

12-14-2015

An Integrative Model of Muslim Students' Religiosity and Travelling Behavior to Gaming Destinations

Dawood Sulaiman Al Jahwari
University of South Carolina - Columbia

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd>



Part of the [Hospitality Administration and Management Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Al Jahwari, D. S.(2015). *An Integrative Model of Muslim Students' Religiosity and Travelling Behavior to Gaming Destinations*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/3214>

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you by Scholar Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholar Commons. For more information, please contact digres@mailbox.sc.edu.

AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL OF MUSLIM STUDENTS' RELIGIOSITY AND
TRAVELLING BEHAVIOR TO GAMING DESTINATIONS

by

Dawood Sulaiman Al Jahwari

Bachelor of Hospitality Management
Toulouse University, 2005

Master of Business Administration
Strathclyde University, 2008

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

Hospitality Management

College of Hospitality, Retail and Sport Management

University of South Carolina

2015

Accepted by:

Ercan Sirakaya-Turk, Major Professor

Rich Harrill, Committee Member

Fang Meng, Committee Member

Christine DiStefano, Committee Member

Lacy Ford, Senior Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

© Copyright by Dawood Sulaiman Al Jahwari, 2015
All Rights Reserved.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation work to my parents, family, and many friends. I hold a very special feeling of gratitude for my loving parents, Sulaiman and Nassra, whose prayers and words of support and inspiration still ring in my ears. My father used to call me “Doctor Dawood” when I started the program. Unfortunately, he passed away before I finished. To my father, I say, “I made it!”

I also express an exceptional appreciation for two important women in my life, Fatma and Amal, for their support, patience, encouragement, care, prayers, and all else. I dedicate this work to you. A very special thanks to my lovely sons and daughters, Hamza, Sulaiman, Lujaina, and Widad, for their patience and understanding: this is for you. Thanks to my brothers and sisters, Mohammed, Waleed, Jokha, Raya, Safia, and Laila, for their support and understanding throughout this process.

I also dedicate this work and give special thanks to my best friends Ishaq Al Maskari and Abdul Rahman Al Shiryani for being there for me throughout the entire doctoral program. Both of you have been my best cheerleaders. Many thanks also to my friends in Oman and in the United States who have been supportive and encouraging all along the way.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank, first of all, almighty Allah for giving me patience and strength throughout my life and especially during my doctoral program at the University of South Carolina.

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my committee chair, advisor, and mentor, Dr. Ercan Sirakaya-Turk. I have been amazingly fortunate to have had him as an advisor. He gave me the freedom to explore on my own and, at the same time, the guidance to recover when my steps faltered. Dr. Turk taught me how to question thoughts and express ideas in incredible ways. His patience, guidance, encouragement, and invaluable support throughout my doctoral program have remarkably helped me finish this dissertation. I am very grateful that I have been a student of such a great scholar, with a wealth of expertise, boundless knowledge, and research skills. I hope that one day I will become as great an advisor to my students as Dr. Turk has been to me.

I also would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Rich Harrill, Dr. Fang Meng, and Dr. Christine DiStefano, who were all very generous with their time, expertise, and patience. Thank you all for agreeing to serve on my committee and for leading me through this journey. I deeply appreciate your support, feedback, and guidance.

I would like to extend my acknowledgements to the Fulbright Foreign Student Program and the AMIDEAST for giving me the opportunity to start the doctoral program at the University of South Carolina, USA and for funding me during the first two years of the program. I also wish to thank the Royal Court Affairs in Oman, who fully funded my PhD study. My research project would not have been possible, nor completed, without this financial support from AMIDEAST and the Royal Court Affairs.

I would also like to thank the University of South Carolina and especially the SPARC Graduate Research Grant Program for helping me gain grant writing competition experience and for also funding my dissertation.

I would like to thank all the international student offices at United States universities and the Muslim students around the states who helped me with data collection and/or participated in my study. This dissertation would not be complete without your support and participation.

Lastly, I would like to express my special thanks and gratitude to my parents and every member of my family for their continued love, support, and constant faith in me.

ABSTRACT

Scholars in the tourism industry are continuously looking for new knowledge related to travel behavior, motivations, and the preferences of the main tourist segments. Demographic, socioeconomic, and cultural variables can all influence the demand for travel. Despite numerous studies on most of the demographic and socioeconomic variables, scholars have paid very little attention to religiosity with regard to travel decision-making. Specifically, no researchers have investigated the role of Islamic religiosity in predicting Muslims' destination choice decisions. The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the role of attitudes, subjective norms, travel motivations, Islamic religiosity, self-efficacy, travel constraints, constraints negotiation strategies, and past behavior on Muslim students' intentions to travel to a gaming destination. To account for much of the variation in the proposed model, the researcher includes these eight variables. The researcher attempts to explain the relationships between these constructs, as well as their effect on travel behavior. In doing so, the researcher initially hypothesized that Islamic religiosity and travel motivation, apart from influencing travel intention, directly influence Muslims' attitudes toward gaming destinations. Furthermore, the researcher hypothesized that Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between Muslims' attitudes and their travel intentions.

