

## The role of travelling distances in tourism: different planning, different motives

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**Abstract.** The impact of travel distance on tourist travel planning and motives for travelling represents a notable research gap. This study aims to demonstrate that the impacts of tourist travel intention predictors are different, since longer distance increases the complexities of planning; also, that long-haul travelling is driven by different motives among tourists than short-haul travelling. The study is based on analysis of survey data from Lithuania. The findings showed differences in how beliefs impact tourists' intentions to travel to relatively distant and nearby cities: behavioural and normative beliefs had stronger impacts on intentions for nearby destinations, whereas control beliefs had strong impacts for distant destinations. Also, the sets of tourists' motives for long-haul destinations and for short-haul destinations had different structures and differed in the motives they included. The findings deepen our understanding of the importance of travel distance in tourism as an aspect that differentiates impacts of travel intention antecedents and generates different sets of travel motives for long-haul and short-haul travelling of tourists.

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### Contents:

1. Introduction .....	146
2. Research materials and methods .....	147
2.1. Travel planning behaviour .....	147
2.2. Travel motives .....	148
2.3. Methods .....	149
2.3.1. Measures .....	149
2.3.2. Procedure and data .....	150
3. Research results .....	150
4. Discussion .....	152
5. Conclusions .....	153
References .....	153

## 1. Introduction

The impact of travel distance in tourism research has been approached from the geographical perspective on the basis of the theory of distance decay, and the issue has been analysed in depth by concentrating on tourist flows (McKercher & Mak, 2019; Alvarez-Diaz et al., 2020) and their structure (McKercher, 2018). It was found that the distance of tourist travelling is an important criterion that helps discover the tourist flow volume and structure patterns from the macro perspective, reflecting demand changes based on travel distance (McKercher et al., 2006; McKercher, 2018; Wong et al., 2020).

The distance of a trip in tourism is sometimes understood rather simplistically and is expressed either as travel kilometres (Bao & McKercher, 2008) or in hours of travel time (Bianchi & Milberg, 2017). Even if using these simplistic criteria, it is obvious that classifications between long and short travels are very relative and depend on the purpose of a study. However, some regularities may be observed. Long-haul destination definitions have either been based on flying time, such as five hours (Boerjan, 1995) or eight hours (Scur et al., 2001), or distance, such as 4828 kilometres (Boerjan, 1995) or 3700 kilometres (Smith & Rodger, 2009) from the home country. In other instances, short-haul destinations were defined as those that are less than 4828 kilometres from the home country or are domestic destinations (Boerjan, 1995). However, these straightforward numerical measures are just a numerical form of deeper travelling aspects, such as differences in perceived risks, complexity and attractiveness (Ponsignon et al., 2021), i.e. the distance represents a proxy variable that takes into consideration many behaviour variables (McKercher, 2018). It was widely observed that travel distance may be linked with numerous socio-demographic parameters of travellers, economic conditions and travel modes (Nicolau & Mas, 2006; Nicolau, 2008; Wynen, 2013). This stream of research has thus mainly concentrated on the micro perspective and analysis from the standpoint of the traveller. The studies have often concentrated on the perception of travel distance, which was understood as an integrative index of space, time, price and psychological or cultural distance (Zhang & Lam, 1999; Cao et al., 2020). This perception predetermines tourist intentions, interests and behaviour at a destination (Shoval et al., 2011). This resulted in attempts to analyse antecedents of travelling intentions and motives of travelling relating them with the travel distance (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016; Schuckert & Wu, 2021). It was found that

