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The travel-hope framework: bridging hope, travel, and well-being

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ABSTRACT

Hope is defined as the capability to pursue a desired goal by leveraging one's abilities and potential pathways to goal attainment. This study aims to (1) chart and integrate conceptualizations and operationalizations of hope in travel and well-being research, and (2) investigate the relationship between hope and travel behaviour, as well as its associations with well-being concepts relevant to travel behaviour research, as a base for developing a Travel-Hope Framework. A scoping review was conducted with the following inclusion criteria: (i) adult participants, (ii) validated hope scales, (iii) relevance to travel behaviour and well-being research, (iv) written in English, and (v) peer-reviewed. A systematic search identified 13 studies on hope's conceptualizations and measurement. While none explicitly explored its link to travel behaviour, hope was associated with cognitive, emotional, and social well-being components relevant to travel behaviour research. Building on these insights, we introduce the Travel-Hope Framework, which posits that hope – particularly in the form of travel autonomy and perceived accessibility, and experience and anticipation – is essential for behaviour change and well-being. By illuminating the role of hope in travel decision-making, this framework provides a novel perspective for travel research and policy. Understanding the dynamic interplay between hope, travel and well-being can inform targeted interventions to improve commuting experiences, foster equitable accessibility, and promote sustainable travel choices.

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Autonomy; hope; perceived accessibility; travel hope; travel behaviour; well-being

1. Introduction

In positive psychology, hope is recognised as a key psychological resource for thriving. One of the most influential theories, Snyder's hope theory, conceptualizes hope as a goal-directed process comprising two cognitive components: agency thinking (*willpower*) and pathway thinking (*waypower*) (Snyder et al., 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). Hope, in this framework, is the ability to pursue a desired goal by considering one's abilities and

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identifying viable pathways to attainment. It entails both motivation and strategic thinking to overcome obstacles and reach one's objectives (Snyder, 1994). Research demonstrates a strong link between hope and well-being, spanning physical, cognitive, emotional, and social dimensions (Snyder et al., 2002). However, while hope and well-being are closely related, they are distinct constructs. Hope is a future-oriented cognitive and motivational process involving agency and pathway thinking, whereas well-being is a broader concept encompassing life satisfaction, emotional experiences, and fulfillment. Hope can enhance well-being by fostering resilience, optimism, and motivation, but well-being also includes additional factors such as physical health and social relationships. Pleeging et al. (2021) reviewed the relationship between hope and well-being, concluding that: (i) the agency component of hope is more strongly associated with subjective well-being than the pathways component, (ii) cognitive hope correlates more with positive affect than with negative affect, and (iii) expectations have only weak correlations with subjective well-being. These findings suggest that enhancing individuals' agency or willpower in achieving personal goals may be particularly effective in promoting well-being.

Although Snyder's conceptualization of hope has been central, alternative conceptualizations have emerged (e.g. Bernardo, 2010; Dufault & Martocchio, 1985). Over the decades, scholars have debated whether hope should be understood as a unidimensional or multidimensional construct. Snyder's hope theory represents a unidimensional (cognitive) perspective, defining hope as a singular, goal-oriented cognitive process. In contrast, multidimensional perspectives, such as the *Herth's Hope Index* (1992), assess hope through its emotional, cognitive, and behavioural dimensions, particularly in clinical settings. Dufault and Martocchio (1985) further expand on the multidimensional nature of hope, incorporating psychological, social, and existential aspects. These differing perspectives highlight the complexity of hope and its varied applications across disciplines.

Hope is also a powerful catalyst for behaviour change (O'Connor & Graham, 2019). Individuals with high hope levels tend to set realistic goals, demonstrate resilience, and engage in proactive problem-solving (Snyder et al., 2002). In health behaviour research, hopeful individuals are more likely to adhere to prescribed regimens and sustain lifestyle changes, as hope fosters self-efficacy and reduces perceived barriers (Snyder et al., 1991). Similarly, cultivating hope has been identified as an effective intervention strategy for enhancing well-being through goal-setting, problem-solving, and cognitive restructuring (Cheavens et al., 2006). These findings in other domains highlight the need to examine the role of hope in shaping individuals' intentions to modify their travel behaviours.

While research on hope's influence on travel behaviour remains limited, it is plausible that hopeful travellers take a more proactive approach to health and safety measures, ensuring responsible and informed travel decisions. Daily travel plays a fundamental role in modern life, affecting multiple dimensions of well-being – physical, psychological, social, and economic (Friman et al., 2018; Waygood et al., 2017). Transport serves as a critical pathway for individuals to achieve their goals, whether accessing education and healthcare or fulfilling broader life aspirations. This connection underscores the role of transport in shaping individuals' desired lives, aligning with Snyder's framework of goal pursuit.

Daily travel significantly impacts both hedonic and eudemonic well-being (De Vos et al., 2013; Ettema et al., 2010; Lättman et al., 2019). Hedonic well-being focuses on experiencing positive emotions, minimising negative emotions, and achieving life

satisfaction. In contrast, eudemonic well-being encompasses self-acceptance, meaningful relationships, personal growth, and a sense of purpose. Research suggests that active commuting – such as walking or cycling – and shorter travel times can enhance well-being by improving physical health, regulating mood, and fostering a sense of control over daily life (Frumkin et al., 2017; Olsson et al., 2013).

Commuting also has potential downsides. Long commutes can encroach on leisure time, limiting opportunities for health-promoting activities and social engagement, thereby reducing overall well-being (Ettema et al., 2012; Stutzer & Frey, 2008). Additionally, long travel durations characterized by prolonged sitting and exposure to traffic-related stressors are strongly linked to negative health outcomes, including psychological distress and unhappiness (Feng & Boyle, 2014; Kelly et al., 2014; Olsson et al., 2013). Other travel-related factors, such as costs, accessibility, autonomy, and perceived safety, also influence travel satisfaction and well-being (Friman et al., 2017; Friman & Olsson, 2023).

