

1 **Differential [roles](#) of push and pull factors on escape for travel: Personal and social**
2 **identity perspectives**

3

4

5 **Keywords:** push and pull factors, personal identity, social identity, escape for travel

6

7 **Abstract**

8 This study examines the effects of push and pull motivations linked to an individual's
9 personal and social identities as key antecedents to escape for travel. In terms of push
10 factors, escape for travel is driven from a personal identity perspective by the need for
11 evaluation of self and regression; and from a social identity perspective, by the need for
12 social interaction but not enhancement of kinship. Cultural motives that reflect personal
13 identity positively influence escape for travel than destination pull factors linked to social
14 identity. Overall, the study contributes to the existing knowledge on push and pull tourist
15 motivations.

16

17 **1. INTRODUCTION**

18 The *self* and *identity* concepts influence what people are motivated to do, how they make
19 sense of themselves and others, and how they behave (see Baumeister, 1998; Brewer,
20 1991; Higgins, 1987; Oyserman, 2007). Oyserman et al. (2012, p. 73) describe the self as
21 how 'people can consider themselves from a number of perspectives', i.e. individualistic
22 vs. collectivistic, temporally near vs. temporally distal, or the immersed 'mind's eye' vs.
23 'eyes of others'. Whereas, identity refers to 'a set of meanings attached to the self that
24 serves as a standard or reference that guides behaviour in situations' (Stets & Biga, 2003,
25 p. 401). Although scholars tend to use the terms 'self' and 'identity' interchangeably
26 (Swann & Bosson, 2010), however, they are mental constructs shaped by the context in
27 which they develop and influence one's behaviour (Oyserman et al., 2012).

28 Generally, identities are conceptualised as 'unitary' or 'multiple', 'real' or
29 'constructed', 'stable' or 'fluid', and 'personal' or 'social' (Bussey, 2011; Vignoles,
30 2017). In particular, Vignoles (2017) argues that identities are mainly classified as
31 *personal* and *social*; not only in terms of content (e.g. bodily features, personal traits,
32 relationships, group memberships), but also in processes (e.g. daily social interactions,
33 cultural discourse) that are formed, maintained, and changed over time. Personal identity
34 is similar to the self-concept in psychology literature that is used to explain broader
35 perspectives such as what makes one different (individualistic) or similar to others
36 (collective) (Oyserman et al., 2012). In contrast, social identity entails how people
37 identify with a social group (Lee et al., 2016). It refers to 'that part of an individual's self-
38 concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or

39 groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership'
40 (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255). Although these perspectives (i.e. personal and social) have been
41 widely examined in other fields such as marketing, limited research efforts have been
42 made within the tourism field to understand the role of identity, identity-related
43 motivations in influencing tourist experiences, and how these experiences may benefit an
44 individual (Bond & Falk, 2013).

45 More specifically, Nath and Saha (2017) note that research on tourist motivation,
46 relating to push and pull factors, falls short of an identity-seeking perspective. Michael et
47 al. (2017) argue that the need to escape is a major psychological force driven by
48 individual-centric push motivators and external-centric pull motivators. Therefore,
49 examining the role of identity within the push and pull framework can help destination
50 marketers to understand tourists' behaviour in terms of what drives people to escape for
51 a specific value experience. Liutikas (2012) points out that holidays such as religious
52 experiences and modern secular pilgrimages, provide personal value and deep meaning.
53 Hence, holiday experiences provide individuals the chance to trigger one's true self,
54 develop new social connections, explore themselves, and improve family relationships,
55 thereby enhancing one's personal identity and further developing the social and self-
56 conscious identity (Lee et al., 2019; Liutikas, 2012; Tajfel, 1981).

57 Research within social identity and self-categorisation theories suggests that people
58 think of themselves in terms of personal or social identities depending on the context
59 (Hogg, 2006; Oyserman et al., 2012; Oyserman, 2015). Further, Stets and Burke (2002)
60 show that the self is a primary motivator of behaviour, and both perspectives of self
61 (personal and social) play an important role in shaping behaviour. Within tourism, the
62 implications of personal and social identities would be independent travel, group travel,
63 backpacking, or ancestral searches (Murdy et al., 2018; Lozanski, 2010). According to
64 Laing and Frost (2017), travel provides the opportunity to change behaviour through self-
65 discovery, self-understanding, and thus the chance to take on a newly constructed
66 identity. By examining oneself in another culture can result in learning a new language,
67 upgrading one's personal style, and even adopting a new national identity (Laing & Frost,
68 2017). Research argues that one's motivation to escape for travel stems from the
69 motivation to search for identity (Cohen, 2010a) and/or to reform one's self (Desforges,
70 2000). An individual may also be motivated to travel as part of a social group for bonding,

71 social interaction, or identification with the familiar (Bond & Falk, 2013; Green, 2001;
72 Shanahan, 2009). Tourists also like immersing themselves in the destination's culture or
73 reforming themselves in the search for 'who am I?' through interacting with 'others',
74 which can enact a new identity (Cohen, 2010a). In addition, individual travellers seek
75 vacations that reflect their own sociocultural context, have adventurous, natural qualities,
76 and are different from the usual in response to 'where do I fit in?' helping them to enact
77 certain behaviours (Desforges, 2000). Overall, one tourism destination can be preferred
78 over another because it provides experiences and activities that help individuals to
79 rediscover or reimagine themselves (Bond & Falk, 2013; Desforges, 2000).

80 Nevertheless, within the tourism context, considerable research has focused on the
81 identity-related motivations of niche markets such as backpacker tourism (Bond & Falk,
82 2013; Maoz, 2007; Richards & King, 2003), museum visits (Falk, 2008), lifestyle
83 travelling (Cohen, 2010b), and dark tourism (Lennon & Foley, 2006). This suggests the
84 need for more empirical research that explores how identity-related motivations impact
85 broader tourism decisions and outcomes. This study incorporates two theoretical views
86 relating to personal and social identity as antecedents or push motivations that influence
87 escape for travel. Both theoretical views suggest that different motivating factors may
88 trigger an individual's behaviour regarding escape for travel, especially for tourists from
89 emerging markets. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to examine a nomological
90 network model that positions the effects of push and pull motivations linked to an
91 individual's personal and social identities as key antecedents to escape for travel.

92 The main contribution of this research is threefold. First, from a theoretical
93 perspective, it attempts to understand the push and pull motivations linked to an
94 individual's personal and social identities that drive escape for travel. Second, in terms
95 of practice, the research findings can be valuable evidence for government tourism
96 departments and destination marketing organisations (DMOs) in developing policy that
97 supports funding allocation towards marketing and publicity for their country to a
98 wealthy, high-spending market such as the United Arab Emirates (UAE), looking to
99 indulge in luxury experiences. Third, from a contextual perspective, this research can
100 assist DMOs in gaining a better understanding of outbound travel behaviour from
101 emerging markets in the Middle East, where little is known about their travel motives,
102 experiences, and perceptions (Michael et al., 2018; Prayag & Hosany, 2014).

103 2. THEORY, LITERATURE REVIEW, AND HYPOTHESES

104 2.1 Self-categorisation theory and tourist motivation

105 Self-categorisation theory (SCT) classifies identity as personal and social (Turner, 1999).
106 According to Trepte and Loy (2017, p. 1), ‘the SCT posits that depending on the
107 importance of a certain situation for social or personal identity, an individual’s behaviour
108 is driven either by social or personal identity processes’. Hence, this study proposes that
109 motivational behaviour regarding escape for travel may be linked to both personal and
110 social identity-related desires (Bond & Falk, 2013; Falk, 2008).

111 Personal identity is what sets an individual apart from others, i.e. an individual’s
112 conscious awareness of his/her own being (Burke & Stets, 2009). Thus, travel behaviour
113 may be linked to one’s personal identity, which is posited to fall within the realm of push
114 and pull motivators. Crompton (1979) argues that the need to escape for travel stems from
115 a variety of internal push motivations such as ‘re-evaluating and discovering more about
116 oneself or for acting out self-images’, resulting in the ‘revision of existing perceptions of
117 self-status and enhanced feelings of self-worth’ or ‘self-discovery’ (p. 416), or engaging
118 in regressive ‘puerile, irrational ... adolescent or child-like’ (p. 417) behaviour as one
119 can enjoy the freedom of being anonymous in a different milieu (Cohen, 2010c). The
120 external pull motivator may stem from the need to experience another culture to integrate
121 that culture into one’s personal identity (Gonzalez, 2008).

122 Social identity theory proposes that people belong to groups and evaluate
123 themselves against these groups (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Trepte & Loy,
124 2017). Social identities are ‘categorisations of the self into more inclusive social units
125 that differentiate one individual from others within a given social context’ (Brewer, 1991,
126 p. 476). These social units (groups) may be families, reference groups, social classes, and
127 cultures or subcultures (Mehmetoglu, 2011). An individual’s self-concept is influenced
128 by the value and emotional significance they attach to these social units (Tajfel, 1981). In
129 the context of travel, one’s choices and decisions may be linked to push and pull
130 motivators that are influenced by the social unit and destination attributes. Based partly
131 on Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs, Pearce and colleagues developed the travel career
132 ladder (TCL) motivation theory (see Moscardo & Pearce, 1986; Pearce, 1988, 1991,
133 1993; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983). The TCL approach shows that as people’s travel
134 careers expand, their experiences grow, motivations change, and to some extent,

135 behaviours change (Pearce & Lee, 2005). Thus, people can use travel experiences to form
136 a self-identity and/or reconstruct that identity (Hindle et al., 2015) through
137 communication with ‘others’, that is, social units such as travelling partners, other
138 tourists, local hosts, and communities (Smed, 2009). For example, travelling with a social
139 unit (e.g. family, friends, or other social groups) can improve and enrich bonds,
140 interactions, and relationships (Crompton, 1979), thereby enhancing one’s personal and
141 social group identity. The choice of destination may also be influenced by (i) social unit
142 members’ recommendations for places they have travelled to before or similar places
143 (Correia et al., 2016); (ii) fashionable or prestigious destinations (Leibenstein, 1950); and
144 (iii) the need to boast to one’s social unit (Crompton, 1979). Travel provides individuals
145 the opportunity to reflect on themselves through interactions with ‘others’ or unfamiliar
146 groups such as other tourists, local hosts, or group tour companions. This reinforces a
147 sense of self in different social contexts, which is the essence of identity construction over
148 time (Finch, 2015).