the perception of distance may take an ordinal or zonal segregated perceptions of far/close destinations (Larsen & Guiver, 2013). However, the final threshold between the concepts of short-distance and long-distance travelling depends on the aim of a specific research. This study aims to disclose differences in planning of short-haul and long-haul travelling as well as differences in sets of tourist motives for these two instances. Therefore, it uses the criteria that comply with the majority of the considerations above: examples of short-haul travel destinations are closer than 2000 km, and further than 6000 km for long-haul. The significant difference in distances is assumed to help indicate the differences in planning and motivations of tourist travel. The analysis of the differences between travelling to distant and close destinations can start from a cost–benefit perspective: long-haul travel costs more money, time and effort than short-haul travel (Bianchi & Milberg, 2017). Longer trips are riskier because they involve more uncertainties, as individuals' perceptions about the attributes of the destination may be less clear (Bianchi et al., 2017). Distant trips are associated with additional complexities in travelling, accommodation and sightseeing (Xue & Zhang, 2020). Further cultural distance to a destination triggers perceptions of a further psychological distance (Larsen & Guiver, 2013), but offers benefits, such as higher expectations about novelty and experiences (Ponsignon et al., 2021). This means that long-haul travelling may have stronger associations with knowledge- and novelty-seeking motives. Additionally, the decision to take a more challenging, longer trip may be inspired by the motivation to escape from daily routines, develop stronger relations with people, or even acquire higher social status after visiting a distant location by telling impressive stories to their friends (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015). Taken together, long-haul travel tends to reflect a stronger desire for personal development (Ahn & McKercher, 2013); long-haul visitors often seek culturally different experiences, are driven by reasons relating to learning and personal development (Bao & McKercher, 2008), and follow ego-enhancement motives (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015).

In comparison, short-haul travel involves lower financial costs, uncertainty and risk (Karl, 2018). This does not mean that closer destinations are less attractive or that travelling to them is not inspiring; instead, short-haul travel may be perceived as involving more understandable elements and being less complicated in general (Bianchi et al., 2017). Tourists take short-haul trips more often for many reasons linked with distance: simplicity, safety, time costs, financial costs, and more (Xue & Zhang, 2020). Typically, individuals have higher familiarity

with closer destinations, and this also strengthens their intentions to travel to these destinations (Kim et al., 2019). Indeed, closer psychological distance allows an individual to feel more certain about the complexities of the travelling process and, thus, the planning of such a trip may be differently impacted by the individual's behavioural, normative and control beliefs. Short-haul travellers often do not want to spend much time planning a trip; short-haul tourists tend to be less-experienced travellers who are often driven by recreation-seeking motives (McKercher, 2018). Overall, short-haul travel is often undertaken for pleasure, recreation and escape-related reasons (Ahn & McKercher, 2013).

Previous studies have indirectly predicted that the behaviours and motives for long-haul and short-haul trips may differ (McKercher, 2018; Manosuthi et al., 2020). However, the research comparing long-haul and short-haul travel remains scarce, and comparisons of the antecedents of intentions and travel motives represent a notable research gap (Bianchi et al., 2017). This could be partly explained by the methodological complexity of the comparison itself, as each travel type and travel destination has its own specific characteristics, and making generalisations can be difficult (McKercher & Lew, 2003). However, this issue could be addressed if research focused on comparing destinations that are similar in having numerous comparable attractive elements (Carvache-Franco et al., 2021; Komarac et al., 2021). This would help control for destination-linked factors and would allow the researchers to concentrate solely on the distance to destinations from the domestic place.

The current study addresses the gap in knowledge regarding the differences in the strength of impacts of predictors that predetermine travel intentions in case of distant and close destinations, and how the intentions are impacted by different sets of travel motives when distant and close destinations are considered. The purpose of the study is to demonstrate that impacts of travel intention predictors are different, since longer distance increases complexities of planning; also, that a long-haul travelling is driven by different motives than short-haul travelling. This is achieved by comparing the cases of travel to distant and close large cities. The analysis is performed in two steps. Firstly, the impact of behavioural, normative and control beliefs on the travel intentions towards distant and relatively closer cities is analysed and the strength of their impacts compared. Following this, the sets of travel motives for distant and close destinations are assessed and compared.

