).

Finally, the scale for push travel factors developed through stringent procedures in this study can be employed by the DMOs to measure the level of travel motivation from the perspectives of Hong Kong tourists. The findings of this study propose fun and escape as the key travel motivation. Consistent with the results of focus group and main survey, fun and escape was identified as one of the primary travel motives. Thus, the promoting materials presented in websites, TV or magazines should be able to carry the message of a fun, hassle-free, and exciting vacation. The second dimension is knowledge and experience seeking. Tourism planners should offer an opportunity for an interesting learning experience. The destination and tourism products should highlight a vacation as a journey of exploration and enrichment. Meanwhile, the self-fulfilment dimension reflects potential Hong Kong tourists' interest in completing their bucket lists by travelling abroad. Thus, promoting the attractiveness of the UNESCO World Heritage Site and UNESCO Intangible

Cultural Heritage as well as unique characteristics of the attraction may generate considerable advantages for destinations. Finally, the dimension, family, and friends togetherness, captures potential Hong Kong tourists' interest in involving family and friends in their overseas trips which co-creates an intimate relationship. The respondents in this study seem to be sociable and to enjoy interacting with family and friends. DMOs might stress the quality of tourist – tourist interaction rather than the mere quantity of interaction (Huang & Hsu, 2010). In this regard, group activities that require teamwork and special interest activities could be developed to enhance the closeness with family and friends, thereby encouraging the formation of more friendly and harmonious relationships. In short, this study provides DMOs with a valuable insight into the formation of marketing campaigns in accordance with tourists' travel motivation and behaviour.

7.5. Limitations and future studies

The following paragraphs describe the limitations of the study. The most important limitation lies in the fact that the sample population of this study included Hong Kong residents who were planning / or seriously thinking about travel abroad and thus the findings had a bias towards high travel intention and might not be generalizable to populations other than Hong Kong. Future research directions could replicate other regions or samples to reduce the bias of confirmation, culture, and geography, and compare whether the findings presented are in accord with those conducted in other populations elsewhere. Another possible area of future

research would be to perform a multigroup structural equation modelling to see if there is a difference in the time perspective – behaviour relationship between tourists and non-tourists.

A further constraint is about the methodology. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the samples were recruited via online survey. Hwang and Fesenmaier (2004) suggest that using online survey often leads to self-selection bias, resulting in over-representation in the sample population. This may mean potential tourists who have a higher probability of being approached in online travel communities and are more likely to hold diverse opinions towards travel abroad compared with those who did not participate. In addition, the sampling strategy employed was convenience sampling in main survey. Random sampling was not a feasible option for this study due to the unknown proportion of the entire population. An interesting avenue of investigation might be to adopt mixed research methods (e.g., face-to-face survey plus experiments) with probability sampling.

Fourth, asking respondents to indicate their intended destination without specifying any geographical location may have caused problems. It is possible that the level of tourist perceptions differs by the type of destination to be visited. Future studies should be altered to address limitations of this study.

One source of weakness was relatively low explanatory power among constructs. The extent of an individual's time perspective in human behaviour is dependent on

many factors, some of which have not been considered in this research. As the number of outbound tourists with travel experience is increasing, future research must include other factors, such as past travel experience, perceived value and satisfaction, when modelling the outcomes of time perspective.

Furthermore, push-based travel motivation in this study is coined as aggregation second-order factor model. The impact of each travel motivation on other constructs is highly neglected. A greater focus on each travel motivation in relation to other constructs could produce interesting findings.

This study was undertaken during COVID-19 pandemic, however, it required respondents to answer the survey without considering the intervention of the COVID-19 pandemic. This approach is not without problems because the respondents' feelings and responses may be attached to the global outbreak of COVID-19. The reliability and validity of this study are questionable. Further studies, which take this potential limitation into account, will need to be undertaken. Questions regarding how COVID-19 affects travel behaviour can also be included. Recent studies have suggested that people's travel behaviour in the post-pandemic period may be significantly different than before (Wachyuni & Kusumaningrum, 2020; Zheng et al., 2021). It is believed that tourists will hold different attitudes and opinions associated with post-pandemic travel. A further study might target longitudinal studies or data collection at different points in time that track tourist

behaviour over time, for example after the travel ban is lifted or after COVID-19 has completely ended.