To summarise, hope plays a crucial role in shaping our experiences of well-being, and is relevant for goal-setting and behavioural changes. A question yet to be answered is if and how hope relates to daily travel. In the present paper, we contribute by conducting a scoping review to define hope, identify how it has been operationalized, and summarise its relevance for well-being and daily travel. Based on the findings, a theoretical framework of hope and travel is proposed to outline how *travel hope* might be a potential key factor for well-being, but also for behavioural change in terms of healthier and more sustainable travel choices. We propose that such a framework would be especially valuable in the following areas:

- i. Understanding the role of hope in travel behaviours: Building the framework around hope allows us to explore how people's thoughts about their willpower and possible pathways to success affect and are affected by their travel behaviours and level of well-being.
- ii. Evaluating travel initiatives and interventions: Incorporating hope as a measure enables evaluating the effects of travel-related initiatives and interventions. Researchers can assess how hope levels correlate with positive outcomes in travel experience, which can be valuable for designing effective policies and interventions.
- iii. Resource allocation and support: Measuring hope helps identify areas where additional support and resources are needed to enhance people's hope and well-being. This information informs policy design and intervention strategies and can act as a means to identify and battle inequalities in the travel domain.

In the following section, we present our research approach and summarise the insights gleaned from a scoping review. This review explains the key concept of hope, investigates the nuances of various hope scales, and reveals the association between hope and well-being. Building on these insights, we craft a theoretical framework that integrates essential concepts from travel research, shedding light on the nexus between travel-induced hope and travel behaviour. Finally, we detail the study's theoretical contributions and practical applications, as well as highlight its limitations.

2. Research approach

To construct a theoretical framework for travel hope, it is essential to review prior research on hope, with a focus on its implications for travel and travel behaviour. We undertook a scoping review, particularly useful in situations where the literature has not been comprehensively reviewed, or where there is a need to clarify working definitions and conceptual boundaries of the topic (Mak & Thomas, 2022). Our goal was to summarise existing knowledge, identify research gaps, and guide the planning and commissioning of future research. Our research approach unfolds in two distinct phases: (1) *The scoping review*, in which we systematically map the literature on hope research related to travel and well-being research, providing a broad overview of existing studies and theories; and (2) *The theoretical framework*, where we develop a framework that captures the essence of travel hope, integrating insights from the scoping review.

3. Phase 1: the scoping review

A scoping review was conducted following the steps outlined by Arksey and O'Malley (2005): (1) Identifying the research question, (2) Identifying relevant studies, (3) Study selection, (4) Charting the data, and (5) Collating, summarising and reporting the results. The study followed the PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews guidelines (PRISMA-ScR) for reporting (Tricco et al., 2018). Searches for articles with relevant titles, abstracts, and subjects were conducted in February 2024 using search terms representing the overarching research questions. Three different search strings for (1) conceptualizations and operationalizations of hope, (2) hope and travel, and (3) hope and well-being were used, and specified:

Search string 1:
("Hope") AND (measure* OR scale* OR questionnaire*)

Search string 2:
("Hope") AND (travel* OR transport* OR traffic*)

Search string 3:
("Hope") AND (well-being*)

The results were sorted by relevance. Then, the first 100 titles for all search strings were scanned. The abstracts of relevant titles were read, and articles that were deemed relevant still were saved in a reference management tool. See [Figure 1](#) for a flow diagram of the scoping review process.

The eligibility criteria followed the PCC (population, concept, and context) framework for inclusion (Pollock et al., 2023). The inclusion criteria were: (i) adult participants (population), (ii) measurement of hope (concept), (iii) in the setting of travel behaviour or well-being research (context), (iv) written in English, and (v) peer-reviewed. The data were analyzed using an inductive approach. The review team met on three occasions to discuss initial thoughts and establish distinct categories based on similarities and dissimilarities between included studies. An extraction table with data from the included studies was developed. The table was iteratively discussed between members of the review team and modified during extraction.