149 For the purpose of this study, we incorporate some of Crompton’s (1979) theory of
150 push and pull motivating factors. We propose that the *push motivating factors* that
151 enhance one’s personal identity are *evaluation of self* and *regression*, and those that
152 enhance one’s social identity are *enhancement of kinship* and *social interaction*. Further,
153 we propose that *pull motivating factors* that enhance one’s personal identity are linked to
154 *cultural factors*, and those that enhance one’s social identity are linked to *destination*
155 *factors*. For instance, Laing and Frost (2017) found that Italy’s destination factors—food,
156 wine, art, and lifestyle—helped to change people’s identity because they were seen by
157 respondents as an ‘exotic other’. Nath and Saha (2017) suggest that museums as
158 destination factors are motivation determinants in cultural experience tourism in terms of
159 identity-seeking and identity-projection behaviour. These pull motivating factors have
160 differential effects on an individual’s identity needs, and together, they can influence an
161 individual’s motivation to escape for travel.

162 Overall, building on SCT as well as push and pull literature, this research aims to
163 contribute to an emerging market’s (i.e. UAE) research context that is under-researched.
164 The interrelationships examined in this study are illustrated in Figure 1.

165

166

-- -- -- {Insert Figure 1 about here} -- -- --

167

168 2.2 Personal identity push motivations

169 2.2.1 Evaluation of self

170 The vacation experience of being in a different milieu offers the opportunity for self-
171 reflection, self-evaluation, self-discovery, self-exploration (Bond & Falk, 2013; Pearce,
172 1982), self-construction (O'Reilly, 2005), self-development (Li et al., 2015), personal
173 identity exploration (Kivel & Kleiber, 2000), reconstruction (Ferrero, 2002; Wearing &
174 Wearing, 2001), and ego-enhancement (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015). Individuals may seek
175 experiences beyond simple contact with cultures, people, places, or landscapes, and look
176 to achieve a balance between mind, body, and soul, self-transformation, and better self-
177 understanding (Rocha et al., 2016). Such experiences can enrich one's self-worth, i.e. 'the
178 degree to which individuals feel positive about themselves, that is, they feel that they are
179 good and valuable' (Stets & Burke, 2014, p. 410).

180 Tourism studies have investigated the concept of personal identity with different
181 tourist types and nationalities. For example, Richards and King (2003) found that the
182 motivation to travel was linked to the need to search for one's self. Asçı et al. (2007)
183 investigated the psychological profiles of 64 Turkish rock climbers and found that holiday
184 activities involving rock climbing offered positive 'physical self-perception' and self-
185 worth enhancement. Cohen (2010b) explored 13 nationalities and found that self-
186 searching, learning about the self, and getting to know the self were important motivating
187 factors for most lifestyle travellers. Michael et al. (2017) found that participation in
188 recreational and outdoor activities like swimming, rock climbing, canoeing, and scuba
189 diving and women having the chance to wear different (Western) clothing helped Emirati
190 Islamic/Arab tourists in Australia to reflect and rediscover themselves. Park and Santos
191 (2017) confirmed similar findings suggesting that, due to the social and cultural
192 differences, travelling in Europe offered South Korean tourists the chance for self-
193 development and self-discovery, helping them to broaden their global perspectives and
194 citizenship. Given this background, it is interesting to understand the motivations to travel
195 for self-discovery, to re-evaluate one's lifestyle, or to enhance one's self-worth in a
196 different context such as the UAE. It is expected that an individual's choice of destination
197 is based on the need for self-evaluation in a different setting, thereby motivating one to
198 escape for travel. Thus, the study hypothesises that:

199 **H1:** Evaluation of self is positively related to escape for travel.

200 2.2.2 Regression

201 Travel provides the opportunity to construct a temporary self-identity (Stein, 2011),
202 which can be manifested through participation in regressive activities and behaviours
203 (Crompton, 1979) driven by child-like and hedonistic motives (Selwyn, 1996). Everyday
204 roles can be temporarily suspended on vacation, and people can behave in a ‘freer’ way,
205 with conduct considered unacceptable within the home cultural environment (Crompton,
206 1979; Stein, 2011). For example, Michael et al. (2017) found Australia to be culturally
207 relaxing for Arab/Islamic tourists as they felt free to indulge in activities normally
208 frowned upon at home, for example, men engaging in cooking activities.

209 Regression as a motivating push factor also encompasses an individual’s desire to
210 experience a simpler lifestyle (Fodness, 1994) or indulge in nostalgic experiences such
211 as the ‘lifestyle of a previous era’ or ‘the desire to regress to a less complex, less
212 changeable, less technologically advanced environment’ (Crompton, 1979, p. 418).
213 Tourists from Thailand, Germany, France, Britain, Japan, the USA, and Australia were
214 drawn to Laos for the simpler life experience e.g. friendliness and hospitality of the local
215 people, the rural countryside, inexpensive restaurants, value for money, cleanliness,
216 outdoor activities and easy of driving (Sirisack et al., 2014). Regression can therefore
217 play an important role in the construction of one’s self-identity, prompting the need to
218 escape for travel. Thus, the study hypothesises that:

219 **H2:** Regression is positively related to escape for travel.

220

221 2.3 Social identity push motivations

222 2.3.1 Enhancement of kinship

223 Vacation travel provides families an opportunity to collectively enhance its members’
224 social identity (Schänzel, 2010). The vacation setting reinforces family togetherness, a
225 sense of belonging, enjoyment, the excitement of a place, and an opportunity to co-create
226 the experience (Prebensen & Foss, 2011) through quality time spent together and the
227 opportunity to let one’s hair down, be oneself in a different environment, and feel closer
228 to each other (Michael et al., 2017). Family rules and routines are relaxed, which helps to
229 build stronger family ties (M2 PressWIRE, 2015). A survey of single Americans
230 conducted by a Dating Data poll found that during the holiday season, 50% of the sampled
231 population spent more time with family and friends to avoid loneliness, and 18% were

232 motivated to seek new relationships (Burnett, 2017). British outbound travellers to the
233 USA were motivated to visit family and friends (Jang & Cai, 2002). International tourists
234 were pushed to travel to Mauritius for social interaction and pulled for kinship reasons
235 (Prayag & Ryan, 2011). Visiting family is an important motive for travel as it helps to
236 establish and reaffirm one's social standing within family networks (Hibbert et al., 2013).

237 Schänzel (2010) reports that parents use holidays to create memories, reconnect
238 with family members, develop character, learn social and life skills, and establish and
239 build family values, which are part of generating a social identity among family members
240 and in society in general. Social identity is reinforced and motivates an individual to
241 escape through holiday engagement with immediate family members, travelling with
242 extended family, and/or visiting family and friends, strengthening one's social identity.
243 Thus, the study hypothesises that:

244 **H3:** Enhancement of kinship is positively related to escape for travel.

245

246 *2.3.2 Social interaction*

247 Social interaction is influenced by the competition between one's personal and social self
248 (Spears, 2001). The social self is part of an individual's self-concept that relates to his/her
249 membership in social groups (Tajfel, 1981). The vacation environment is fundamentally
250 social and, in turn, influences one's identity development (Bond & Falk, 2013) and
251 personal growth (Wearing & Wearing, 2001). Identity development and personal growth
252 are achieved through social interaction with different groups of people (Noy, 2004) and
253 participating in fun-filled tourism-related activities with people who share similar
254 interests (Jang & Cai, 2002).

255 The motivation to travel for social interaction is a critical component of the tourist
256 experience (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003). Moreover, sociological, psychological, and
257 anthropological theories of self and identity generally view interpersonal social relations
258 (through travel) as crucial in the formation of self and role internalisation (Cooley, 2017;
259 Mead, 1934). Research shows that taking a vacation for social interaction provides
260 valuable authentic cultural experiences (Chen et al., 2014) and encourages cross-cultural
261 social interaction (Michael et al., 2017). It also promotes a better understanding of cultural
262 differences (Reisinger & Turner, 1998), cultural and social values, rules, and interaction
263 patterns (Reisinger & Turner, 2002). Further, Hibbert et al. (2013) claim that identity (e.g.

264 social identity) is influenced by physical and social connections made through interaction
265 with others during travel. Social interaction can be an intensely rewarding cultural and
266 learning experience (Manrai & Manrai, 2011), helping to develop one's personal growth
267 and identity (Wearing & Wearing, 1996), motivating one to find escape through travel.
268 Thus, the study hypothesises that:

269 **H4:** Social interaction is positively related to escape for travel.

270

271 **2.4 Cultural factors: personal identity pull motivations**

272 Travel provides authentic experiences, which can shape one's personal identity through
273 engagement with different cultures and people (Wearing et al., 2010). The need to visit a
274 different culture may be tied to the desire to integrate another culture within one's own
275 personal identity. For instance, Japanese tourists attend flamenco shows in Spain for 'a
276 deep experience that becomes part of personal identity, giving them an opportunity for a
277 personal expression in an impersonal environment' (Gonzalez, 2008, p. 808). People's
278 motivation to escape to religious places is also linked to their identity as a religious person
279 (Bideci & Albayrak, 2016), and they are drawn to religious destinations that provide a
280 'sense of belonging' (Poria, 2003). Other researchers (e.g. Chen et al., 2014; Chen &
281 Huang, 2017; Ho et al., 2014) found that escape motivation for backpackers, volunteers,
282 and those who take working holidays may also be triggered by the need to experience and
283 interact with a different culture to develop a personal identity associated with improving
284 self-confidence, abilities, and better emotion management (Tsaur & Huang, 2016).
285 Moreover, the host culture presents memorable experiences contributing to tourists'
286 psychological well-being (Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017), a feeling of emotional
287 connection, and a sense of group identity (Kim et al., 2012). Another aspect of cultural
288 motivation is experiencing quality local ethnic food and processes (Rojas-Rivas et al.,
289 2018), which may help individuals to (re)constitute personal identity and provide
290 strategies to critically think about and amend certain aspects of their own existence that
291 form part of their identity (Ferrero, 2002). Thus, the pull motivation to escape for a
292 vacation may be triggered by the desire to explore and learn about a different culture
293 (Prayag & Ryan, 2011).