## 2. Research materials and methods

### 2.1. Travel planning behaviour

Planning a trip is conceptualised as a behaviour that can be explained by the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Quintal et al., 2010; Ulker-Demirel & Ciftci, 2020) or its extended version (Hsu & Huang, 2012; Chien et al., 2012). This suggests that intentions to travel are influenced by behavioural, normative and control beliefs. In other words, tourist intentions regarding travelling are impacted by the factors that are important for each planned behaviour: by the behavioural beliefs (attitude towards travelling), normative beliefs (opinions of others about travelling) and control beliefs (perceived behavioural control, i.e., perceptions about one's own ability to travel) (Ulker-Demirel & Ciftci, 2020). Though the efficiency of TPB in explaining planning of travelling is strongly justified, the findings of studies are not consistent. Cao et al. (2020) found that all three major antecedents had significant direct impacts on travel intentions. Sparks and Pan (2009) reported that social norms and perceived behavioural control were the most influential factors with regard to travel intention. Research by Quintal et al. (2010) extended the knowledge on the influence of TPB factors on travel intentions by analysing the intentions of tourists from South Korea, China and Japan to visit Australia. Their results showed that subjective norms and perceived behavioural control significantly impacted intentions in all three samples, whereas the effect of attitude was significant only in the Japanese sample. One of the reasons for the conflicting results is that the studies have included destinations with different parameters and the respondents have perceived these parameters differently. Using large cities as the target destinations with numerous similarities among themselves addresses this methodological issue and allows the following hypothesis to be tested:

- H1. Behavioural, normative and control beliefs positively impact tourist travel intentions.
- For the reasons of statistical testing, the hypothesis is segregated into three sub-hypotheses:
- H1a: Attitudes (behavioural beliefs) positively impact tourist travel intentions.
  - H1b: Subjective norms (normative beliefs) positively impact tourist travel intentions.

- H1c: Perceived behavioural control (control beliefs) positively impacts tourist travel intentions.

Evidence suggests that TPB antecedents exert different impacts on travel intentions to distant and close destinations. Based on the extended TPB model, the study of Bianchi et al. (2017) analysed the intentions to travel to Chile of travellers from Peru and Brazil (short-haul) and from Spain and Germany (long-haul). The findings indicated that subjective norms and perceived behavioural control positively influenced both short and long-haul travellers' intentions, but the significance of the differences has not been assessed, the same as in the similar study of Chen and Tung (2014). Attitude was found to be a predictor of intentions only for long-haul travellers, while in the case of short-haul trips, the impact of attitude was insignificant (Lam & Hsu, 2006). This suggests that the differences in impacts depend on travel distance, but no relevant statistics were applied to test the significance of the differences. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H2. Behavioural, normative and control beliefs impact tourist travel intentions to distant and nearby destinations.

For the analysis reasons, the hypothesis H2 must be divided into sub-hypotheses that separately predict the significance of the difference of each antecedent of travel intentions:

- H2a: Attitudes (behavioural beliefs) have a stronger influence on tourist travel intentions in the case of travel to nearby destinations compared to distant destinations.
- H2b: Subjective norms (normative beliefs) have a stronger influence on tourist travel intentions in the case of travel to nearby destinations compared to distant destinations.
- H2c: Perceived behavioural control (control beliefs) has a stronger influence on tourist travel intentions in the case of travel to distant destinations compared to nearby destinations.

## 2.2. Travel motives

Studies on travel motives are linking travel motives with specific parameters of destinations. However, this study aims to mainly concentrate on the differences that occur between long-haul and short-haul travelling, controlling for the specificities of the destinations themselves. One way of achieving this is to consider destinations that are abundant in a variety of characteristics and therefore could

be attributed to one relatively consistent group. One type of such destinations would be very large cities that offer an extremely large variety of attractions to tourists, and this makes them relatively similar in terms of high expectations from tourists. Though the concept of a large city is rather relative, this study prefers to consider only very large cities (megapolises) that would satisfy the above-mentioned criteria of the similarity of tourist expectations. In this sense, we define that a large city has two million or more inhabitants, which, depending on the classification used, may be attributed to intermediate or large cities (Lee, 2021).

The evidence about specific motives of tourist travelling to large cities is rather limited. It is only known that the most typical motives include escape (Eftichiadou, 2001; Hsu et al., 2007), ego enhancement, prestige, enhancement of human relationships (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015), self-esteem (Dunne et al., 2007), novelty and knowledge (Correia et al., 2013).

When using TPB as a base theory, motives may be predictors of either intentions, behaviours or attitudes (Hsu & Huang, 2012; Chien et al., 2012). This study focuses on a model that links motives with travellers' intentions. Based on this, the following hypothesis is developed:

- H3: Travel motives positively influence intentions to travel to large cities.

In order to analyse the impact of each individual motive, the hypothesis is divided into six sub-hypotheses.