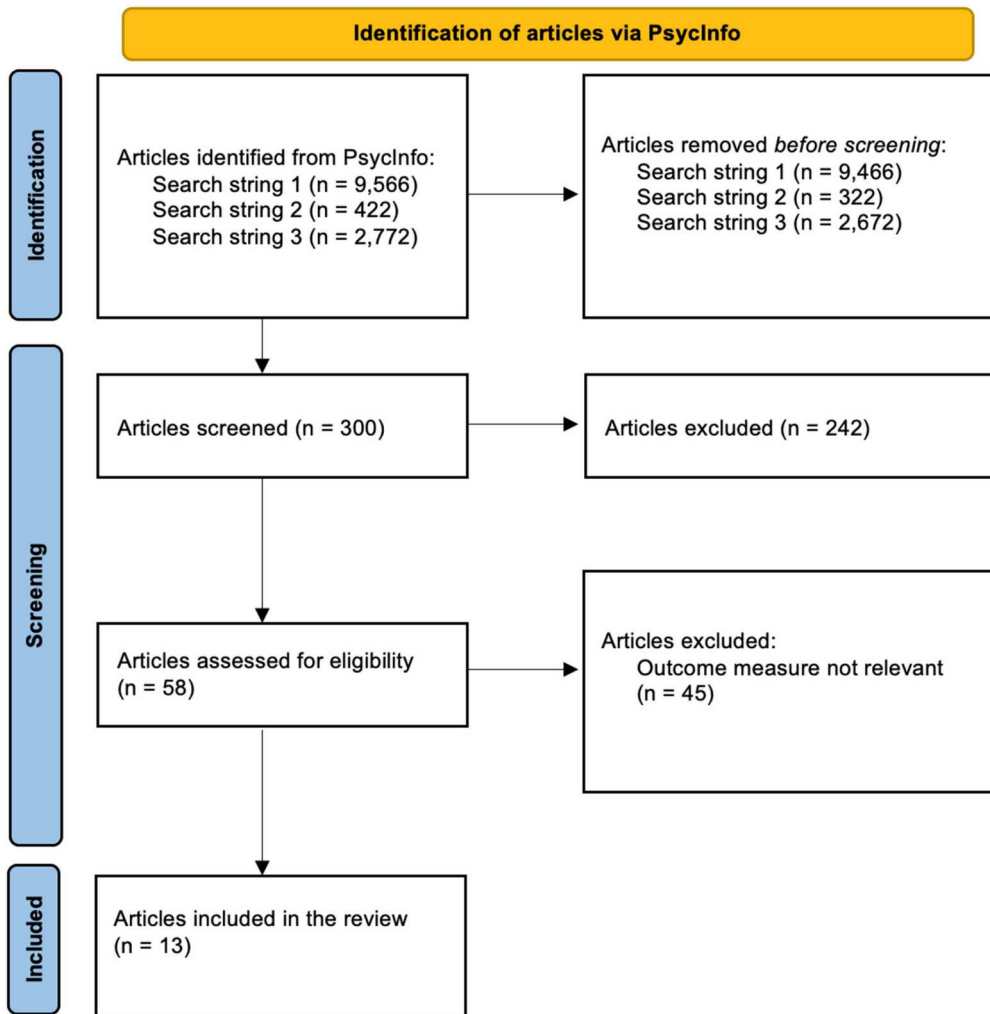


Figure 1. Flow diagram of the scoping review process.

In the initial stage, a detailed account of different studies based on various factors such as their context, the specific hope concept in focus, the hope scale used, the reliability of the scale, and the magnitude and direction of the correlation between hope and various parts of well-being were outlined. This information can be found in the supplementary material (Table S1). One important finding is that none of the studies met the inclusion criteria focusing directly on the relationship between hope and travel behaviour. Instead, the results from this scoping review will outline how hope has been defined, and operationalized, and how it relates to various facets of well-being. The studies were sorted into three categories, described and discussed according to their type of well-being (cognitive, emotional, and social). Following the scoping review, the discussion section will propose similarities with other concepts applied to travel research and propose a theoretical framework of travel behaviour and well-being starting with travel hope. A reason for connecting the theoretical framework to existing concepts in transport research is to build upon established knowledge.

3.1. Context

As can be seen in Figure 1, 13 studies about hope and well-being (context) were identified, although none were about the direct relationship between hope and travel behaviour. There were 19 samples in total, with two studies including four samples each. Six samples included University/college students, eleven samples adults, and two samples older adults (one included older adults with heart failure). The studies comprised a total of 9,620 participants with an age range of 18-89. The average rate of female participants was 60 percent. The studies included eleven countries (one study included four samples from the same country, and one study included four from four different countries) – the majority in North America and Asia.

3.2. Hope concepts and scales

The concept of hope was based on various theoretical frameworks, each offering unique dimensions and perspectives. Snyder et al.'s (2002) unidimensional model emphasises agency thinking and pathways thinking, focusing on an individual's ability to create routes to achieve their goals and the motivational drive and existing pathways to follow these routes. Extending this, Bernardo's (2010) multidimensional four-factor model incorporates an internal locus-of-hope/personal agency and three external dimensions: the agency of family, peers, and spiritual forces, broadening the sources of hope beyond the individual. Dufault and Martocchio's (1985) model, which identifies three domains – inner sense of temporality and future, inner positive readiness and expectancy, and interconnectedness with self and others – adds a nuanced understanding of hope as a multidimensional construct.

Building on these frameworks, Schrank et al. (2011) integrate elements from both Snyder and Dufault and Martocchio, proposing four domains: trust and confidence, lack of perspective, positive future orientation, social relations and personal value, encapsulating a comprehensive view of hope. Braithwaite (2004) extends Snyder's model to include collective/social hope, while Scioli et al. (2011) take an interdisciplinary approach, viewing hope as a blend of attachment, mastery, survival motives, and spirituality. Collectively, these theories and models illustrates the multifaceted nature of hope encompassing personal, social, and societal dimensions. They affirm hope's critical role in navigating individuals through uncertainties and in the pursuit of desired outcomes.

In the included studies, 13 different hope scales were used of which nine were only used once. Eight scales reflected a unidimensional concept of hope (e.g. cognitive hope only), whereas five entailed a multidimensional concept of hope (e.g. both cognitive and emotional or social hope). Most studies ($n = 9$) contained only one hope scale, one study included two hope scales, one study included three hope scales, and two studies included four hope scales. The most popular hope scale was the *Herth Hope Index* ($n = 6$), whereas the *State Hope Scale* was used in three of the included studies, and the *Adult Trait Hope Scale* and the *Locus-of-Hope Scale* were both used twice.

The reliability of the hope scales included in this review highlights their robustness and suitability for measuring various dimensions of hope across different contexts. The *State Hope Scale* (SHS) in its Arabic version (eight items) demonstrated an overall reliability of 0.81, with subscale reliabilities of 0.73 for agency thinking and 0.76 for pathways thinking, reflecting moderate to high internal consistency. Similarly, the *Locus-of-Hope Scale* (LOHS)

showed strong reliability, particularly for the external locus-of-hope dimensions: external-family (0.88), external-peer (0.87), and external-spiritual (0.89), while the internal dimension had a reliability of 0.81. The *Herth Hope Index* (HHI), the Chinese version exhibited strong overall reliability at 0.83, with subscale reliabilities ranging from 0.72 to 0.88 across two time points, indicating consistent measurement over time. The *Adult Hope Scale* (AHS) reported an exceptionally high overall reliability of 0.92, making it a robust tool for assessing hope. The *Integrated Hope Scale* (IHS), with an overall reliability of 0.89 and subscale reliabilities between 0.77 and 0.84, also demonstrated solid reliability. Additional scales such as the *Miller Hope Scale* (MHS) and the *Comprehensive Hope Scale* (CHS) reported overall reliabilities of 0.84 and 0.97, respectively. Moreover, the *Social Hope Scale* and the *Adult Trait Hope Scale* (ATHS) both reported high reliabilities across studies and timepoints, validating their use in diverse populations. In summary, these scales exhibit strong internal consistency, making them reliable instruments for assessing hope in various dimensions, including agency and pathways thinking, internal and external loci of hope, temporality, and interconnectedness.