294 Cultural motivations have been explored with different nationalities (e.g. Bideci &
295 Albayrak, 2016; Park et al., 2015; Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015). Prior

296 studies have found that experiencing a different culture has a significant effect on tourist
297 motivation, behaviour, self-development (Li et al., 2015), and ego-enhancement (Nikjoo
298 & Ketabi, 2015). This is driven by the need to learn more about other cultures, lifestyles,
299 customs, and traditions (Michael et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2009; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). For
300 instance, Michael et al. (2017) claim that tourists also seek new experiences because the
301 destination offers a contrasting cultural experience to one's home environment. Thus, this
302 study hypothesises that:

303 **H5:** Cultural pull factors are positively related to escape for travel.

304

305 **2.5 Destination factors: social identity pull motivations**

306 Tourism motivation theory describes pull motivation as the factors that draw tourists to a
307 destination, which motivates people to escape for travel (Crompton, 1979). These factors
308 include attractions, features, accommodations, transport, infrastructure, hospitality, and
309 services (Ivanovic, 2009). From a cross-cultural view, differences exist between pull
310 motivations for tourists from different countries (Park et al., 2015). Based on TCL
311 motivation theory, pull motivations may also differ based on travel experience,
312 suggesting that those higher up on the TCL gravitate more towards satisfying higher-level
313 needs, identity construction or reconstruction, and self-development. To facilitate this,
314 the destinations must be exclusive and inaccessible; the destination pull factors must be
315 culturally and environmentally different to those of the home country; and the destination
316 attraction must include host-site relationship building, interactions, and nature-based trips
317 (Michael et al., 2017; Smed, 2009). In contrast, travellers on the lower end of the TCL
318 will look for destinations that are safe; they usually travel as a group and mainly seek
319 self-enhancement, security, and recognition (Pearce, 2005; Pearce & Lee, 2005).

320 Destination attractions that act as pull factors to satisfy one's need to escape for
321 travel include weather, beaches, friendly locals, nature, recreational areas, theme parks,
322 heritage sites, a different quality of life, and landscapes (Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Li et
323 al., 2016; Liu & Cheng, 2016; Rojek, 1993). Luxury, including hotels (Xu et al., 2018),
324 dining (Chen & Peng, 2018), and shopping (Park et al., 2010), is also an important
325 destination pull factor, as in the case of Dubai. The motivation to indulge in luxury or to
326 show one's status through fashionable destination choices might be triggered by a
327 deprivation of power, low self-esteem, a need for self-development, recognition, or

328 identity expression (Kock et al., 2018). Therefore, in this study, it is expected that tourists
329 are attracted to destinations that are famous (popular), fashionable, and luxurious.

330 Social identity theory proposes that in a given social context, people evaluate
331 themselves against ‘others’ and differentiate themselves within a given social context
332 (Brewer, 1991). Bond and Falk (2013) point out that tourists’ identity-related motivations
333 to visit a destination may be ‘curiosity-driven with a generic interest’; ‘socially
334 motivated’; related to an individual’s ‘professional or hobbyist passion’; that ‘satisfaction
335 is derived from having “been there and done that”’; or ‘to have a contemplative, spiritual,
336 or restorative experience’ (p. 435). Such motivations pull tourists to certain destinations
337 by providing them with a strong sense of attachment; a connection with which they can
338 identify or feel proud to be a part of (Scannell & Gifford, 2010); a shared meaning, social
339 belonging, and bond (Hay, 1998; Kyle et al., 2005); or an opportunity to improve oneself
340 (Liu & Cheng, 2016). Tourists’ interactions and experiences with a destination’s unique
341 architecture and characteristics provide ‘the opportunity to construct their own narratives
342 about themselves’ (Ye & Tussyadiah, 2011, p. 2). Thus, this study hypothesises that:

343 **H6:** Destination pull factors are positively related to escape for travel.

344

345 **3. RESEARCH METHODS**

346 **3.1 Research setting**

347 We situated our study in the context of the UAE to investigate how personal and social
348 identity motivations influence escape for travel. In the past decade, the UAE has
349 presented itself as a viable research context and attracted significant research interest (e.g.
350 Hammad et al., 2019; Michael, 2014; Michael et al., 2011; Prayag & Hosany, 2014).
351 Because tourism is an international phenomenon, Hammad et al. (2019, p. 64) reiterates,
352 ‘...therefore, it is worth exploring different parts of the world to understand the
353 perceptions of residents towards the various impacts of tourism.’ The Middle East is one
354 of the world’s fastest growing outbound travel markets, with the UAE being the second
355 biggest outbound travel market after Saudi Arabia (Staff Reporter, 2015). The Gulf
356 Cooperation Council (GCC) countries, comprising Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi
357 Arabia, and the UAE, account for 64% of the outbound international market (Sreenivas,
358 2018). Nevertheless, there has been minimal research on the GCC market, especially

359 concerning drivers of travel behaviour (see Michael et al., 2011; Michael et al., 2017;
360 Prayag & Hosany, 2014). The council is one of the world's fastest growing tourism
361 markets and is targeted by many destinations since GCC tourists are high-spenders, prefer
362 longer holidays, and carry large amounts of cash on international trips (Abbas, 2018).
363 Their average airfare expenditures make up 260% of the average for those emanating
364 from other parts of the world and 430% of accommodations (Arabian Travel Market,
365 2012). Particularly, UAE travellers spend about \$3,430 per trip, higher than the global
366 median amount of \$2,443 (Abbas, 2018). From 2016 to 2017, UAE residents took an
367 average of 4.8 international trips, and this is expected to reach 5.4 by 2020 (Abbas, 2018).
368 Given the scale of these expenditures, the need to understand the motivations of Arab
369 tourists from the GCC region and the UAE in particular is evident and warranted.

370

371 **3.2 Sample and data collection**

372 A survey was administered via email using Qualtrics and utilised to collect data from
373 local Emiratis and expatriates across the UAE. The three-month survey (*i.e. from May to*
374 *July in 2015*), was conducted to assess outbound tourists' motivations and behaviours
375 when taking international holidays. In this study, we only focused on international
376 (outbound) travel as: (i) most people in the UAE (expatriates, in particular) tend to travel
377 back home for vacation during the summer (Hanif, 2013); (ii) the UAE's geographic
378 location is proximal to other international destinations (Lohmann et al., 2009); and (iii)
379 travellers are on the lookout for unique scenery, history, culture, entertainment, quality
380 tourist facilities and infrastructure, as well as cool weather (Prayag & Hosany, 2014).

381 Several measures were undertaken to improve the response rate, as suggested by
382 studies on survey research (e.g. Dillman et al., 2014). For instance, because it was found
383 to have a positive effect on response rate, the questionnaire was accompanied by a cover
384 letter indicating the purpose of the study and potential contributions as well as assuring
385 respondents of complete confidentiality (Bryman, 2016; Dillman et al., 2014). Follow-up
386 reminder emails were sent out three weeks and six weeks after the start of the survey to
387 encourage participation from non-respondents.

388 A total of 471 responses were received, of which 80 responses were discarded from
389 respondents who said they 'have not taken holidays to any international destination'. An
390 additional 65 responses were removed due to incomplete key sections, leaving 326 valid

391 responses for subsequent analysis. As shown in Table 1, the majority were females
392 (68.4%), and age groups included 18–30 years old (54%), 31–40 years old (12.6%), 41–
393 60 years old (31.3%), and 65 years and older (2.1%). In the past two years, most
394 respondents had taken 1–3 holidays (52.8%), followed by 3–5 holidays (25.2%), and 6 or
395 more (19.3%). The positively skewed distribution towards female travellers is not
396 surprising, as evidence shows that more and more of the Middle East’s female millennials
397 are exploring the world’s trendiest tourist spots (EyeForTravel, 2018).

398
399 -- -- -- {Insert Table 1 about here} -- -- --

400

401 3.3 Measurements

402 Multi-item measures using a five-point scale from ‘1’=extremely disagree to
403 ‘5’=extremely agree were adapted from prior studies and modified to suit this study’s
404 context. The 24 measurement items synthesised from the literature, underlying each of
405 the seven constructs, were first contextualised and adapted to the UAE context (see Table
406 2). To measure both personal identity motivations (*evaluation of self* and *regression*) and
407 social identity motivations (*enhancement of kinship* and *social interaction*) as well as
408 destination and cultural pull factors, this study adapted measures from previous research
409 (Crompton, 1979; Michael, 2014; Schänzel, 2010). *Regression* was assessed using three
410 items from Crompton (1979) and Dann (1977); *escape for travel* was measured using four
411 items adapted from Michael (2014); *evaluation of self* was assessed using three items
412 from Crompton (1979); *enhancement of kinship* was measured using three items from
413 Crompton (1979) and Schänzel (2010); and *social interaction* items were adapted from
414 Crompton (1979) and Fodness (1994). To assess destination factors, three items were
415 adapted from Prayag and Hosany (2014), whilst five items were adapted from Gray
416 (1970), Wu et al. (2009), and Yoon and Uysal (2005) to measure cultural factors. The
417 psychometric properties for all constructs and measurements are provided in Table 2.

418
419 -- -- -- {Insert Table 2 about here} -- -- --

420

421 Content validity in the form of face validity was established by academic experts
422 who assessed how well the measures represented the constructs under study. In addition,
423 a pretest was undertaken with a small sample of respondents before the survey’s final

424 launch. The pretesting phase involved a review of the survey instrument by three
425 academics and three industry practitioners in the UAE with a sound knowledge of the
426 tourism sector to facilitate contextualisation to the research context. The review involved
427 checking the general adequacy of each item and construct in representing the concept,
428 evaluating the readability/choice of terminology, and assuring clarity/ease of
429 understanding and the items' relevance in real-world business situations. Based on their
430 feedback, minor modifications were made. For example, to ensure the items' relevance,
431 the following were worded to reflect circumstances familiar to UAE residents: *travel to*
432 *fashionable, luxurious locations* (destination pull factors), *experience a different scenery*
433 (cultural pull factors), and *escape from cultural restrictions and family bonds* (escape for
434 travel). Next, a pilot survey was conducted to identify and address issues that might affect
435 completion of the final questionnaire during the main study. The pilot results (based on
436 28 complete responses) proved useful in the final planning of the survey as they gave
437 insights on response rate, average completion time, and respondent dropout rate.