The sample population of this dissertation consists of Muslim students enrolled in a United States university or college. The researcher recruited

respondents through a multi-stage sampling procedure and the Fulbright Foreign Student Program. The researcher collected 679 usable questionnaires for the data analysis of the study and used partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) analysis to test the study hypotheses.

The results indicate that Islamic religiosity negatively influences the actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. The results also reveal that travel intention is positively influenced by respondents' motivation, attitude, subjective norms, past behavior, and travel constraints. Additionally, the researcher shows through the dissertation findings that Islamic religiosity and travel motivation directly influence Muslims' attitudes toward gaming destinations. Furthermore, Islamic religiosity, as a moderating construct, influences the relationship between the attitude of Muslim travelers and their intention to travel to a gaming destination. The dissertation findings provide important practical and theoretical implications to destination marketers and to tourism and hospitality literature.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Theoretical Framework	8
1.3 Description of Study Variables.....	16
1.4 Significance of the Study	32
1.5 Research Model and Propositions	35
1.6 Limitations of the Study	39
1.7 Delimitations of the Study	40
1.8 Overview of the Dissertation.....	41
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW	45
2.1 The Consumer Decision-Making Process.....	45
2.2 Motivations	53
2.3 The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB).....	71

2.4 Travel Constraints.....	87
2.5 Travel Constraints Negotiation Strategies	99
2.6 Self-Efficacy Theory and Its Link to Travel Behavior	102
2.7 Religiosity	106
2.8 Past Behavior	124
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY.....	136
3.1 Introduction.....	136
3.2 Study Objectives, Hypotheses, and Model	136
3.3 Operationalization of Variables.....	138
3.4. Survey Instrument.....	143
3.5 Pretesting the Questionnaire	145
3.6 Sampling and Data Collection	146
3.7 Data Analysis Methods.....	150
3.8 Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)	152
3.9 Validity	153
3.10 Reliability	157
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS.....	166
4.1 Data Collection Result	166
4.2 Characteristics of the Respondents	169
4.3 Descriptive Information about the Study Variables	171
4.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results.....	173
4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results	180
4.6 Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling Analysis	183

4.7 Analysis of Hypotheses	187
4.8 Chapter Summary.....	198
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE DISSERTATION	231
5.1 Introduction.....	231
5.2 Discussion of the Findings.....	231
5.3 Implications.....	251
5.4 Limitations	259
5.5 Recommendations for Future Research	261
5.6 Conclusions	263
REFERENCES	266
APPENDIX A: THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF MUSLIM STUDENTS' TRAVELING BEHAVIOR	320
APPENDIX B: DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDY VARIABLES	342

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Travel Motivation Theories.....	126
Table 2.2 Evaluation of Relevant Religiosity Studies.....	127
Table 3.1 Illustration of Study Hypotheses.....	159
Table 3.2. Rules of Thumb for Selecting PLS-SEM Instead of CB-SEM.....	162
Table 3.3. Criteria and Recommendations/Rules of Thumb for Applying PLS-SEM.....	163
Table 4.1a Non-Response Bias Check Result (academic level? * Dummy)	200
Table 4.1b Chi-Square Tests	201
Table 4.2a Non-Response Bias Check Result (Islamic Affiliation/Math'hab? * Dummy)	202
Table 4.2b Chi-Square Tests	203
Table 4.3 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....	204
Table 4.4 Travel-Related Characteristics.....	205
Table 4.5 Push Motivation Exploratory Factor Analysis	206
Table 4.6 Pull Motivation Exploratory Factor Analysis	208
Table 4.7 Travel Intention Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	210
Table 4.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Attitudinal Scale.....	211

Table 4.9 Subjective Norms Exploratory Factor Analysis	212
Table 4.10 Travel Constraints Exploratory Factor Analysis	213
Table 4.11 Constraints Negotiation Strategies Exploratory Factor Analysis	215
Table 4.12 Islamic Religiosity Exploratory Factor Analysis	217
Table 4.13 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis	220
Table 4.14 Discriminant Validity of the Constructs.....	224
Table 4.15 Outer Model Test Results	225
Table 4.16 Evaluation of the Predictive Relevance for the Endogenous Constructs.....	226
Table 4.17 Summary of the Hypothesis Testing Results	227
Table B.1 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Intention Items	342
Table B.2 Descriptive Statistics for Religiosity Items	343
Table B.3 Descriptive Statistics for Attitude Items.....	345
Table B.4 Descriptive Statistics for Subjective Norms Items.....	346
Table B.5 Descriptive Statistics for Push Motivation Items	347
Table B.6 Descriptive Statistics for Pull Motivation Items	349
Table B.7 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Constraints Items.....	351
Table B.8 Descriptive Statistics for Constraints Negotiation Strategies Items ..	352
Table B.9 Descriptive Statistics for Self-Efficacy Items.....	354