3.3. Associations between hope and well-being

The column in Table S1 (Supplementary material) titled *Associations with well-being* includes the various concepts studied about hope. In detailed studies, associations were observed between hope and different well-being aspects, partly in the form of direction and partly in the form of size. These correlations were clustered in three different categories of well-being: (i) cognitive well-being, (ii) emotional well-being, and (iii) social well-being. Each category of well-being is defined in the following sections, along with its association with hope. The correlations are reported according to their size (very strong, strong, moderate, and weak). Based on a comprehensive qualitative assessment, we labelled each correlation size summarising what a specific level of association represents. As an example, we found that a strong correlation between hope and cognitive well-being is primarily related to an individual's future outlook. Furthermore, we decided not to report very weak associations ($r < .2$). The associations within the categories are graphically depicted in Figure 2.

3.3.1. Category 1: cognitive well-being

Cognitive well-being refers to the overall health and functionality of a person's cognitive processes, which involve various mental abilities such as memory, attention, reasoning, problem-solving, and decision-making. Factors that contribute to cognitive well-being include mental stimulation (e.g. engaging in activities that challenge the mind, such as reading), physical health (including regular exercise), emotional health (see Category 2), and environmental factors (e.g. exposure to toxins or pollutants).

3.3.1.1. Strong correlations with hope ($r = .6$ – $.79$): future outlook. One important cognitive component associated with hope was *Positive future orientation*. Individuals who have a positive outlook on the future tend to also have higher levels of hope ($r = .62$, $p > .01$; Ingram et al., 2018). This suggests that an optimistic perspective about what lies ahead is strongly associated with feelings of hopefulness. People who feel prepared and expectant about positive outcomes (*Positive readiness and expectancy*) were also

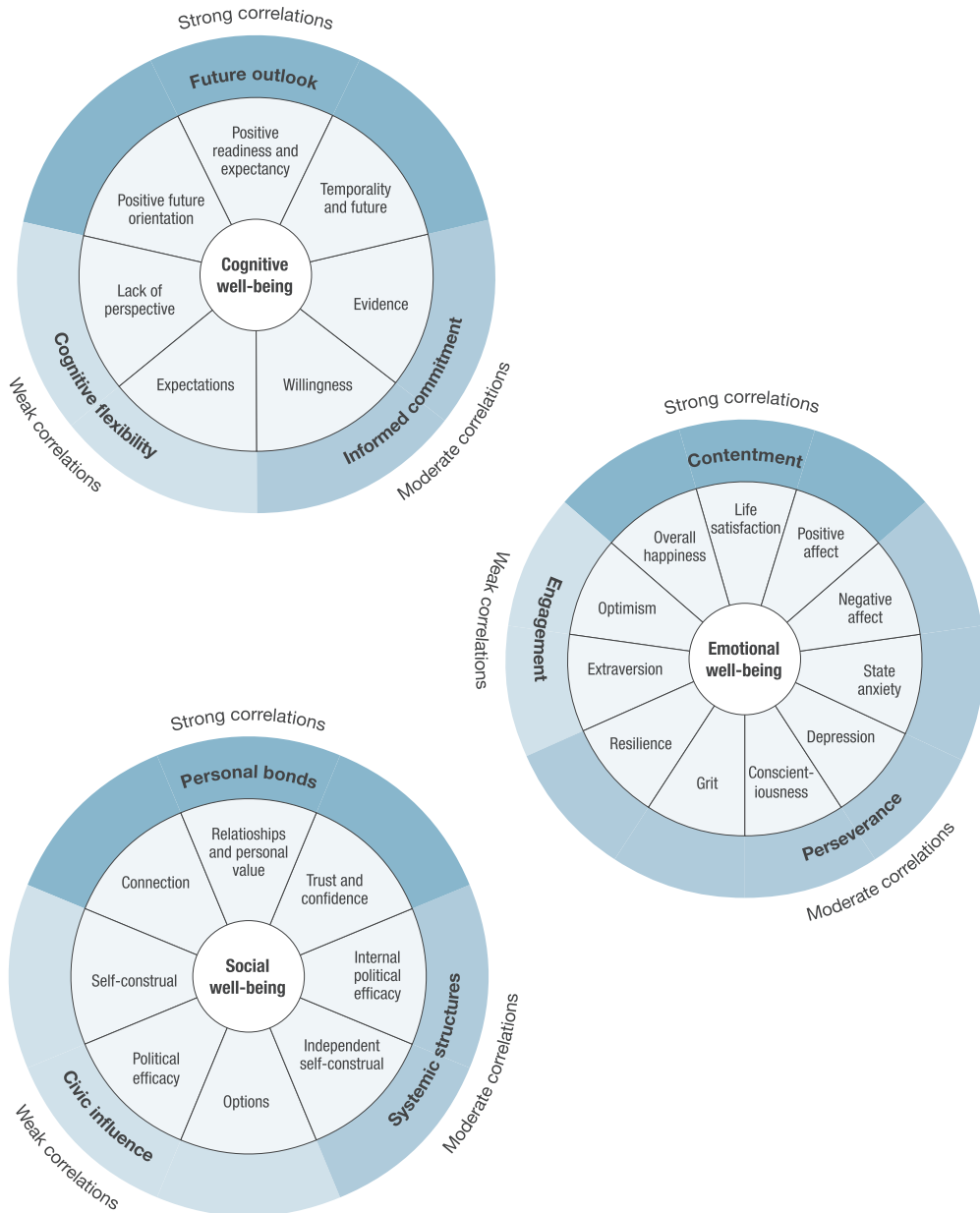


Figure 2. Components of cognitive, emotional, and social well-being.

more likely to experience hope ($r = .67, p < .01$; Ingram et al., 2018). Both *Positive future orientation* and *Positive readiness and expectancy* can be considered temporal components as they are inherently related to an individual's perspective and expectations about future events. They involve thinking ahead and anticipating future outcomes, thus emphasising the temporal aspect of hope. A third future temporal component, *Temporality and future* (considering future possibilities and temporal aspects of decision making), was also positively associated with hope. This correlation was, however, moderate ($r = .45, p < .01$; Ingram et al., 2018).