438

439 **4. DATA ANALYSIS**

440 **4.1 Preliminary analysis**

441 To facilitate hypothesis testing using structural equation modelling (SEM), preliminary
442 checks were conducted to examine if the data distribution met the assumptions of the
443 multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2010). First, to check for non-response bias issues, a test
444 suggested by Armstrong and Overton (1977) was used in which the underlying
445 assumption is that late respondents are likely to behave in the same manner as non-
446 respondents. A t-test was used to determine any statistically significant differences
447 between early and late respondents for all 24 items on the survey. The early respondents
448 included the 206 responses received before the first reminder email, whereas the late
449 respondents included the 120 responses obtained after the first and second follow-up
450 emails. The results of the t-tests between the two groups yielded no statistically significant
451 differences at the $p < 0.05$ level, suggesting that non-response bias was not a problem in
452 this study (Armstrong & Overton, 1977).

453 Next, although all the measurement scales used in this study were adapted from
454 existing literature, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify the

455 underlying factor structure; subsequently, all items loaded well onto their respective
456 constructs. EFA results demonstrated that unidimensionality existed; that is, the measured
457 variables were explained by only one underlying construct, which is important when more
458 than two constructs are involved in a study (Hair et al., 2010). Then, normality of
459 distribution tests were employed to assess the univariate skewness and kurtosis of the
460 variables and were found to be within acceptable levels as there were no values of
461 skewness > 3 or kurtosis values > 10 (Kline, 2005). Outliers and extreme values were
462 examined using histograms and boxplots, and no significant issues were identified, thus
463 indicating data validity (Hair et al., 2010).

464

465 **4.2 Common method bias**

466 Due to the nature of the cross-sectional data and the self-administered collection method
467 used in this study, common method variance (CMV) may have influenced the structural
468 estimates of the model (Malhotra et al., 2006). To mitigate the impact of CMV, several
469 measures were initially incorporated during the questionnaire design. First, respondents
470 were required to complete the questionnaire anonymously, the questionnaire was kept
471 short (10 minutes), and the measurement items were carefully formulated using validated
472 measures to reduce ambiguity and vagueness (Malhotra et al., 2006). Second, the threat
473 of common method bias was tested during data analysis using two statistical techniques
474 recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003). We first employed Harman's one-factor
475 analysis by linking each item of the seven factors to a single factor (Podsakoff et al.,
476 2003), which revealed poor model fit as reflected by the following indices: ($\chi^2_{252} =$
477 2356.052 , $\chi^2/df = 9.349$, $p < .001$, $NFI = .447$, $IFI = .475$, $TLI = .422$, $CFI = .472$, $RMSEA$
478 $= .160$), suggesting that CMV was unlikely to bias the study results.

479 We then assessed CMV using the 'marker variable' approach suggested by Lindell
480 and Whitney (2001). Thus, a theoretically unrelated construct was included in the analysis
481 as a proxy for common method bias. Williams et al. (2010) recommend selecting a marker
482 variable that is not theoretically related to the model variables but can simultaneously
483 capture sources of bias when measuring certain phenomena. As a result, all correlations
484 with the marker variable were found to be below the suggested .20 cut-off for problematic
485 method bias (Malhotra et al., 2006). Using the more conservative bias estimate, the CMV-
486 adjusted correlations were compared to the unadjusted matrix, and the correlations

487 remained unchanged after adjusting for CMV (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). This analysis
488 suggested that CMV was unlikely to be a serious concern in this study.

489

490 **4.3 Measurement model**

491 A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess the reliability and validity of the
492 measurement model using AMOS 23.0. Measurement models were used to assess the
493 overall model fit; goodness-of-fit and indices could be used to assess whether the
494 theoretical model fit the data (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Table 2 shows the
495 standardised factor loadings (SFLs) for each item, Cronbach's alpha scores, construct
496 reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) values. The SFLs of all
497 measurement items were above the .50 cut-off point, confirming adequate item reliability.
498 Cronbach's alpha scores ranged between .684 and .909, providing evidence for
499 convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). AVE values in conjunction with the high construct
500 reliability (>.70) provided evidence for good reliability and convergent validity. Overall,
501 the measurement model showed acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{225} = 413.349$, $\chi^2/df = 1.837$, $p < .01$,
502 normed fit index [NFI] = .903, incremental fit index [IFI] = .953, Tucker-Lewis index
503 [TLI] = .942, confirmatory fit index [CFI] = .953, root mean square error of
504 approximation [RMSEA] = .051). Although the Chi-square value was statistically
505 significant—usually the case with sample sizes above 200 (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012)—all
506 other statistics remained within acceptable ranges (Hair et al., 2010).

507 Table 3 provides the means, standard deviations, and interconstruct correlations as
508 well as an assessment of discriminant validity. In examining the internal consistency of
509 the constructs, CR was assessed using the procedures outlined by Fornell and Larcker
510 (1981), which include examining parameter estimates and their associated t-values as
511 well as assessing the AVE value for each construct. CR estimates greater than .70 and
512 most AVE values greater than .50 are considered to support internal consistency (Bagozzi
513 & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 3, the calculated estimates met the
514 stipulated criteria, evidencing internal consistency. Discriminant validity was then tested
515 using two approaches. As shown in Table 3, all interconstruct correlations are
516 significantly less than one at the $p = .001$ level, showing discriminant validity (Bagozzi
517 & Yi, 1988). Discriminant validity was examined by comparing the AVE value and each
518 calculated pairwise shared variance (SV) between the constructs (Fornell & Larcker,

1981). According to Voorhees et al. (2016), the AVE-SV comparison provides the best assessment of discriminant validity in marketing studies. As shown in Table 3, the square roots of the AVE values for each construct along the diagonal exceed the correlation coefficients for all other constructs, supporting adequate discriminant validity.

-- -- -- {Insert Table 3 about here} -- -- --

4.4 Data analysis and results

To test the hypothesised relationships, a structural model using SEM analysis in AMOS 23.0 was tested. The SEM approach was considered the most appropriate in this study as it reduces standard errors due to the simultaneous estimation of all parameters in a single model (Iacobucci et al., 2007). The structural model revealed acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{219} = 392.948$, $\chi^2/df = 1.794$, $p < .001$, NFI = .908, IFI = .957, TLI = .945, CFI = .956, RMSEA = .049), as all indices were within acceptable ranges. The results of the structural model are shown in Table 4.

With regard to push factors, the results supported H1, as the relationship between evaluation of self and escape for travel was statistically significant ($\beta = .299$, $t = 3.794$). In support of H2, the results showed that the need for regression was also positively related to escape for travel ($\beta = .236$, $t = 2.524$). However, the analysis found the link between enhancement of kinship and escape for travel to be significant but negatively related ($\beta = -.402$, $t = -4.865$). Thus, H3 was not supported. Social interaction was found to be positively related to escape for travel ($\beta = .160$, $t = 2.283$), supporting H4. In terms of pull factors, a positive relationship emerged between cultural motives and escape for travel ($\beta = .211$, $t = 3.576$) in support of H5. However, the results failed to support H6, as destination pull factors did not influence escape for travel ($\beta = -.024$, $t = -.348$).

-- -- -- {Insert Table 4 about here} -- -- --

5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine a nomological network model that positions the effect of push and pull motivations linked to an individual's personal and social identities as key antecedents to escape for travel. The study provides valuable theoretical

551 and empirical evidence for the differential effects between push and pull motivations
552 associated with one's personal and social identities and the need to escape for travel.

553 The effects of personal identity push (evaluation of self and regression) and pull
554 motivations (cultural factors) on escape for travel are supported. Therefore, this study
555 supports and builds on the extant literature within the context of an under-researched
556 emerging market such as the UAE as the findings indicate evaluation of self, regression,
557 and cultural factors as important antecedents to and drivers for escape for travel (e.g.
558 Michael et al., 2017; Park & Santos, 2017; Sirisack et al., 2014). Further, the results of
559 this study are consistent with previous literature showing that push and pull motivations
560 may even overlap each other (Ottevanger, 2007) to influence tourist behaviour. Thus, this
561 study suggests that tourists seeking evaluation of self and regression are more likely to
562 choose destinations that offer a unique cultural holiday experience coupled with the
563 opportunity to experience and learn from a different culture. Different cultural settings
564 may also provide the chance to reinvigorate alternate identities or take on a temporary
565 identity (Crompton, 1979) and explore personal identity (Kivel & Kleiber, 2000). Overall,
566 the above result is not surprising, as escaping from one's home or mundane environment
567 provides a relaxing cultural context, thus becoming a reflective project.

568 Escape for travel was also examined using push and pull motivations linked to an
569 individual's social identity. Push motivations include the need for social interaction and
570 enhancement of kinship as well as the destination factors that pull people to a destination.
571 It is surprising that the only social identity-based push motivation that triggers escape for
572 travel is the need for social interaction, suggesting that within the UAE context, social
573 interaction is positively related to escape for travel. For example, Michael (2014) found
574 that vacations in Australia facilitated social interaction between Emiratis and local
575 Australian hosts in restaurants, hotels, and attractions. Further, a vacation provides
576 expatriates with the chance to socialise and interact with other people. As in existing
577 literature, the present study posits that the vacation environment stimulates social identity
578 construction, provides personal growth through valuable authentic experiences, and
579 encourages cross-cultural social interaction (Bond & Falk, 2013; Chen et al., 2014;
580 Michael et al., 2017; Wearing & Wearing, 1991). In addition, positive social relationships
581 with travel companions bring life satisfaction, thus highlighting the importance of shared
582 travel experiences and activities (Rook, 1987). Through socially motivated contexts like

583 tourism, individuals are able to enhance their well-being, improve key character
584 strengths, and grow socially (Nyaupane et al., 2008).

585 Holidays provide an opportunity for family bonding, a sense of belonging,
586 enjoyment, excitement, and co-creation of an experience (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007;
587 Prebensen & Foss, 2011). However, from a social identity perspective, although family
588 travel provides a chance to create and share memories and cement relationships (Hibbert,
589 2013), this study found that the push motivations related to enhancement of kinship do
590 not influence escape for travel for Emiratis and expatriates in the UAE. This is possibly
591 due to the amount of family time and bonding that Emiratis and expatriates in the UAE
592 already have; thus, their push motivations may differ from other study contexts. In the
593 case of Emiratis, this result is not surprising as families live together, and most
594 celebrations and entertainment mainly include family members (Michael, 2014). In the
595 case of expatriates, families are now spending long summer vacations together in the
596 UAE, as the country now has many theme parks and other activities for children and
597 parents that encourage family bonding (Aldroubi, 2017). Therefore, expatriates are not
598 always pushed to leave for a family-bonding holiday.