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Appendix 2 - Focus group interview guide (Bilingual version)

Focus Group Interview Guide 焦點小組討論指南

Impacts of Time Perspectives on Tourists' Travel Intention: The Mediating Roles of Travel Motivation and Travel Attitude

時間觀對香港旅客的外遊意向 -

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the captioned research study. Before your participation in the focus group interview, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information.

多謝參與是次焦點小組討論。於正式開始前，請細閱以下資料。

Objectives:

This study is not intended to understand your travel decision during the period of the COVID-19 pandemic. Instead, please share your travel decision and plan in general.

- to obtain in-depth information describing Hong Kong tourists' motivations of visiting a destination;
- to initially explore the relationship between tourist' time perspective and intention to travel;
- to generate specific items for the subsequent quantitative scale development process

本人研究目標:

- 了解香港旅客外遊的動機
- 探索香港旅客的時間觀與旅遊意向的關係
- 獲取合適的資料作下一步研究

Why have I been invited to participate?

You have been selected by quota sampling technique based on your demographic profile and that you plan to travel to travel abroad for pleasure in the coming six months. Other informants will also be involved in the focus group interview in which you are going to participate.

為什麼我會被邀請?

我們主要根據你的個人特徵及外遊意向。

Do I have to take part?

Your participation to the research is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time when you do not want to continue your participation, and without giving a reason.

我必須參加嗎？

全屬自願性質，可隨時退出。

What will happen to me if I take part?

You will participate in an approximately 30-60 minutes focus group interview conducted via ZOOM, together with 8-10 other participants. The interview will be video recorded with your consent. The interview will be conducted in Cantonese.

同意參加後，會有甚麼情況？

你將與 8 至 10 名的參與者共同進行 Zoom 的網上討論，並以廣東話形式進行，預計 45 至 60 分鐘。參加者可選擇露面或不露面討論，內容將會記錄，只作學術用途。

What are the values of this study?

You will have an opportunity to find out more about who you are and your temporal consideration when making decision. The results of this research are expected to contribute to our understanding on HK tourists' travel motivation. Recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of tourism marketing campaign based on the potential findings of this research.

此研究有何重要？

研究結果可加深業界對香港人的外遊動機，有助制訂相關的旅遊政策和宣傳策略。參加者有機會更了解自己時間觀。

Will my personal information be kept confidential?

Your personal credentials will be kept confidential while information obtained from the interview will solely be used for academic and research purposes. Confidentiality of the data will be guaranteed between you and the researchers as well as among the participants in the same focus group. The data will be presented in a way that your identity will not be disclosed.

私隱及保密

您的資料絕對保密。所有資料及網上討論等內容僅作學術及研究用途。

Who can I contact for further information? 聯絡人資料

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Thank you very much for your participation in the research.

多謝參與是次研究。

Appendix 3 - The Moderator' Guide

This focus group interview intends to obtain in-depth information describing Hong Kong tourists' motivations of visiting a destination. Please feel free to share with me any of your travel motives related to destination choice and there should be not any right or wrong answers to any questions asked by the moderator.

You are assured that all the information collected from this interview will only be used for academic and research purposes. Confidentiality is guaranteed.

Interview Questions:

1. Would you please share with me your recent travel experience? (Warm up)

分享您最近一次的旅遊體驗

Probing: ask the respondents to provide as much as details of the travel characteristics as they can:

- When? Where? Who? Duration? How many people are involved? FIT or group tour?

2. What motivates you to travel? (Core question) 為何想去旅遊?

Probing:

- When? Where? Who? Duration?
- Can you describe how intrinsic motive(s) push you to travel?
- What qualities make a destination attractive to you to travel?

3. What do you think about time perspective? 據您認知，什麼是時間觀?

Probing:

- How do you define time perspective?
- How do you interpret time perspective in relation to travel intention to visit a destination?
- To what extent do you agree that time perspective affects your intention to travel?
- If yes, why? or if no, please explain

Appendix 4 – Pilot test questionnaire (English)

Impacts of Time Perspectives on Tourists’ Travel Intention: The Mediating Roles of Travel Motivation and Travel Attitude

I am a PhD candidate from the Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies at the Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University. I am now conducting a survey about Hong Kong tourists’ time perspective, travel motivations, travel attitude, and intention to visit a destination. Your response can help tourism practitioners strengthen their understanding of Hong Kong tourists’ behaviour. Your participation in this survey is voluntary. All data will be kept strictly confidential and be used for academic purpose only. It will take about 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation.