3.3.1.2. Moderate correlations with hope ($r = .4-.59$): informed commitment. Confidence in one's ability (conceptually similar to agency thinking) was moderately correlated with *Evidence* of past successes or competence ($r = .58, p < .001$; Ward et al., 2017). This implies that a track record of achievement might contribute to feelings of hopefulness. A readiness to act (*Willingness*), perhaps also a part of agency thinking, was moderately associated with evidence of effectiveness or positive outcomes from past actions ($r = .51, p < .001$; Ward et al., 2017). These associations suggest that reflecting on past successes and drawing confidence from previous achievements might enhance an individual's belief in their ability to succeed in future endeavours, perhaps by fostering a sense of preparedness and resilience. By integrating past temporal components, a hope model can acknowledge that individuals' thoughts about the future are influenced not only by their current outlook and readiness but also by their past experiences and reflections. A dual-temporal approach might provide a more robust framework for understanding and enhancing hope.

3.3.1.3. Weak associations with hope ($r = .2-.39$): cognitive flexibility. *Expectations* showed weak associations with hope (ATHS: $r = .20, p < .01$, LOHS: $r = .23, p < .01$; Pleeing, 2022), suggesting that specific expectations may have a limited impact on overall hopefulness. Another weak correlation with hope was *Lack of perspective* ($r = .21, p < .01$; Ingram et al., 2018), perhaps implying that individuals who can consider different perspectives may also experience higher levels of hopefulness. Both of these factors require cognitive flexibility. Individuals who are open to various outcomes (expectations) and viewpoints (perspectives) likely have a more adaptable mindset, which can contribute to resilience and a more hopeful outlook.

3.3.2. Category 2: emotional well-being

Emotional well-being encompasses the ability to understand and manage one's emotions effectively, leading to a state of overall psychological balance and resilience. It involves acknowledging and accepting a wide range of emotions, from joy and contentment to sadness and frustration, and being able to navigate them healthily and adaptively. Key components of emotional well-being include emotional awareness (the ability to recognise and identify one's own emotions accurately), emotional regulation (e.g. coping with aversive feelings in constructive ways), resilience (overcoming obstacles, adapting to change etc.), self-compassion (treating oneself with kindness), emotional expression (i.e. authentically and effectively with others), positive relationships (which provide validation and a sense of belonging), and purpose/meaning (e.g. engaging in activities which align with one's values and goals).

3.3.2.1. Strong correlations with hope ($r = 0.6-0.79$): contentment. Several measures of hope, including the ATHS, the HHI, and the single-item measure, showed strong correlations with *Overall happiness* ($r = .67-.75, p < .05$; Pleeing et al., 2021). Similar to overall happiness, measures of *Life satisfaction* were positively correlated with various assessments of hope ($r = .60-.72, p < .05$; Pleeing et al., 2021), meaning that individuals who report higher levels of overall happiness and life satisfaction, respectively, also tend to have higher levels of hope. The same is true for individuals who report higher levels of

Positive affect, as the correlations with both the ATHS and the HHI measures of hope were strong ($r = .61-.66$, $p < .05$; Pleeging et al., 2021). Other studies, however, reported moderate positive correlations between *Positive affect* and hope (e.g. the HHI, $r = .53$, $p < .01$; Pleeging, 2022). Of note, Gallagher et al.'s (2021) measure of general *Well-being* correlated strongly with hope ($r = .60$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, Davis (2005) found that hope positively influenced *Well-being* ($F(1, 128) = 58.98$, $p < .01$), explaining 32% of the variance in well-being. These findings underscore the significant relationship between hope and various dimensions of emotional well-being, highlighting the importance of hope as a predictor and facilitator of positive psychological states.

3.3.2.2. Moderate correlations with hope ($r = 0.4-0.59$): perseverance. One study measured the correlation between hope and different traits and found positive correlations for *Conscientiousness* ($r = .53$, $p < .01$; Rueger et al., 2023) and *Grit* ($r = .46$, $p < .01$; Rueger et al., 2023). *Resilience* was in other studies positively correlated with both agency thinking ($r = .40$, $p < .01$; Satıcı, 2016) and pathways thinking ($r = .40$, $p < .01$; Satıcı, 2016), and negatively correlated with hopelessness ($r = -.51$, $p < .05$; Morote et al., 2017). Pleeging (2022) found that *Negative affect* was negatively correlated with hope as measured with the *Herth Hope Index* ($r = -.41$, $p < .05$; Pleeging, 2022). There was a moderate negative correlation between hope and *State anxiety* ($r = -.55$, $p < .01$; Davis, 2005), meaning that highly hopeful people have less situational anxiety. Moreover, hope negatively influenced *State anxiety* ($F(1, 128) = 56.42$, $p < .01$), explaining 31% of the variance in state anxiety. *Depression* showed moderate negative correlations with hope (e.g. $r = -.40$, $p < .01$; Chan et al., 2012), although Morote et al. (2017) found a stronger correlation between feelings of hopelessness and symptoms of both anxiety and depression ($r = .63$). To summarize, the included studies found that hope was positively correlated with traits like conscientiousness and grit while negatively correlated with negative affect, state anxiety, and depression, with feelings of hopelessness showing strong links to higher anxiety and depression.

3.3.2.3. Weak associations with hope ($r = 0.2-0.39$): engagement. The personality trait *Extraversion* showed a weak positive correlation with hope ($r = .28$, $p < .05$; Abdel-Khalek & Snyder, 2007). *Optimism* was positively correlated with hope ($r = .36$, $p < .01$; Rueger et al., 2023), while pessimism was negatively correlated with hope ($r = .33$, $p < .01$; Rueger et al., 2023). In other words, extraversion showed a positive correlation with hope, so did optimism, while pessimism showed a negative correlation with hope.