599 Another surprising result is that destination pull factors do not positively influence
600 escape for travel. This finding is tangential to other studies identifying that destination
601 pull factors are key drivers of escape for travel (e.g. Wu et al., 2009; Yousefi & Marzuki,
602 2015). Although destination characteristics may engender and strengthen internal push
603 motivations, the results of this study suggest that they do not play an important role in
604 affecting escape for travel to fulfil social identity motives. This might be because UAE
605 residents do not see vacations to luxurious, fashionable destinations as helping to build
606 social identity or as a means of self-development, recognition, or identity expression
607 (Kock et al., 2018).

608

609 **5.1 Theoretical and managerial implications**

610 This study contributes to both theory and practice. In terms of academic implications, a
611 nomological network model anchored on two theoretical perspectives was tested to
612 examine what drives escape for travel and showed that UAE tourists' motivations linked
613 to personal and social identities play a crucial role in influencing travel behaviour. In
614 essence, the study contributes to the existing knowledge on push and pull tourist

615 motivations by providing an understanding of the link between identity as a construct
616 influencing behavioural motivation. This research tested the relationships between
617 identity-related motivations classified as personal (i.e. push motivations: evaluation of
618 self and regression; pull motivations: cultural factors) and social (i.e. push motivations:
619 enhancement of kinship and social interaction; pull motivations: destination factors)
620 acting as antecedents to escape for travel. The study also contributes to knowledge by
621 showing the differential effects of these identity-related motivating factors that trigger
622 and/or promote the need to escape for a vacation. In addition, this research indicates the
623 role these factors play and the extent to which they influence the destination choice.

624 Further, this study considers personal and social identity motivations as two
625 dimensions to measure motivation in a context, which has not been sufficiently explored
626 in previous research. The push and pull theory of tourist motivations describes the push
627 as relating to an individual's own internal interest(s) in a destination, and the pull relates
628 to the attractiveness/attractions of the destination itself (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996).
629 However, research evidence claims that this theory falls short of more granularly
630 examining individual motivations from an identity-seeking perspective (Nath & Saha,
631 2017). Therefore, this research contributes to knowledge by investigating/classifying the
632 extent to which escape is driven by individual personal and social identity motivations.
633 Further, Nath and Saha (2017) show that identity is postulated to be a construct in
634 motivating behaviour. Smed (2009) also points out that tourist motivation can change as
635 people progress in their travel careers with different experiences and become a significant
636 part of whom one is perceived and desires to be, thus contributing to the construction and
637 reconstruction of both personal and social identities. Tourism provides the opportunity to
638 explore new contexts.

639 In terms of managerial implications, an understanding of personal and social
640 identity in tourism can help differentiate and position destinations to attract tourists. For
641 example, in the UAE, Dubai is marketed as a modern city, whilst Sharjah is branded and
642 marketed as the Islamic cultural capital of the nation and within the broader GCC region.
643 Destination marketers are often challenged with little to no space remaining in a
644 perceptual map to show their differentiation. This research can practically demonstrate
645 that new concepts, such as personal and social identity linked to tourism motivations, can
646 be used to differentiate a destination. For instance, 'nostalgia' is connected to tourism,

647 but the term is often ignored in tourism literature (see Metod, 2018). According to
648 Fodness (1994), a nostalgic experience is a ‘search for the lifestyle of a previous era’.
649 Therefore, destinations can position themselves as nostalgic and attract tourists who want
650 to ‘regress’ on vacation and experience the lifestyle of a previous era that was much less
651 of a ‘hustle and bustle’. Indeed, as tourism destinations have become de-differentiated
652 with the effect of globalisation and modernisation, it has become ever more important to
653 be perceived as different from other tourism destinations (Pike, 2008). Therefore, tourism
654 marketers and practitioners should understand the interplay and relationships between
655 identity-related motivations to better recognise the needs of potential visitors, aim to fulfil
656 those needs, and target those visitors accordingly.

657

658 **5.2 Limitations and future research directions**

659 The first limitation relates to the cross-sectional nature of the data, which was collected
660 in one specific country. Although the results can be generalised to other countries due to
661 the ubiquitous nature of tourists’ travel, elements such as the economic development,
662 geographic location, and cultural make-up of the UAE should be considered upon
663 interpretation because the key drivers of tourist motivation for citizens of one country
664 may be different from those in other locations. Future research could extend the present
665 study to other countries, particularly in developed markets, which could help to generalise
666 the results of this study’s conceptual model as well as compare developed versus
667 developing markets and collectivistic versus individualistic nations. Further, because
668 peoples’ motivations to travel change over time, a longitudinal study design examining
669 the dynamic interactions of these drivers and outcomes could also extend the
670 generalisability of this study’s findings.

671 Next, tourists’ perceptions towards travel are contextual, varying from community
672 to community and generation to generation, suggesting that there are other potential push
673 and pull factors that can influence the motivation to escape. Thus, an opportunity to
674 identify and integrate additional drivers that may influence tourists’ motivations into the
675 proposed model exists. Such variables could range from market variables (country/place
676 reputation or image) to socio-demographics (lifestyle stage, household size), generational
677 cohorts, and psychosocial variables. Future research could also examine boundary
678 conditions (e.g. income levels) that could moderate the specified relationships in the

679 model. Lastly, this study examined travel behaviour that occurred in the last two years,
680 which might have a potential impact on the responses' reliability. To capture recent travel
681 experience, future research might consider travel taken within the last 12 months.

682 **References**

- 683 Abbas, W. (2018). UAE residents are among biggest holiday spenders. The Khaleej
684 Times. Retrieved from: [https://www.khaleejtimes.com/business/banking-](https://www.khaleejtimes.com/business/banking-finance/uae-residents-are-among-biggest-holiday-spenders)
685 [finance/uae-residents-are-among-biggest-holiday-spenders](https://www.khaleejtimes.com/business/banking-finance/uae-residents-are-among-biggest-holiday-spenders) (accessed 20/07/19).
- 686 Aldroubi, M. (2017). UAE sees an increase in expatriate families staying in the country
687 during summer. The National. Retrieved from: [https://www.thenational.ae/uae/uae-](https://www.thenational.ae/uae/uae-sees-an-increase-in-expatriate-families-staying-in-the-country-during-summer-1.251690)
688 [sees-an-increase-in-expatriate-families-staying-in-the-country-during-summer-](https://www.thenational.ae/uae/uae-sees-an-increase-in-expatriate-families-staying-in-the-country-during-summer-1.251690)
689 [1.251690](https://www.thenational.ae/uae/uae-sees-an-increase-in-expatriate-families-staying-in-the-country-during-summer-1.251690) (accessed 10/8/19).
- 690 Arabian Travel Market. (2012). Unique survey reveals travel habits of GCC nationals.
691 Retrieved from [http://arabiantravelmarket.wtm.com/Archive-2016/press-](http://arabiantravelmarket.wtm.com/Archive-2016/press-releases/Unique-survey-reveals-travel-habits-of-GCC-nationals/)
692 [releases/Unique-survey-reveals-travel-habits-of-GCC-nationals-/](http://arabiantravelmarket.wtm.com/Archive-2016/press-releases/Unique-survey-reveals-travel-habits-of-GCC-nationals/) (accessed
693 20/07/19).
- 694 Armstrong, J.S., & Overton, T. (1977). Estimating non-response bias mail surveys.
695 *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14, 396–402.
- 696 Aşçı, F., Demirhan, G., & Dinç, S. (2007). Psychological profile of Turkish rock
697 climbers: An examination of climbing experience and route difficulty. *Perceptual and*
698 *Motor Skills*, 104, 892–900.
- 699 Bagozzi, R., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models, *Journal of*
700 *the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16(1), 74–94.
- 701 Bagozzi, R., & Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural
702 equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(1), 8–34.
- 703 Baloglu, S., & Uysal, M. (1996). Market segments of push and pull motivations: A
704 canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality*
705 *Management*, 8(3), 47–67.
- 706 Baumeister, R.F. (1998). The self. In D.T. Gilbert, S.T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The*
707 *handbook of social psychology* (4th ed., pp. 680–740). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- 708 Bideci, M., & Albayrak, T. (2016). Motivations of the Russian and German tourists
709 visiting pilgrimage site of Saint Nicholas Church. *Tourism Management*
710 *Perspectives*, 18, 10–13.
- 711 Bond, N., & Falk, J. (2013). Tourism and identity-related motivations: Why am I here
712 (and not there)? *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(5), 430–442.
- 713 Brewer, M.B. (1991). The social self: On being the same and different at the same time.
714 *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17, 475–482.
- 715 Bruyere, B., & Rappe, S. (2007). Identifying the motivations of environmental
716 volunteers. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 50(4), 503–516.
- 717 Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). London: Oxford University Press.
- 718 Burke, P., & Stets, J. (2009). *Identity theory*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.
- 719 Burnett, R. (2017). Single men feel under more pressure to be in a relationship than
720 women, survey finds. Retrieved from [https://www.independent.co.uk/life-](https://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/single-men-women-relationship-pressures-bachelors-loneliness-social-pressure-survey-research-a8103111.html)
721 [style/single-men-women-relationship-pressures-bachelors-loneliness-social-](https://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/single-men-women-relationship-pressures-bachelors-loneliness-social-pressure-survey-research-a8103111.html)
722 [pressure-survey-research-a8103111.html](https://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/single-men-women-relationship-pressures-bachelors-loneliness-social-pressure-survey-research-a8103111.html) (accessed 10/07/19).