Across the world, large multifunctional cities attract tourists with their culture, heritage, nightlife, shopping or business (Bozic et al., 2017). As a result, the ability to undertake a trip to such a destination enhances the ego of travellers (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H3a: The ego-enhancement motive positively influences intentions to travel to large cities.

The ego-enhancement motive is related to self-esteem, status and prestige. The self-esteem motive mainly refers to an individual's personal standards for fashionable or luxurious surroundings (Fodness, 1994). Conversely, the status and prestige motive is more related to recognition and the desire to attract attention from others (Dunne et al., 2007; Tsang et al., 2014). City attributes may contribute to increasing both self-esteem and feelings of prestige. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H3b: The self-esteem motive positively influences intentions to travel to large cities.

- H3c: The prestige motive positively influences intentions to travel to large cities.

Escape is another motive that may also be important for tourists visiting a large city (Eftichiadou, 2001). Escape is described as a need to be in a new environment, which is especially relevant to trips to other countries (Ponsignon et al., 2021). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H3d: The escape motive positively influences intentions to travel to large cities.

There is a noticeable trend towards “passion for travel”, i.e. tourism driven by novelty and knowledge (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015). Tourists are becoming increasingly interested in architecture, cultural heritage and the opportunity to participate in cultural life and events (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015). This demonstrates the importance of the novelty and knowledge motive:

- H3e: The novelty and knowledge motive positively influences intentions to travel to large cities.

The process of travelling and interacting with urban environments allows travellers to socialise with other participants on a trip, as well as with people in the destination (Schuckert & Wu, 2021). This contributes to the socialising process by adding urban experience and enhancing human relationships (Hung et al., 2016):

- H3f: The enhancement of human relationships motive positively influences intentions to travel to large cities.

Although many motives positively influence travellers’ intentions to travel to large cities, there are differences related to whether the trip is to a distant or a nearby city. Distant locations are associated with less-familiar places, cultures and experiences (Pappas, 2014). On the other hand, shorter trips are more oriented towards leisure and relaxation (McKercher, 2018). Therefore, it is likely that different sets of motives influence long-haul and short-haul travel:

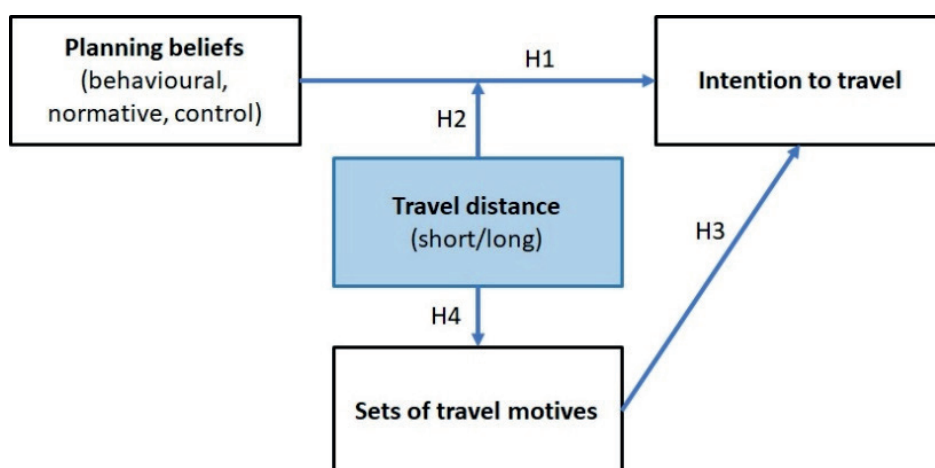
- H4: Different sets of motives influence intentions to travel to distant and close cities.

All hypotheses are aggregated in the research model (Fig. 1).