3.3.3. Category 3: social well-being

Social well-being refers to the quality of relationships and interactions that individuals have within their social environment, encompassing various dimensions of social life. It involves feeling a sense of belonging, connection, and support within one's social network, as well as experiencing positive interactions and mutual respect with others. Social well-being is influenced by both the quantity and quality of social relationships and the broader social context in which individuals live. Key components of social well-being include social support (leading to feelings of security, comfort, and belonging), sense of belonging (feeling connected to and accepted by others in one's social environment), the quality of interpersonal relationships, social integration (being actively

involved in social activities, networks, and communities), social cohesion (the degree of harmony and solidarity within social groups and communities), social equity and justice (conditions where all individuals can thrive and experience a sense of social justice), and community engagement (e.g. active participation in community activities).

3.3.3.1. Strong correlations with hope ($r = 0.6–0.79$): personal bonds. The correlation between one's sense of *Connection* to others and ability (i.e. agency thinking) was strong ($r = .64, p < .001$; Ward et al., 2017). This suggests that individuals who perceive themselves as capable in their social interactions tend to have higher levels of hope. The correlation between connection and evidence of one's capabilities was equally strong ($r = .64, p < .001$; Ward et al., 2017), suggesting that having tangible evidence of one's skills or competencies contributes to feelings of hopefulness and social connectedness. Furthermore, there was a strong positive correlation between hope and *Relationships and personal value* ($r = .68, p < .01$; Ingram et al., 2018), which suggests that individuals who have fulfilling relationships and feel valued by others tend to have higher levels of hope. The correlation between *Trust and confidence* on the one hand, and hope on the other, was also strong ($r = .75, p < .01$; Ingram et al., 2018), which implies that individuals who trust in others and feel confident in their social relationships tend to have higher levels of hopefulness. Taken together, strong correlations were found between hope and factors such as relationships, personal value, trust, and confidence, indicating that individuals who feel competent, connected, valued, and confident in their social interactions tend to have higher levels of hope.

3.3.3.2. Moderate correlations with hope ($r = 0.4–0.59$): systemic structures. There was a positive correlation between one's belief in their ability to influence political matters (*Internal political efficacy*) and state (situational) hope ($r = .42, p < .001$; Jin & Kim, 2019), implying that individuals who feel empowered to make a difference in political contexts may experience higher levels of hopefulness. Likewise, the correlation between state hope and independent sense of self (*Independent self-construal*) was moderate ($r = .45, p < .001$; Jin & Kim, 2019), which suggests that individuals who perceive themselves as autonomous and self-reliant tend to have moderately higher levels of state hope (but not necessarily social hope, see below). Lastly, the correlation between interconnectedness and state hope was moderate ($r = .52, p < .01$; Ingram et al., 2018). This indicates that recognising the interconnectedness of individuals and systems may contribute to moderately higher levels of hopefulness.

3.3.3.3. Weak associations with hope ($r = 0.2–0.39$): civic influence. The correlation between having *Options* in social connections and hope was weak ($r = .38, p < .001$; Ward et al., 2017), suggesting that while having various social options may contribute to hope to some extent, the association was not very strong. On the same note, various correlations between social hope and *Political efficacy* (internal: $r = .21, p < .001$, external: $r = .30, p < .001$; Jin & Kim, 2019), as well as between social hope and *Self-construal* (independent: $r = .22, p < .001$, interdependent: $r = .34, p < .001$; Jin & Kim, 2019), were all weak. State hope and interdependent self-construal was another weak correlation ($r = .34, p < .001$; Jin & Kim, 2019). To summarise, weak correlations were observed between hope and having options in social connections, political efficacy, and self-

construal (independent/interdependent), indicating that these civic factors have a limited impact on hope.

4. Phase 2: theoretical framework of travel-hope

The current study aimed to explore the existing research on hope in the contexts of travel behaviour and well-being research. However, no studies were found that directly examined the relationship between hope and travel behaviour. Several of the included studies assessed the correlations between hope and components of well-being, which are also known to influence daily travel (e.g. life satisfaction, happiness, and positive/negative affect: Friman et al., 2018). Most of the included studies in this review conceptualized hope in line with Snyder's cognitive model, or its extensions, which incorporate temporal components of past and present experiences and future outlook in addition to agency and pathway thinking. Thus, understanding the role of agency (willpower), pathways thinking (waypower), and temporal aspects (experiences and future outlook) seems relevant also for travel research.

Although operationalized slightly differently, and not labelled as hope, we see similar concepts to hope within travel behaviour research. Agency thinking resembles the concept of travel autonomy – individuals possessing control or willpower over the various aspects of their daily travel, defined as the prerequisites, freedom, and possibility to travel independently (Friman & Olsson, 2023; Gerpott et al., 2023). Pathways thinking overlap with the concept of perceived accessibility in travel research (Lättman et al., 2018; Pot et al., 2021), defined as an individual's possibility to live the life one wants with the help of the travel system (Lättman et al., 2016). Perceived accessibility encompasses perceptions of the pathways to achieving important life goals, aligning with pathway thinking. This includes evaluating the ease of accessing essential activities, facilitated by the transport system. Both travel autonomy (agency) and perceived accessibility (pathways) are associated with various facets of well-being (e.g. Friman & Olsson, 2023; Lättman et al., 2019). Building upon Snyders hope theory, we propose that travel autonomy and perceived accessibility constitute a cognitive domain of travel hope, relevant for both travel behaviour and well-being.

The Travel-Hope Framework (THF) includes a dual temporal dimension, emphasising current and past experiences (Morote et al., 2017), and future anticipation (Schrack et al. 2011), as key aspects of hope that influence behaviour changes and well-being (see Figure 3). The future temporal aspect captures how individuals envision and strive toward meaningful travel experiences, aligning with established psychological mechanisms such as expectations (Pleeging et al., 2021), attitudes (Ajzen et al., 2018), and affective forecasting (Pedersen et al., 2011), all of which influence behavioural intentions and actions. Although expectations have relatively weak correlations with subjective well-being, they remain crucial indirectly, by driving behaviour changes that ultimately impact well-being. The current and past temporal aspects align with mechanisms such as travel satisfaction (e.g. Ettema et al., 2012; Friman et al., 2013) and experiences over the life course (e.g. Johansson Rehn et al., 2024; Müggenburg et al., 2015), both of which are linked to travel and well-being (Chatterjee et al., 2020; Ettema et al., 2010; Olsson et al., 2013).