- 723 Bussey, K. (2011). Gender identity development. In S.J. Schwartz, K. Luyckx, & V.L.
724 Vignoles (Eds.), *Handbook of identity theory and research* (603–628). Springer. doi:
725 10.1007/978-1-4419-7988-9_25. (pp.1–27).
- 726 Chen, G., Bao, J., & Huang, S. (2014). Segmenting Chinese backpackers by travel
727 motivations. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 355–367.
- 728 Chen, G., & Huang, S. (2017). Toward a theory of backpacker personal development:
729 Cross-cultural validation of the BPD scale. *Tourism Management*, 59, 630–639.
- 730 Chen, A., & Peng, N. (2018). Examining consumers' intentions to dine at luxury
731 restaurants while traveling. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 71, 59–
732 67.
- 733 Cohen, S. (2010a). Personal identity (de)formation among lifestyle travellers: A double-
734 edged sword. *Leisure Studies*, 29(3), 289–301.
- 735 Cohen, S. (2010b). Chasing a myth? Searching for 'self' through lifestyle travel. *Tourist*
736 *Studies*, 10(2), 117–133.
- 737 Cohen, S. (2010c). Searching for escape, authenticity and identity: Experiences of
738 'lifestyle travellers'. In M. Morgan, P. Lugosi & J.R.B Ritchie (Eds.), *The Tourism*
739 *and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives* (pp. 27–42).
740 Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- 741 Cooley, C.H. (2017). *Human Nature and Social Order*. New York: Routledge.
- 742 Correia, A., Kozak, M., & Reis, H. (2016). Conspicuous consumption of the elite: Social
743 and self-congruity in tourism choices. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(6), 738–750.
- 744 Crompton, J. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*,
745 6(4), 408–424.
- 746 Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*
747 4(4), 184–194.
- 748 Desforges, L. (2000). Traveling the world: Identity and travel biography. *Annals of*
749 *Tourism Research*, 27(4), 929–945.
- 750 Dillman, D.A., Smyth, J.D., & Christian, L.M. (2014). *Internet, phone, mail, and mixed-*
751 *mode surveys: The tailored design method*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- 752 EyeForTravel. (2018). Why Middle East travel deserves a closer look. Retrieved from
753 [https://www.eyefortravel.com/revenue-and-data-management/why-middle-east-](https://www.eyefortravel.com/revenue-and-data-management/why-middle-east-travel-deserves-closer-look)
754 [travel-deserves-closer-look](https://www.eyefortravel.com/revenue-and-data-management/why-middle-east-travel-deserves-closer-look) (accessed 10/7/19).
- 755 Falk, J. (2008). Identity and the art museum visitor. *Journal of Art Education* 34(2), 25–
756 34.
- 757 Ferrero, S. (2002). Comida sin par. Consumption of Mexican food in Los Angeles:
758 'Foodscapes' in a transnational consumer society. In W. Belasco & P. Scranton
759 (Eds.), *Food nations: Selling taste in consumer societies* (pp. 194–219). New York:
760 Routledge.
- 761 Finch, J. (2015). Reflections on ourselves: Family identities and transient encounters on
762 holiday. *Families, Relationships and Societies*, 4(1), 71–86.
- 763 Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3),
764 555–581.

765 Fornell, C. & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable
766 variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics, *Journal of Marketing*
767 *Research*, 18(3), 382–388.

768 Gonzalez, M. (2008). Intangible heritage tourism and identity. *Tourism Management*, 29,
769 807–810.

770 Gray, J.P. (1970). *International travel – international trade*. Lexington Heath: Lexington
771 Books.

772 Green, B. (2001). Leveraging subculture and identity to promote sport events. *Sport*
773 *Management Review*, 4(1), 1–19.

774 Hair, J.F. Jr., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data*
775 *analysis – A global perspective* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.

776 Haldrup, M., & Larsen, J. (2003). The Family Gaze. *Tourist Studies*, 3(1), 23–45.

777 Hammad, N.M., Ahmad, S.Z., & Papastathopoulos, A. (2019). The moderating role of
778 nationality in residents’ perceptions of the impacts of tourism development in the
779 United Arab Emirates. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(1), 61–75.

780 Hanif, N. (2013). *More people opting to leave UAE on summer breaks*. Retrieved from:
781 [https://www.thenational.ae/uae/more-people-opting-to-leave-uae-on-summer-](https://www.thenational.ae/uae/more-people-opting-to-leave-uae-on-summer-breaks-1.646714)
782 [breaks-1.646714](https://www.thenational.ae/uae/more-people-opting-to-leave-uae-on-summer-breaks-1.646714) (accessed 9/1/2020).

783 Hay, R. (1998). Sense of place in developmental context. *Journal of Environmental*
784 *Psychology*, 18, 5–29.

785 Hibbert, J. (2013). *Understanding the role of the tourists’ identity in travel*. Doctoral
786 dissertation, Bournemouth University, UK.

787 Hibbert, J., Dickinson, J., Gössling, S., & Curtin, S. (2013). Identity and tourism mobility:
788 An exploration of the attitude–behaviour gap. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(7),
789 999–1016.

790 Higgins, E.T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological*
791 *Review*, 94, 319–340.

792 Hindle, N., Martin, A., & Nash, R. (2015). Tourism development and the backpacker
793 market in Highland Scotland. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 15(3), 178–192.

794 Ho, C.I., Lin, P.Y., & Huang, S.C. (2014). Exploring Taiwanese working holidaymakers’
795 motivations: An analysis of means-end hierarchies. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*
796 *Research*, 38(4), 463–486.

797 Hogg, M.A. (2006). Social identity theory. In P.J. Burke (Ed.), *Contemporary social*
798 *psychological theories* (pp. 111–136). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

799 Iacobucci, D., Saldanha, N., & Deng, X. (2007). A meditation on mediation: Evidence
800 that structural equations models perform better than regressions. *Journal of*
801 *Consumer Psychology*, 17(2), 139–153.

802 Ivanovic, M. (2009) *Tourist attractions*. In M. Ivanovic, P. Khunou, N. Reynish, R.
803 Pawson, L. Tseane, and N. Wassung (Eds), *Tourism development 1: Fresh*
804 *perspectives* (149–182). Cape Town, South Africa: Pearson Education and Prentice
805 Hall.

- 806 Jang, S., & Cai, L. (2002). Travel motivations and destination choice: A study of British
807 outbound market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 13(3), 111–133.
- 808 Kassean, H., & Gassita, R. (2013). Exploring tourists' 'push and pull' motivations to visit
809 Mauritius as a holiday destination. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and*
810 *Leisure*, 2(3), 1–13.
- 811 Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J.R.B., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure
812 memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(1), 12–25.
- 813 Kyle, G., Graefe, A., & Manning, R. (2005). Testing the dimensionality of place
814 attachment in recreational settings. *Environment and Behavior*, 37, 153–177.
- 815 Kivel, B.D., & Kleiber, D.A. (2000). Leisure in the identity formation of lesbian/gay
816 youth: Personal, but not social. *Leisure Sciences*, 22(4), 215–232.
- 817 Kline, R.B. (2005). *Methodology in the social sciences. Principles and practice of*
818 *structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, USA: Guilford Press.
- 819 Kock, F., Josiassen, A., & Assaf, A.G. (2018). On the origin of tourist behavior. *Annals*
820 *of Tourism Research*, 73, 180–183.
- 821 Laing, J., & Frost, W. (2017). Journeys of well-being: Women's travel narratives of
822 transformation and self-discovery in Italy. *Tourism Management*, 62, 110–119.
- 823 Lee, S., Bai, B., & Busser, J. (2019). Pop star fan tourists: An application of self-
824 expansion theory. *Tourism Management*, 72, 270–280.
- 825 Lee, I., Brown, G., King, K., & Shipway, R. (2016). Social identity in serious sport event
826 space. *Event Management*, 20, 491–499.
- 827 Leibenstein, H. (1950). Bandwagon, snob, and Veblen effects in the theory of consumers'
828 demand. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 64(2), 183–207.
- 829 Lennon, J., & Foley, M. (2006). *Dark Tourism: The attraction of death and disaster*.
830 London: Thomson.
- 831 Li, M., Zhang, H., & Cai, L. (2016). A subcultural analysis of tourism motivations.
832 *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 40(1), 85–113.
- 833 Li, M., Zhang, H., Xiao, H., & Chen, Y. (2015). A grid-group analysis of tourism
834 motivation. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(1), 35–44.
- 835 Lindell, M.K., & Whitney, D.J. (2001). Accounting for common method variance in
836 cross-sectional research designs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 114–121.
- 837 Liu, Y., & Cheng, J., (2016). Place identity: How tourism changes our destination.
838 *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 8(2), 76–85.
- 839 Liutikas, D. (2012). Experiences of valuistic journeys: Motivation and behavior. In R.
840 Sharpley, & P. Stone (Eds.), *Contemporary tourist experience: Concepts and*
841 *consequences*. New York: Routledge.
- 842 Lohmann, G., Albers, S., Koch, B., & Pavlovich, K. (2009). From hub to tourist
843 destination—An explorative study of Singapore and Dubai's aviation-based
844 transformation. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 15(5), 205–211.
- 845 Lozanski, K. (2010). Independent travel: Colonialism, liberalism and the self. *Critical*
846 *Sociology*, 37(4), 465–482.

847 M2 PressWIRE (2015). Families much stronger after holidaying together, says new
848 study. M2 Presswire. Retrieved from: <http://www.m2.com> (accessed 20/07/19).

849 Malhotra, N.K., Kim, S.S., & Patil, A. (2006). Common method variance in IS research:
850 A comparison of alternative approaches and a reanalysis of past research,
851 *Management Science*, 52(12), 1865–1883.

852 Manrai, L., & Manrai, A. (2011). Cross-cultural and cross-national consumer research in
853 the global economy of the twenty-first century. *Journal of International Consumer*
854 *Marketing*, 23(3/4), 167–180.

855 Maslow, A.H. (1970). *Motivation and personality* (2nd ed.), New York: Harper & Row
856 Publishers.

857 Maoz, D. (2007). Backpackers’ motivations the role of culture and nationality. *Annals of*
858 *Tourism Research*, 34(1), 122–140.

859 Mead, G.H. (1934). *Mind, self and society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

860 Mehmetoglu, M. (2011). Examining the relationship between push and pull factors
861 through partial least-squares path modelling. In J.S. Chen (Ed.), *Advances in*
862 *Hospitality and Leisure* pp.153–171 (*Advances in Hospitality and Leisure*, Volume
863 7) Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

864 Metod, S. (2018). Characterising the flows of Slovenian tourists within the former
865 Yugoslavia with respect to post-communist ‘nostalgic context’. *Moravian*
866 *Geographical Reports*, 26, 14–26.

867 Michael, N. (2014). *Understanding tourist motivations: Emirati leisure travel to Australia*.
868 Saarbrücken: Scholars’ Press.

869 Michael, I., Armstrong, A., Badran, B., & King, B. (2011). Dubai outbound tourism: An
870 exploratory study of Emiratis and expatriates. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 17(1),
871 83–91.

872 Michael, N., Wien, C., & Reisinger, Y. (2017). Push and pull escape travel motivations
873 of Emirati nationals to Australia. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and*
874 *Hospitality Research*, 11(3), 274–296.