Section I. Screening Questions

1. Are you a Hong Kong permanent resident over age 18?
 Yes No (Terminate)

2. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, do you have any travel plans for the next 12 months?
 Yes No (Terminate)

Section II. Time perspective

In this section, the questions are designed to understand your time perspective. Please read each question and answer the question: “*How characteristic or true is this of you?*”. Select the appropriate answer based on the scale provided. (1 = Very uncharacteristic, 2 = Uncharacteristic, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Characteristic, 5 = Very characteristic).

		Very uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neutral	Characteristic	Very characteristic
1.	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Things rarely work out as I expected.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past.	1	2	3	4	5

5.	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Family childhood, sights, sounds, smells often bring back a lot of wonderful memories.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	It is important to put excitement in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	It gives me pleasure to think about my past.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I make decisions on the spur of the moment.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I get nostalgic about my childhood.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	1	2	3	4	5

Section III. Travel motivation – Push factors

In this section, the questions are designed to explore your push motives for pleasure vacation. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting appropriate number, where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong agree
1.	To strengthen family and friend ties	1	2	3	4	5
2.	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	1	2	3	4	5
3.	To visit a destination that I have never been to	1	2	3	4	5
4.	To spend my free time/holiday	1	2	3	4	5
5.	To give my body a rest	1	2	3	4	5

6.	To travel as much as possible before my vigor degenerates	1	2	3	4	5
7.	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	1	2	3	4	5
8.	To finish my bucket list	1	2	3	4	5
9.	To enjoy shopping	1	2	3	4	5
10.	To go on pilgrimage or worship	1	2	3	4	5
11.	To challenge my physical abilities	1	2	3	4	5
12.	To see how local people live and their way of life	1	2	3	4	5
13.	To visit friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5
14.	To have a feeling like I am on an adventure	1	2	3	4	5
15.	To have fun and/or be entertained	1	2	3	4	5
16.	To get away from daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
17.	To make new friends	1	2	3	4	5
18.	To know more about family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
19.	To inspect a place for future immigration or study	1	2	3	4	5
20.	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	1	2	3	4	5
21.	To fulfill self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	1	2	3	4	5
22.	To spend time with family and friends on trip	1	2	3	4	5
23.	To broaden my horizon	1	2	3	4	5
24.	To visit certain places at least once in a lifetime	1	2	3	4	5
25.	To get away from daily stress/pressure	1	2	3	4	5
26.	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	1	2	3	4	5
27.	To create good memory with friends and family	1	2	3	4	5

Section IV. Travel attitude towards a destination

In this section, the questions are designed to describe travel attitude that you may have towards a destination. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting appropriate number, where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong agree
1.	Exciting	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Interesting	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Attractive	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Good	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Wise	1	2	3	4	5

8.	Arousing	1	2	3	4	5
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Section V. Travel intention

In this section, the questions are designed to understand your travel intention to visit a destination in the near future. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting appropriate number, where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong agree
1.	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	1	2	3	4	5

Section VI. Trip information

- What is your destination for the next 12 months?

- How many days are you planning to stay at a destination?
 1 – 2 days 3 – 5 days 6 – 8 days
 9 days or above
- How many times have you travelled to that destination? (for leisure purpose)
 None 1 – 3 times 4 – 6 times
 7 times or above
- Does COVID-19 affect your travel abroad plan?
 Yes (go to Q5) No
- If yes, how has COVID-19 affected your travel plan?
 Very slightly 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely

Section VII. Personal profile

- Gender
 Male Female Others

2. Age group

- 18 – 24 25 – 34 35 – 44
 45 – 54 55 – 64 65 or above

3. Your highest level of education

- Primary school or below Secondary school Diploma, Higher diploma,
or Associate degree
 Undergraduate Graduate or above

4. Personal monthly income (Optional)

- HKD 10,000 or below HKD 10,001 – 14,999 HKD 15,000 – 19,999
 HKD 20,000 – 24,999 HKD 25,000 – 29,999 HKD 30,000 – 34,999
 HKD 35,000 – 39,999 HKD 40,000 – 44,999 HKD 45,000 – 49,999
 HKD 50,000 – 54,999 HKD 55,000 – 59,999 HKD 60,000 or above

5. Marital status (Optional)

- Single Married (go to Q.6) Divorced (go to Q.6)
 Widowed (go to Q.6)

6. Do you have any children?

- Yes No

7. Occupation by industry (Optional)

- Accounting / Banking / Financial services / Audit Architecture / Building / Construction Advertising / Public relations / Marketing
 Civil services Education Engineering
 Food and beverage Delivery / Shipping Trading
 Hospitality and tourism Human resources management / Consultancy Housewife / Retired
 Information technology Insurance Legal services
 Students Media / Publishing Medical
 Others. Please specify: _____

Please leave your email address below if you want to know your time perspective.
Your information will be properly destroyed after the completion of this project.