## 2.3. Methods

### 2.3.1. Measures

A questionnaire with closed-ended questions was used for data collection. The questionnaire started with questions about motives for travelling: ego-enhancement, self-esteem, prestige, escape, novelty and knowledge, and enhancement of human relationships. The ego-enhancement motive was measured using a three-item scale, self-esteem was assessed using a four-item scale; both scales were derived from Fodness (1994). A four-item prestige scale and a five-item escape scale were taken from Nikjoo and Ketabi (2015). The novelty and knowledge motive was measured using a five-item scale from Li and Cai (2011). Finally, a five-item enhancement of human relationships scale from Hanqin and Lam (1999) was utilised. Behavioural beliefs (attitudes) were measured using a five-



**Fig. 1.** Research model  
Source: Authors'

item semantic differential scale from Lam and Hsu (2006). A three-item subjective norm and a three-item perceived behavioural control scale were taken from Hsu and Huang (2012). Finally, behavioural intentions were measured using a four-item scale adopted from Hsu and Huang (2012). Except for attitude, all the above items used the same seven-point Likert-type scale, with response options ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

### 2.3.2. Procedure and data

Data were collected via an online survey performed in Lithuania before the Covid-19 pandemic and included 481 respondents. The respondents represented three age groups: 16–30 (30.1%), 31–40 (31.9%), 41–70 (38.0%); 80% of the sample were females. However, there were no significant differences in the means of variables based on demographic parameters, so there was no need to consider demographic parameters as control variables.

Each respondent answered questions regarding their travel motives, and they were then offered a list of three large cities relatively close to Lithuania (London, Paris, Rome). Respondents were asked to choose one city of the three by selecting one they had not visited yet. If all of them had been visited, it was requested they choose the one they knew least about. This helped to accumulate the answers about the cities that are relatively unknown and consolidate the answers into one category despite the particular city chosen. Then respondents were invited to base their answers to the following

questions (attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intentions) on their chosen city. Subsequently, the respondents were offered a list of three large cities that are geographically distant from Lithuania (New York, Singapore, Tokyo). Again, the respondents were asked to choose a city on the basis of the same criteria and answer the subsequent questions considering their chosen city. The sequence of questionnaire components (near-distant vs. distant-near) was randomised.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed appropriate results ( $KMO=0.847$   $p<0.001$ ;  $X^2=571.64$  (243),  $p<0.001$ ). Extracted factors explained 64.55% of the cumulative variance and 75.08% of the cumulative Eigenvalues. In the process of EFA, the number of statements in all the analysed motivation types was reduced to three for each type of motivation; no items were removed in any other scales. The reliability of all the scales was appropriate, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging between 0.668 (knowledge motivation) and 0.921 (intention).

### 3. Research results

The first two hypotheses were grounded on the relationships predicted in TPB. H1 predicted that behavioural, normative and control beliefs positively impact tourist intentions to travel. This hypothesis was tested using linear regression with three antecedents (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) of intentions. Additionally, the travel distance was controlled.

**Table 1.** Impacts of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on tourist intentions to travel

	Unstandardised Coefficients (B)	Std Error	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )	t	Significance (p)
(Constant)	-1.282	0.312		-4.113	0.000
Attitude	0.346	0.046	0.198	7.590	0.000
Subjective norm	0.479	0.027	0.463	17.725	0.000
Perceived behavioural control	0.253	0.029	0.228	8.740	0.000
Distance	0.285	0.090	0.083	3.174	0.002
	Unstandardised Coefficients (B)	Std Error	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )	t	Significance (p)
	-1.282	0.312		-4.113	0.000
	0.346	0.046	0.198	7.590	0.000
	0.479	0.027	0.463	17.725	0.000
	0.253	0.029	0.228	8.740	0.000
	0.285	0.090	0.083	3.174	0.002

Source: own elaboration

The linear regression model showed good fit ( $F=147.446$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and explained 37.9% of the variation in intentions (adjusted  $R^2=0.379$ ). The impacts of all antecedents were significant (Table 1).

As the impacts of all three antecedents of intention were positive and significant, all three sub-hypotheses (H1a, H1b and H1c) are confirmed, which allows us to state that H1 is also confirmed.

As the model suggests, the impact of the control variable (travel distance) was also significant, which shows that distance is an important predictor of tourist travel intentions. This assumption was further assessed with a t-test comparing intentions to travel to distant cities versus near cities. The test showed a significant difference ( $t=5.101$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) between the means of intentions to travel to distant cities ( $M=3.72$ ;  $SD=1.586$ ) and close cities ( $M=4.28$ ;  $SD=1.795$ ). Taken together, these results support the assumption of H2 that behavioural, normative, and control beliefs impact intentions to travel to distant and nearby destinations differently.