875 Michael, N., James, R., & Michael, I. (2018). Australia’s cognitive, affective and conative
876 destination image: An Emirati tourist perspective. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 9(1),
877 36–59.

878 Moscardo, G.M., & Pearce, P.L., (1986). Historical theme parks: An Australian
879 experience in authenticity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(3), 467–479.

880 Murdy, S., Alexander, M., & Bryce, D. (2018). What pulls ancestral tourists ‘home’? An
881 analysis of ancestral tourist motivations. *Tourism Management*, 64, 13–19.

882 Nath, A., & Saha, P. (2017). A theoretical positioning of self and social identities as
883 antecedents in cultural-experiential tourism. *Academica Turistica*, 10(2), 115–128.

884 Nikjoo, A., & Ketabi, M. (2015). The role of push and pull factors in the way tourists
885 choose their destination. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and*
886 *Hospitality Research*, 26(4), 588–597.

887 Noy, C. (2004). Performing identity: Touristic narratives of self-change. *Text and*
888 *Performance Quarterly*, 24(2), 115–138.

- 889 Nyaupane, G.P., Teye, V., & Paris, C. (2008). Innocents abroad: Attitude change toward
890 hosts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 650–667.
- 891 O'Reilly, C. (2005). Tourist or traveller? Narrating backpacker identity. In A. Jaworski
892 & A. Pritchard (Eds.), *Discourse, Communication and Tourism* (pp. 150–169).
893 Clevedon: Channel View.
- 894 Ottevanger, H. (2007). Sport tourism: factors of influence on sport event visit motivation.
895 Master's thesis, Bournemouth University, United Kingdom. Retrieved from
896 <http://www.du.se/pagefiles/5054/ottevanger.pdf> (accessed 15/07/19).
- 897 Oyserman, D. (2007). Social identity and self-regulation. In A.W. Kruglanski & E.T.
898 Higgins (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (2nd ed., pp. 432–
899 453). New York: Guilford Press.
- 900 Oyserman, D. (2015). Identity-based motivation. In R. Scott & S. Kosslyn (Eds.),
901 *Emerging Trends in the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (pp. 1–11). Wiley Online
902 Library.
- 903 Oyserman, D., Elmore, K., & Smith, G. (2012). Self, self-concept, and identity. In M.
904 Leary, & J.P. Tangney, *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 69–104). New York:
905 Guildford Press.
- 906 Park, K., Reisinger, Y., & Noh, E. (2010). Luxury shopping in tourism. *International*
907 *Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(2), 164–178.
- 908 Park, S., & Santos, C. (2017). Exploring the tourist experience: A sequential approach.
909 *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(1), 16–27.
- 910 Park, S., Lee, C., & Miller, J. (2015). A comparative study of the motivations, activities,
911 overall satisfaction, and post-trip behaviors of international tourists in Macau:
912 Mainland Chinese, Hongkongese, Taiwanese, and Westerners. *Asia Pacific Journal*
913 *of Tourism Research*, 20(10), 1174–1193.
- 914 Pearce, P.L. (1982). *The social psychology of tourist behaviour* (1st ed.). Maxwell House,
915 Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York: Pergamon Press.
- 916 Pearce, P.L. (1988). *The Ulysses factor – Evaluating visitors in tourist settings*. New
917 York: Springer-Verlag.
- 918 Pearce, P.L. (1991). Analysing tourist attractions. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(1), 46–
919 55.
- 920 Pearce, P.L. (1993). Fundamentals of tourist motivation. In Pearce, G. Douglas, & R.W.
921 Butler (Eds.). *Tourism research – Critiques and challenges*. UK: Routledge
- 922 Pearce, P.L., & Caltabiano, M. (1983). Inferring travel motivation from travellers'
923 experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 22(2), 16–20.
- 924 Pearce, P.L., & Lee, U. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist
925 motivation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 226–237.
- 926 Pike, S. (2008). Destination branding: Analysing brand equity for Queensland's Coral
927 Coast. In S. Richardson, L. Fredline, A. Patiar, & M. Ternel (Eds.), 18th Annual
928 Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education Conference:
929 Where the Bloody Hell Are We?, 11–14 February 2008, Gold Coast International
930 Hotel, Queensland.

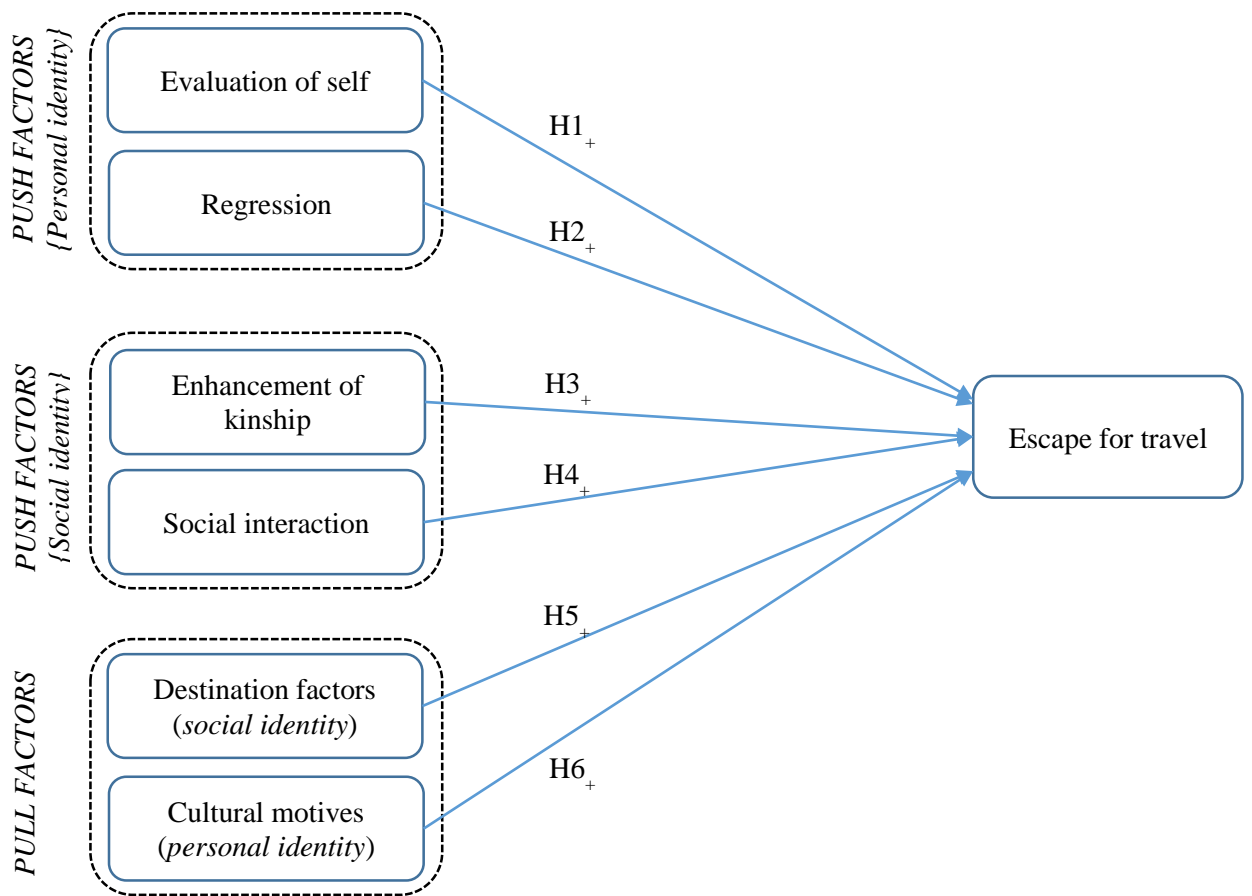
- 931 Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J.Y., & Podsakoff, N.P. (2003). Common
 932 method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and
 933 recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903.
- 934 Poria, Y. (2003). Tourism, religion and religiosity: A holy mess. *Current Issues in*
 935 *Tourism*, 6(4), 340–363.
- 936 Prayag, G. & Hosany, S. (2014). When Middle East meets West: Understanding the
 937 motives and perceptions of young tourists from United Arab Emirates. *Tourism*
 938 *Management*, 40, 35–45.
- 939 Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2011). The relationship between the push & pull attributes of a
 940 tourist destination: The role of nationality: An analytical qualitative research
 941 approach. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(2), 121–143.
- 942 Prebensen, N., & Foss, L. (2011). Coping and co-creating in tourist experiences.
 943 *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(1), 54–67.
- 944 Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1998). Cultural differences between Mandarin-speaking
 945 tourists and Australian hosts and their impact on cross-cultural tourist-host
 946 interaction. *Journal of Business Research*, 42(2), 175–187.
- 947 Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L.W. (2002). Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets
 948 and Australian hosts, part 1. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(3), 295–315.
- 949 Reitsamer, B.F., & Brunner-Sperdin, A. (2017). Tourist destination perception and well-
 950 being: What makes a destination attractive? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 23(1),
 951 55–72.
- 952 Richards, G. & King, B. (2003). Youth travel and backpacking. *Travel and Tourism*
 953 *Analyst*, 6, 1–23.
- 954 Rocha, G., Seabra, C., Silva, C., & Abrantes, J.L. (2016). Holistic tourism: Motivations,
 955 self-image and satisfaction. *Journal of Tourism Research & Hospitality*, Special
 956 Issue (S2) *New Trends in Tourism Management* (4), 1–9.
- 957 Rojas-Rivas, E., Espinoza-Ortega, A., Martinez-Garcia, C.G. Moctezuma-Peres., S &
 958 Thome-Ortiz, H. (2018). Exploring the perception of Mexican urban consumers
 959 toward functional foods using the free word association technique. *Journal of*
 960 *Sensory Studies*, 33(5), e12439.
- 961 Rojek, C. (1993). *Ways of escape: Modern transformations in leisure and travel.*
 962 Hampshire: The Macmillan Press.
- 963 Rook, K.S. (1987). Social support versus companionship: Effects on life stress,
 964 loneliness, and evaluations by others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*,
 965 52(6), 1132–1147.
- 966 Scannell, L., & Gifford, R. (2010). Defining place attachment: A tripartite organizing
 967 framework. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 30(1), 1–10.
- 968 Schänzel, H. (2010). Family time and own time on holiday: Generation, gender, and
 969 group dynamic perspectives from New Zealand. Doctoral dissertation, Victoria
 970 University of Wellington.
- 971 Schumacker, R.E., & Lomax, R.G. (1996). *A guide to structural equations modelling.*
 972 Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