Email: _____

Thank you very much for your contribution and patience.

END

Appendix 5 – Main Survey (English)

Impacts of Time Perspectives on Tourists’ Travel Intention: The Mediating Roles of Travel Motivation and Travel Attitude

I am a PhD candidate from the Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies at the Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University. I am now conducting a survey about Hong Kong tourists’ time perspective, travel motivations, travel attitude, and intention to visit a destination. Your response can help tourism practitioners strengthen their understanding of Hong Kong tourists’ behaviour. Your participation in this survey is voluntary. All data will be kept strictly confidential and be used for academic purpose only. It will take about 5-7 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation.

Section I. Screening Questions

1. Are you a Hong Kong permanent resident over age 18?
 Yes No (Terminate)

2. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, do you have any travel plans for the next 12 months?
 Yes No (Terminate)

Section II. Time perspective

In this section, the questions are designed to understand your time perspective. Please read each question and answer the question: “*How characteristic or true is this of you?*”. Select the appropriate answer based on the scale provided. (1 = Very uncharacteristic, 2 = Uncharacteristic, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Characteristic, 5 = Very characteristic).

		Very uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neutral	Characteristic	Very characteristic
1.	When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.					
2.	Things rarely work out as I expected.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Painful past experiences keep being replayed in the mind.	1	2	3	4	5

4.	Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	It is important to put excitement in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I wish I could go back in time and correct my mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I keep working at difficult and uninteresting tasks if they help me get ahead.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I feel that luck pays off better than hard work.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I feel that it is more important to enjoy what are you doing than to get work on done on time.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I feel that fate determines much in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is a work to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I can't really plan for the future because the things change so much.	1	2	3	4	5

Section III. Travel motivation – Push factors

In this section, the questions are designed to explore your push motives for pleasure vacation. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting appropriate number, where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong agree
1.	To strengthen family and friend ties	1	2	3	4	5
2.	To see and experience a destination that is different from Hong Kong	1	2	3	4	5
3.	To visit a destination that I have never been to	1	2	3	4	5
4.	To give my body a rest	1	2	3	4	5
5.	To check in and take a photo at the tourist places	1	2	3	4	5
6.	To finish my bucket list	1	2	3	4	5
7.	To enjoy shopping	1	2	3	4	5
8.	To go on pilgrimage or worship	1	2	3	4	5
9.	To challenge my physical abilities	1	2	3	4	5
10.	To have fun and/or be entertained	1	2	3	4	5
11.	To visit certain places at least once in a lifetime	1	2	3	4	5
12.	To get away from daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
13.	To know more about family and friends	1	2	3	4	5

14.	To inspect a place for future immigration or study	1	2	3	4	5
15.	To relieve daily boredom/busyness	1	2	3	4	5
16.	To fulfil self-curiosity about the destination I want to visit	1	2	3	4	5
17.	To spend time with family and friends on trip	1	2	3	4	5
18.	To broaden my horizon	1	2	3	4	5
19.	To visit friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5
20.	To get away from daily stress/pressure	1	2	3	4	5
21.	To experience the authentic aspects of a destination	1	2	3	4	5

Section IV. Travel attitude towards a destination

In this section, the questions are designed to describe travel attitude that you may have towards a destination. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting appropriate number, where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

All things considered, I think travelling abroad would be

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong agree
1.	Exciting	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Interesting	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Attractive	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Good	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Wise	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Arousing	1	2	3	4	5

Section V. Travel intention

In this section, the questions are designed to understand your travel intention to visit a destination in the near future. Assuming there is no COVID-19 intervention, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting appropriate number, where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strong agree
1.	It is likely that I will travel abroad in next 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I intend to travel abroad in next 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I want to travel abroad within 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I will save time and money within 12 months for the purpose of traveling abroad.	1	2	3	4	5