To further assess this assumption, a linear regression-based multi-level model that allows the significance of the difference on the basis of travel distance to be assessed is employed. To achieve this, the above-analysed antecedents and their interactions with travel distance were included. Long-distance travel was coded as 0, and short-distance travel was coded as 1, thus allowing to have an intercept at the level of the x-axis. This type of modelling not only helps to estimate the differences between the coefficients for distant and nearby destinations (which could be achieved using two separate regressions on distant and nearby destinations and comparing the coefficients), but also assessed the significance of the differences between the corresponding coefficients. This type of multilevel modelling is superior to multi-group analysis using structural equation modelling or

ANCOVA for comparing responses to two groups of questions (Gelman & Hill, 2006) and has already been used in tourism research (Urbonavicius & Sezer, 2019).

The top section of Table 2 reflects the interactions of the independent variables and intentions to travel to a distant destination, whereas the lower part (interactions) shows the significance of the differences between the corresponding coefficients for distant and nearby destinations (Table 2).

The significance of the intercepts in the lower part of the table shows whether the three antecedents differently impact intentions of travelling to distant and to nearby cities. It discloses that the differences in the impacts of attitudes and perceived behavioural control were significant at the level of  $p<0.05$ , whereas the difference in the impact of subjective norms was significant at the level of  $p<0.1$ ; therefore, all sub-hypotheses of H2 were confirmed. Positive coefficients of the intercepts (0.404 and 0.125) indicate that the impact of an attitude and subjective norm is stronger for nearby cities, whereas negative values (-0.217) indicate that the impact of perceived behavioural control is stronger for distant cities.

The next two hypotheses linked specific motives with intentions to travel to large cities. Firstly, H3 states that travel motives positively influence intentions to travel to large cities. This hypothesis was tested using linear multiple regression with six antecedents (motives). The fit of the model was good ( $F=20.411$ ;  $p<0.001$ ; adjusted  $R^2=0.108$ ), and four motives significantly impacted travel intentions (Table 3).

The results confirm the sub-hypotheses H3a, H3c, H3e and H3f that intentions to travel to large cities are influenced by the motives of ego enhancement, prestige, novelty and knowledge, and enhancement of human relationships ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Table 2.** Significance of differences in impacts of antecedents on intentions for travel to distant and nearby destinations

	Unstandardised Coefficients (B)	Std Error	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )	t	Significance (p)
(Constant)	-0.664	0.433		-1.534	0.125
Distance	-0.766	0.625	-0.223	-1.226	0.221
Attitude (A)	0.220	0.066	0.126	3.332	0.001
Subjective norm (SN)	0.424	0.039	0.410	10.795	0.000
Perceived behavioural control (PBC)	0.322	0.040	0.290	7.999	0.000
AxDistance	0.223	0.091	0.404	2.454	0.014
SNxDistance	0.097	0.054	0.125	1.805	0.071
PBCxDistance	-0.124	0.058	-0.217	-2.150	0.032

Source: own elaboration

**Table 3.** Impacts of motives on tourist intentions to visit large cities

	Unstandardised Coefficients ( <i>B</i> )	Std Error	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )	<i>T</i>	Significance ( <i>p</i> )
(Constant)	0.355	0.488		0.726	0.468
Ego	0.117	0.047	0.083	2.459	0.014
Esteem	0.043	0.041	0.035	1.055	0.292
Prestige	0.214	0.036	0.199	5.885	0.000
Escape	-0.054	0.047	-0.039	-1.152	0.249
Knowledge	0.218	0.079	0.096	2.770	0.006
Relationship	0.189	0.055	0.117	3.460	0.001

Source: own elaboration

The sub-hypotheses regarding the influence of self-esteem and escape were rejected, as these relationships were not significant ( $p=0.292$  and  $p=0.249$ , respectively).

However, this regression model aggregated intentions to visit both distant and nearby cities. However, it is possible that the set of motives in the two instances may differ. In order to test H4, two linear regressions with a backward procedure were used. In both cases, the final models that included only the significant relationships were achieved in the fourth model.

In the case of intentions to visit distant cities ( $F=16.613$ ;  $p<0.001$ ; adjusted  $R^2=0.089$ ), the set of significant motives included prestige, novelty and knowledge, and enhancement of human relationships (Table 4).