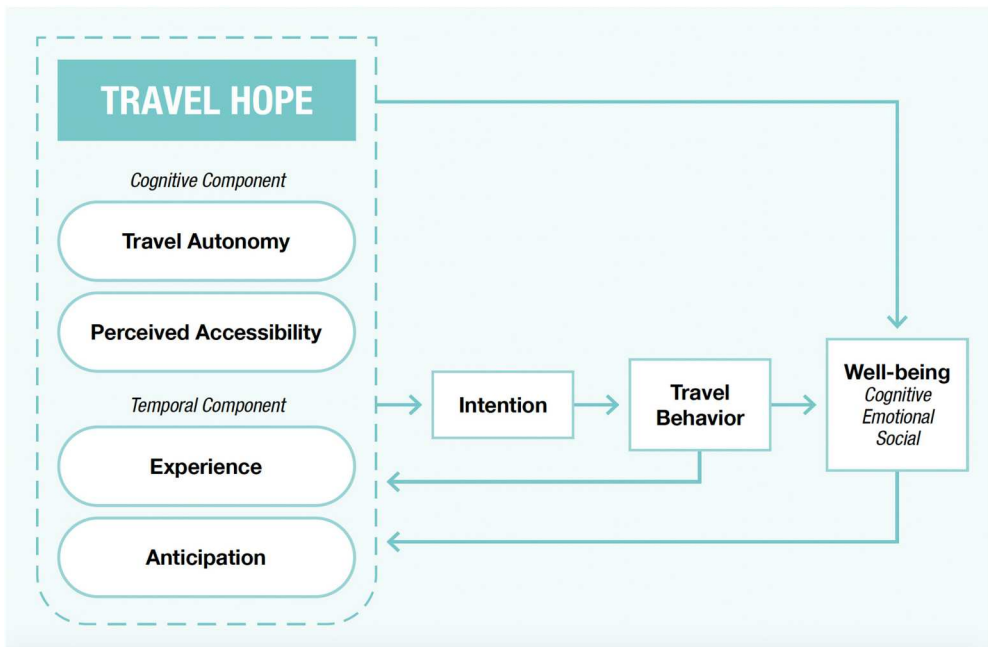


Figure 3. *The Travel-Hope Framework (THF).*

Intentions are the plans and commitments individuals make to engage in specific actions in the future. In the context of travel, intentions are the mental commitments a person makes to undertake a journey (Bamberg et al., 2003; Hoang-Tung et al., 2017). In the framework, intentions act as a mediator between the aspirational aspect of travel hope and the steps toward realising goals in terms of travel behaviour. The strength and clarity of one's intentions determine how likely these actions are to occur. Strong intentions, rooted in a high level of travel hope, combined with clear goals, are believed to increase the probability of engaging in travel activities. There is also a feedback arrow from travel behaviour back to travel hope, highlighting the potential for travel behaviours to influence future hopes and aspirations. Conceptually, the Travel-Hope Framework shares certain similarities with the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), particularly in its emphasis on the role of intention in shaping behaviour. The control-related aspects of travel hope also resemble the concept of perceived behavioural control in TPB. However, travel hope extends beyond TPB by incorporating motivational dimensions, focusing on how individuals envision meaningful travel experiences and mobilise both internal and external resources to pursue these goals. This broader perspective situates travel hope as a complementary framework that captures the interplay between agency, motivation, and context in travel behaviour.

Additionally, the framework connects travel behaviour to well-being, encompassing cognitive, emotional, and social dimensions. Well-being in this context includes both the immediate satisfaction derived from travel experiences and the longer-term psychological benefits, such as reduced stress and anxiety, enhanced life satisfaction, connection, and trust. We reason that travel behaviours that align with one's travel hopes and intentions tend to have a more significant positive impact on well-being. Conversely, when

Table 1. Operationalization of hope and travel hope components.

| Hope | | Example items from hope scales | Travel hope | Example items from travel behaviour scales |
|-----------|----------------|---|----------------------------|---|
| Cognitive | Agency | <i>I meet the goals that I set for myself</i> (Snyder et al., 1991 – The Adult Hope Scale) | Travel Autonomy | <i>To what degree do you have capability to travel as you wish</i> (Friman & Olsson, 2023 – The Travel Autonomy Scale) |
| | Pathways | <i>I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are important to me</i> (Snyder et al., 1991 – The Adult Hope Scale) | Perceived Accessibility | <i>Access to all the things I want to do is very good</i> (Lättman et al., 2016 – The Perceived Accessibility Scale) |
| Temporal | Experience | <i>I can recall happy/joyful times</i> (Morote et al., 2017 – The Herth Hope Index) | Travel Experience | <i>I feel/felt stressed/relaxed; bored/enthusiastic; is/was good/bad quality</i> (Friman et al., 2013 – The Satisfaction with Travel Scale). |
| | Future Outlook | <i>I look forward to doing things I enjoy</i> (Schränk et al. 2011 – The Integrated Hope Scale) | Anticipation | <i>Choosing a different mode would feel good/bad</i> (Olsson et al., 2018 – Travel attitudes) <i>How satisfied do you think you will be with travel mode x</i> (Pedersen et al., 2011 – Affective forecasting) |

there is a dissonance between intentions and actual behaviour – such as when plans are canceled or postponed – the potential well-being benefits may be diminished. This can lead to feelings of frustration, disappointment, and unmet expectations, which may negatively affect overall well-being. It is also essential to consider the potential feedback loop from well-being back to travel hope. Emerging research suggests that well-being is not only an outcome but also a strong predictor of future optimism and hope, with the relationship being bidirectional (e.g. Joshanloo, 2024). This implies that the well-being derived from fulfilling travel intentions might enhance future travel hope, reinforcing the cycle of positive travel behaviour and well-being. Neglecting this link might overlook a critical aspect of how well-being and travel hope interact over time.