- 973 Selwyn, T. (1996). *The tourist image. Myths and myth making in tourism*. Chichester:
974 Wiley.
- 975 Shanahan, M.C. (2009). Identity in science learning: Exploring the attention given to
976 agency and structure in studies of identity. *Studies in Science Education* 45(1), 43–
977 64.
- 978 Sirisack, D., Xayavong, S., Phongsavath, S., & Vongsanga, N. (2014). The characteristics
979 and motivations of foreign tourists who visit Luang Prabang Province, Lao PDR.
980 *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(9), 262–275.
- 981 Smed, K. (2009). *Tourism & Identity – accumulated tourist experience and travel career
982 narratives in tourists’ identity construction*. PhD thesis, Aalborg University,
983 Denmark.
- 984 Spears, R. (2001). The interaction between the individual and the collective self: Self-
985 categorization in context. In C. Sedikides, & M.B. Brewer (Eds.), *Individual self,
986 relational self, and collective self: partners, opponents or strangers?* Philadelphia:
987 Psychology Press.
- 988 Sreenivas, S. (2018). Saudi Arabia leads family outbound travel in GCC. *Hotelier
989 MiddleEast.com*. Retrieved from [http://www.hoteliermiddleeast.com/34017-saudi-
990 arabia-leads-family-outbound-travel-in-gcc/](http://www.hoteliermiddleeast.com/34017-saudi-arabia-leads-family-outbound-travel-in-gcc/) (accessed 20/07/19).
- 991 Staff Reporter. (2015). GCC tourists to spend \$100bn by 2018: Report. *Emirates* 24/7.
992 Retrieved from [https://www.emirates247.com/business/corporate/gcc-tourists-to-
993 spend-100bn-by-2018-report-2015-01-07-1.575708](https://www.emirates247.com/business/corporate/gcc-tourists-to-spend-100bn-by-2018-report-2015-01-07-1.575708) (accessed 20/07/19).
- 994 Stein, K. (2011). Getting away from it all: The construction and management of
995 temporary identities on vacation. *Symbolic Interaction*, 34(2), 290–308.
- 996 Stets, J., & Biga, C. (2003). Bringing identity theory into environmental sociology.
997 *Sociological Theory*, 21(4), 398–423.
- 998 Stets, J., & Burke, P. (2002). A sociological approach to self and identity.’ In M. Leary
999 and J. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 128-52). New York:
1000 Guilford Press.
- 1001 Stets, J. & Burke, P. (2014). Self-esteem and identities. *Sociological Perspectives*, 57(4),
1002 409–433.
- 1003 Swann, W.B., & Bosson, J. (2010). Self and identity. In S.T. Fiske, D.T. Gilbert, & G.
1004 Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (pp. 589–628). Hoboken, NJ:
1005 Wiley.
- 1006 Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups. Studies in the social psychology
1007 of inter-group relations*. London, UK: Academic Press.
- 1008 Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human groups and social categories*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge
1009 University Press.
- 1010 Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In J.A.
1011 Williams & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp.
1012 33–47). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- 1013 Trepte, S., & Loy, L. (2017). Social identity theory and self-categorization theory. In P.
1014 Rossler, C.A. Hoffner, & L. Van Zoonen (Eds.), *The international encyclopedia of*

- 1015 media effects (pp. 1–13) Chichester, West Sussex, Maiden, MA: John Wiley & Sons,
1016 Inc.
- 1017 Tsauro, S., & Huang, C. (2016). Working holiday tourist learning: Scale development and
1018 validation, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 33(4), 535–550.
- 1019 Turner, J.C. (1999). Some current issues in research on social identity and self-
1020 categorization theories. In N. Ellemers, R. Spears, & B. Dossje (Eds.), *Social*
1021 *identity: Context, commitment, content* (pp. 6–34). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- 1022 Vignoles, V. (2017). Identity: Personal and social. In K. Deaux & M. Snyder (Eds.),
1023 *Oxford handbook of personality and social psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 1–20) Oxford,
1024 UK: Oxford.
- 1025 Voorhees, C.M., Brady, M.K., Calantone, R., & Ramirez, E. (2016). Discriminant
1026 validity testing in marketing: An analysis, causes for concern, and proposed
1027 remedies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44(1), 119–134.
- 1028 Wearing, B., & Wearing, S. (1996). Refocussing the tourist experience: The flaneur and
1029 the chorister. *Leisure Studies*, 15(4), 229–243.
- 1030 Wearing, S., & Wearing, B. (2001). Conceptualizing the selves of tourism. *Leisure*
1031 *Studies*, 20(2), 143–159.
- 1032 Wearing, S., Stevenson, D., & Young, T. (2010). Tourism and identity. In *Tourist*
1033 *cultures: Identity, place and the traveller* (pp. 36–52). London: SAGE Publications
1034 Ltd.
- 1035 Williams, L.J., Hartman, N., & Cavazotte, F. (2010). Method variance and marker
1036 variables: A review and comprehensive CFA marker technique. *Organizational*
1037 *Research Methods*, 13(3), 477–514.
- 1038 Wu, J.S., Xu, J.B., & Erdogan, E.H. (2009). Investigating the push and pull motivation
1039 of visiting domestic destinations in China: A means-end approach. *Journal of China*
1040 *Tourism Research*, 5(3), 287–315.
- 1041 Xu, H., Ye, T., & Chan, D. (2018). When cosmopolitan corporations meet local
1042 environments: The impact on managerial structure in international luxury hotels.
1043 *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 74, 30–39.
- 1044 Ye, H., & Tussyadiah, L. (2011). Destination visual image and expectation of
1045 experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 28(2), 129–144.
- 1046 Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and
1047 satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1),
1048 45–56.
- 1049 Yousefi, M., & Marzuki, A. (2015). An analysis of push and pull motivational factors of
1050 international tourists to Penang, Malaysia. *International Journal of Hospitality and*
1051 *Tourism Administration*, 16(1), 40–56.
- 1052

1053 Figure 1 **Conceptual model**

1054



1055 Table 1 Respondents' demographic profiles

Demographic details	Responses	Percentage
<i>Nationality</i>		
Emiratis	184	56.6%
Expatriates	142	43.4%
<i>Total</i>	<i>326</i>	<i>100%</i>
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	223	68.4%
Female	103	31.6%
<i>Total</i>	<i>326</i>	<i>100%</i>
<i>Participant age</i>		
18–30	176	54.0%
31–40	41	12.6%
41–60	102	31.3%
Over 60	7	2.1%
<i>Total</i>	<i>326</i>	<i>100%</i>
<i>International trips in the last 2 years as a tourist</i>		
1–3	172	52.8%
3–5	82	25.2%
6 or more	72	22.0%
<i>Total</i>	<i>326</i>	<i>100%</i>
<i>Average duration of tourist travel</i>		
Less than 1 week	36	11.0%
1–2 weeks	203	62.3%
3–4 weeks	66	20.2%
More than 4 weeks	21	6.5%
<i>Total</i>	<i>326</i>	<i>100%</i>

1056

1057

1058 Table 2 Measurement properties

Constructs	SFLs	α	CR	AVE
<i>Evaluation of self</i>		.873	.874	.697
To discover oneself	.835			
Re-evaluate one's lifestyle	.847			
Enhance feeling of self-worth	.823			
<i>Regression</i>		.702	.705	.444
To experience a less complex and less technological environment	.620			
To indulge in child-like behaviour	.690			
To experience past memories	.686			
<i>Enhancement of kinship</i>		.800	.814	.603
To help bring the family together	.888			
To enjoy doing family activities together	.847			
To connect with extended family and close friends	.550			
<i>Social interaction</i>		.856	.859	.672
To make new friends	.826			
To have fun with new people	.905			
To indulge in social parties and events	.718			
<i>Destination pull factors</i>		.781	.786	.553
Travel to fashionable, luxurious locations	.661			
Going to a place my friends would like to go	.820			
To talk about the trip when returning home	.741			
<i>Cultural pull factors</i>		.909	.907	.665
To enjoy local cuisine	.628			
To experience a different culture	.928			
To learn about a new culture and customs	.905			
To experience different scenery	.766			
To experience historical sights	.814			
<i>Escape for travel</i>		.684	.816	.538
Escape from the general residential place	.516			
Escape from the lack of social interaction in the home environment	.734			
Escape from the pressures of daily life	.955			
Escape from the cultural restrictions and family bonds	.658			

1059 Note: α –Cronbach's alpha coefficient, SFLs–standardised factor loadings from CFA, CR–construct reliability,
 1060 AVE–average variance extracted.
 1061

1062 Table 3 **Interconstruct correlations and discriminant validity**

Constructs	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Regression	3.063	.935	.666						
2. Escape for travel	3.358	.959	.411	.733					
3. Enhancement of kinship	3.662	.986	.442	-.049	.776				
4. Social interaction	3.081	.974	.503	.335	.423	.820			
5. Destination pull factors	3.119	1.022	.568	.229	.439	.602	.744		
6. Evaluation of self	3.376	1.027	.664	.500	.335	.482	.436	.835	
7. Cultural pull factors	4.194	.797	.313	.313	.360	.387	.352	.408	.815

Note: SD=standard deviations. Square root of AVE is the diagonal number in **bold**.

1074
1075

1076 Table 4 **Structural model results**

Hypothesised relationship	b	β	S.E.	t	p	Result
H1: Evaluation of self → Escape for travel	.297	.299	.078	3.794	***	Supported
H2: Regression → Escape for travel	.272	.236	.108	2.524	.012	Supported
H3: Enhancement of kindship → Escape for travel	-.343	-.402	.071	-4.865	***	<i>Not supported^a</i>
H4: Social interaction → Escape for travel	.180	.160	.079	2.283	.022	Supported
H5: Cultural pull factors → Escape for travel	.314	.211	.088	3.576	***	Supported
H6: Destination pull factors → Escape for travel	-.026	-.024	.075	-.348	.728	<i>Not supported</i>

1077 Significant at *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed test); β = standardised coefficients; b = unstandardised coefficients; S.E. = standard
 1078 error

1079 Note: ^aNot supported because a positive relationship was hypothesised.