In the case of nearby cities ( $F=23.578$ ;  $p<0.001$ ; adjusted  $R^2=0.124$ ), the set of significant

motives included ego enhancement, prestige, and enhancement of human relationships (Table 5).

As is evident from Tables 4 and 5, the sets of significant motives for distant and near cities are different, thus confirming hypothesis H4.

#### 4. Discussion

This study further corroborates the findings of previous studies (Chien et al., 2012; Hsu & Huang, 2012; Quintal et al., 2010;) regarding the appropriateness of using TPB to research travel intentions. However, the novel aspect of the current study is the findings highlighting the importance of travel distance with statistically significant measures. Many previous studies have examined various aspects of long-haul travel (Hooper, 2015; Vigolo, 2015; Bianchi & Milberg, 2017), but the

**Table 4.** Motives that impact tourist intentions to visit distant cities

	Unstandardised Coefficients ( <i>B</i> )	Std Error	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )	<i>T</i>	Significance ( <i>p</i> )
(Constant)	0.525	0.616		0.851	0.395
Prestige	0.204	0.044	0.206	4.604	0.000
Knowledge	0.255	0.096	0.121	2.646	0.008
Relationship	0.171	0.069	0.115	2.467	0.014

Source: own elaboration

**Table 5.** Motives that impact tourist intentions to visit nearby cities

	Unstandardised Coefficients ( <i>B</i> )	Std Error	Standardised Coefficients ( $\beta$ )	<i>T</i>	Significance ( <i>p</i> )
(Constant)	0.962	0.481		2.002	0.046
Ego	0.169	0.067	0.116	2.513	0.012
Prestige	0.243	0.050	0.217	4.847	0.000
Relationship	0.283	0.077	0.168	3.679	0.000

Source: own elaboration



current study is unique in terms of using rigorous statistical analysis in testing the differences between the regression coefficients. It demonstrates that the importance of the antecedents differs between long-haul and short-haul travelling.

Numerous studies have addressed the motives for travelling to various destinations, including large cities (Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Dunne et al., 2007; Hsu et al., 2007; Carvache-Franco et al., 2021). Studies that analysed how tourists “consume” destinations assumed that there are differences between distant and close places (McKercher, 2008; Larsen & Guiver, 2013). It was generally concluded that short-haul travelling is more frequently linked with leisure, relaxation and escape motives (McKercher, 2008). Also, it was known that some degree of prestige may be linked with the possibility to travel itself (Güzel et al., 2020), but long-haul traveling is specifically linked with status enhancement (Pappas, 2014). This study elaborated the existing knowledge by specifying important motives for distant and close destinations and proved that the sets of the significant motives in the two instances are different.

It is not surprising that the novelty and knowledge motive drives travel to distant destinations. It has been confirmed that short-haul travel is more likely to be undertaken for pleasure, relaxation and escape reasons, whereas long-haul travel reflects a desire for personal development, which extends the earlier studies (Ahn & McKercher, 2013; Xue & Zhang, 2020) by adding the specific knowledge in relation to travel to large cities. Additionally, this study confirmed that the motive of human relationships enhancement is relatively universal and does not depend on travel distance.

## 5. Conclusions

The findings help to draw two theoretical conclusions. The first empirically tested theoretical conclusion is: attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control impact intention to travel to distant and nearby destinations differently. The second: the sets of motives for distant and close destinations are not the same. Both conclusions represent truly novel findings, disclosed on methodologically rigorous analysis. Taken together, they strongly support the assumption that travelling distance is an important, though somewhat overlooked, aspect of travelling, thus contributing to addressing the research gap in this regard. The findings of this study have implications for attracting tourists to travel to distant or close destinations. The results suggest

that different travel packages based on different motives should be created for long-haul and short-haul trips, since tourists use “zonal” perception of trips (Larsen & Guiver, 2013). As long-haul trips are usually associated with higher risk, the managers of tourism companies should specifically assist their clients who are planning longer trips. Since “distance may effectively filter out some segments” (McKercher, 2018), marketing communications aimed to long-haul tourists should be based on novelty and knowledge and personal development motives. Conversely, short-haul trips should be promoted as ego-enhancing and offering pleasure, relaxation and escape from daily routine. Finally, the enhancement of human relationships may be highlighted as a motive in both cases.

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