Supporting our proposed similarities between general and travel specific components of hope, Table 1 presents examples of items from scales measuring components of hope, alongside items from scales capturing the same components within travel behaviour research. The scales used to exemplify these components should not be viewed as exclusive, but rather as examples of scales and items that may be used to operationalize travel hope.

5. Discussion

Individuals with high levels of hope tend to envision a broader spectrum of goals and strategies, demonstrating greater willpower and energy in pursuing their objectives. Numerous scholars emphasise the need to contextualize research on positive psychology constructs in general (Maier et al., 2000), and hope studies in particular. Rather than relying solely on a global theory and scale of hope, researchers have developed domain-specific conceptualizations and measurement instruments, including relational hope (Shimshock & Le, 2022), academic hope (Yotsidi et al., 2018), and work-related

hope (Juntunen & Wettersten, 2006; Reichard et al., 2013). Given that modern life increasingly involves mobility and travel (Friman et al., 2018), it is crucial to investigate the potential relationship between hope and travel behaviour – particularly sustainable travel choices – and its implications for well-being. Additionally, research suggests that hope is a predictor of goal attainment, with domain-specific hope being a stronger predictor than general hope (Feldman et al., 2009). This underscores the importance of examining travel hope as a distinct construct to better understand its role in shaping travel behaviour and well-being.

A key contribution of the present study is the introduction of the domain-specific Travel-Hope Framework, which bridges the concepts of hope, travel, and well-being. The theoretical framework conceptualizes travel hope as encompassing both travel autonomy (agency) and perceived accessibility (pathways) within the cognitive dimension of travel hope – while also integrating experience and anticipation as components of a temporally oriented dimension (past, present and future). The findings of the scoping review highlight the need for future research to examine the individual components of this theoretical model, their interrelationships, and their effectiveness in capturing travel hope. While previous studies have explored isolated components of travel hope, no research has yet assessed the framework in its entirety. Consequently, it remains unclear how these components interact to influence travel behaviour. Future research could also explore the factors that underlie the different components of travel hope. A deeper understanding of these underlying factors could facilitate the development of targeted interventions and policies aimed at enhancing individuals' travel hope.

An important question is whether travel hope interventions can promote more sustainable travel behaviours. Longitudinal and experimental designs could provide insights into the causal effects of hope on travel choices. Much of the existing research on hope relies on cross-sectional, observational studies (Kwon et al., 2015), limiting the ability to establish causality between hope and goal-directed behavior. While hope has been proposed to both influence and be influenced by behaviour (Ojala, 2023), it is also possible that both hope and behaviour are shaped by underlying third variables, such as genetic predispositions or socioeconomic factors. Some longitudinal studies have suggested a potential causal link, showing that higher levels of hope are associated with reduced distress over time (e.g. Arnau et al., 2007). Moreover, integrating biopsychosocial perspectives may provide valuable insights into the role of third variables in shaping both hope and travel-related actions.

It is also essential to evaluate the applicability of the theoretical framework across different travel modes (e.g. car vs. bicycle) and contexts (e.g. urban vs. rural settings), and whether interventions should be tailored to specific transport modes and contexts. Comparative studies could analyze differences between travel modes and settings, while large-scale observational studies could help identify regional variations in travel behaviour. Another important avenue for future research is understanding how travel hope varies across different populations (e.g. by age, gender, or cultural background). Given that previous research has shown “work hope” to be particularly influential among underserved and marginalised groups – enhancing resilience, mitigating structural barriers, and improving career outcomes (Juntunen & Wettersten, 2006) – future studies should incorporate subgroup analyses within the travel domain to examine potential disparities and differential effects. Investigating the predictive power of travel

hope for different travel purposes, such as commuting versus leisure travel, could offer deeper insights into how hope influences various travel behaviours.

As previous research has indicated that the connection between well-being and thoughts about one's own abilities may be stronger than the connection between well-being and thoughts about pathways to the goal, focusing on individuals' thoughts about their own abilities (agency or willpower) may be more effective than boosting their pathways thinking (Pleeging et al., 2021). Whether this line of reasoning is applicable for the travel domain is yet to be determined. Similarly, the relative importance of the temporal components (experience and anticipation) need to be scrutinised, as such information may be valuable in the design of interventions aimed at travel behaviour change.

In this study, we recommend using validated and established measurement scales and question phrasing, aligned with previous research in the hope field. This approach involves applying existing scales, as illustrated in our examples in Table 1. However, this recommendation is general and may be revised if future research identifies more reliable operationalizations. An alternative approach could be to incorporate the concept of hope at the item level, for instance, through statements such as "I'm *hopeful* that choosing a different mode would feel good/bad" (experience component). In this study, however, we have chosen to rely on previously applied scales within the general hope research field.

Incorporating hope into a daily travel context, educational campaigns could integrate hope-building strategies into programmes aimed at fostering willpower and waypower across various aspects of the target groups' daily travel. Additionally, greater emphasis could be placed on the motivational aspects of hope, particularly how individuals envision and strive toward meaningful travel experiences (e.g. workshops that highlight success stories of individuals who have adopted sustainable daily travel behaviours). Another important area is policy advocacy and infrastructure development that not only facilitates daily travel but also inspires hope. A relevant example is campaigns for safer bike lanes and more reliable public transport options that make people hopeful about the feasibility of these travel methods. Lastly, media and communication strategies could include sharing hopeful and inspiring stories about daily travel, reinforcing the psychological components of travel hope, such as social media campaigns featuring testimonials from individuals who have successfully adopted and enjoyed daily walking, cycling, or public transportation.

Introducing the concept of hope in relation to everyday travel has the potential to offer new perspectives among travellers, researchers, and policymakers. The associations identified between hope and well-being factors linked to travel – and presented in the Travel-Hope Framework – open avenues for exploration. We welcome further scrutiny of this concept and call for studies on the relationships between hope, travel, and well-being.

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