Section VI. Trip information

1. What is your destination for the next 12 months? (Please answer the most desired destination)

2. How many days are you planning to stay at the destination?

- 1 – 2 days 3 – 5 days 6 – 8 days
 9 days or above

3. How many times have you travelled to that destination? (for leisure purpose)

- None 1 – 3 times 4 – 6 times
 7 times or above

4. Does COVID-19 affect your travel abroad plan?

- Yes (go to Q5) No

5. If yes, how has COVID-19 affected your travel plan?

Very slightly 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely

Section VII. Personal profile

1. Gender

- Male Female Others

2. Age group

- 18 – 24 25 – 34 35 – 44
 45 – 54 55 – 64 65 or above

3. Your highest level of education

- Primary school or below Secondary school Diploma, Higher diploma,
 or Associate degree
 Undergraduate Graduate or above

4. Personal monthly income (Optional)

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 10,000 or below | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 10,001 – 14,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 15,000 – 19,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 20,000 – 24,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 25,000 – 29,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 30,000 – 34,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 35,000 – 39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 40,000 – 44,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 45,000 – 49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 50,000 – 54,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 55,000 – 59,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> HKD 60,000 or above |

5. Marital status (Optional)

- Single / Widowed / Divorced Married

6. Do you have any children?

- Yes No

7. Occupation by industry (Optional)

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Accounting / Banking /
Financial services / Audit | <input type="checkbox"/> Architecture / Building /
Construction | <input type="checkbox"/> Advertising / Public
relations / Marketing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Civil services | <input type="checkbox"/> Education | <input type="checkbox"/> Engineering |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Food and beverage | <input type="checkbox"/> Delivery / Shipping | <input type="checkbox"/> Trading |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hospitality and tourism | <input type="checkbox"/> Human resources
management / Consultancy | <input type="checkbox"/> Housewife / Retired |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Information technology | <input type="checkbox"/> Insurance | <input type="checkbox"/> Legal services |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Students | <input type="checkbox"/> Media / Publishing | <input type="checkbox"/> Medical |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Others. Please specify: _____ | | |

Please leave your email address below if you want to know your time perspective.

Your information will be properly destroyed after the completion of this project.

Email: _____

Thank you very much for your contribution and patience.

END

Appendix 6 – Announcement on travel communities to recruit main survey participants

Flyagainla

又飛啦旅人團 by flyagain.la (分享+交換+招旅伴)

Private group · 110.1K members

This group has been archived [Learn more](#) [Leave Group](#)

About Discussion Announcements Rooms Topics Members Events Media Files

Michael Lai shared a link. 2 November 2020 ·

•各位谷友大家好。我是一名博士研究生，如果大家心郁郁，計劃緊逼下去邊旅行，麻煩大家幫幫我填份關於香港人外遊既問卷。
問卷採取不記名形式進行，亦不直接或間接地收集能辨認閣下身份的資料，資料絕對保密，只作研究用途。填寫問卷需時約五分鐘。萬分感謝。
有興趣的話，請click下面頁面。

SurveyMonkey

About
(17/04/2018更新)想搵朋友借旅遊書 / 海外上網卡 / 唱外幣，甚至招旅伴，討論行程？希望呢度幫到您！由「又飛啦！flyagain.la」(fb page : <http://facebook.com/flyagainla> website : <http://flyagain.la/>) ... See more

- Private
Only members can see who's in the group and what they post.
- Hidden
Only members can find this group.
- General group

Hong Kong Discuss Forum

校園生活 功課問題及解答 問卷調查 時間觀對香港旅客的外遊意向

搜尋 輸入搜尋字詞 登入 註冊

瀏覽: 458 列印

[其他] 問卷調查 時間觀對香港旅客的外遊意向

#1 發表於 2020-11-8 07:30 PM 只看該作者 | 大中小 | 繁簡

Michael T.H. Lai
新手
帖子 2
積分 2
註冊時間 2020-11-2
發短消息 加為好友

大家好，我是一名博士研究生，如果大家心郁郁，計劃緊去邊旅行，麻煩大家再幫幫我填份關於香港人外遊既問卷。
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填寫問卷需時五分鐘，萬分感謝。
有興趣的話，請按下面網址
<https://zh.surveymonkey.com/r/timeperspectivefb>

回覆 引用 TOP