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 The Proposed Research Model	44
Figure 2.1 The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)	134
Figure 2.2 A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints	135
Figure 3.1. The Research Process	164
Figure 3.2 The Conceptual Model.....	165
Figure 4.1 Inner Model (Path Coefficients & R^2)	229
Figure 4.2 Inner Model (T-Statistics).....	230

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a background on the topic that includes a statement of the problem, the purpose of the dissertation followed by the objectives, a description of all study variables (attitudes, subjective norms, Islamic religiosity, travel motivations, travel constraints, travel constraints negotiation strategies, self-efficacy, past behavior), and the theoretical framework that will guide the study. This introduction then presents the proposed research model, the study propositions, significance of the study that includes both practical and theoretical implications, study limitations and delimitations. Finally, the chapter also provides an overview of the dissertation structure.

1.1 Background

The tourism industry is continuously looking for new knowledge related to travel behavior, motivations, and the preferences of the main tourist segments. Answers to certain questions are helpful to destination marketing and planning: Why do people travel? What factors influence the behavioral intention of selecting a travel destination (Lam & Hsu, 2006)? Tourism researchers have a continued interest in examining tourists' travel motivations (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), preferences (Goodrich, 1978; Yagi & Pearce, 2007), backgrounds (Seddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001), decision-making processes (Decrop & Kozak, 2014; Fodness, 1992; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005;), leisure activities (Carr, 2002; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991;),

sources of information (Fodness & Murray, 1999; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004), and so on. One of the eminent models used in tourism literature is the “push and pull” model by Dann (1977). This theory demonstrates that people travel because they are pushed by internal motivations and pulled by external influences regarding their destination. Consumer decision-making research has developed rapidly during the past three decades. Besides motivation (push and pull), tourism scholars have drawn upon relevant psychological theories to help them understand the tourist’s decision-making process. Theories such as the expected utility theory (Von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1947), prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1974), regret theory (Bell, 1985), satisfying theory (Simon, 1956), the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and the derivative theory of planned behavior or TPB (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 2014) have all been developed and tested in a range of contexts to understand tourist decision-making phenomena. These theories enhance our understanding of and shed light on other factors related to tourists’ travel decision-making. TPB is the most suitable framework to explain what factors influence peoples’ travel. According to Ajzen and Driver (1992), the TPB recognizes that individuals’ leisure behavior is determined by their behavioral intention. As a result, this intention is affected by (1) individuals’ attitude, (2) the significance of the subjective norm in which they are situated, and (3) individuals’ belief regarding whether the task at hand is easy. Since the middle of the last decade, some tourism and hospitality scholars have begun to utilize the TPB to predict various behaviors. Most of these studies have increased the predictive power of this theory by adding relevant constructs.

For example, Sparks (2007) added personal development, destination experience, core wine experience, and food and wine involvement to the TPB. Sparks and Pan (2009) added travel constraints and the use of information sources. Lam and Hsu (2006) added past behavior constructs. Li and Cai (2012) examined internal and external values as predictors for travel motivations and behavioral intentions. Chen and Peng (2012) added the knowledge construct for examining tourists' staying behaviors. Chen, Hung, and Peng (2011) added the attachment construct in their examination of individuals' planned leisure behavior. Yet despite all these additions, individuals' decisions are normally influenced by a range of personal, social, market, economic, religious, and cultural factors (Xu, Morgan, & Song, 2009). Specifically, the literature suggests that many factors, such as religiosity, stress, self-efficacy, personality traits, and demographic characteristics, contribute to a general understanding of tourists' travel decision-making. Although, most of these factors have been examined for their potential influence in travel decision making, the role of religiosity in this relationships have not been examined yet.

Religion plays a major role in how people behave and make decisions in their daily lives. Recent evidence suggests that religion has direct effects on behavioral intention formation and on the actual behavior (Delener, 1990; Eid, 2013; Mattila, Apostolopoulos, Sonmez, & Sasidharan, 2001; Mokhlis, 2009; Wilkes, Burnett, & Howell, 1986; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Religiosity has long been recognized as a central social force that affects human behavior, yet secular societies may underestimate its

influence on consumer behavior. Prior research has shown that religiosity can be a significant construct in relation to consumption patterns (Cleveland, Laroche, & Hallab, 2013; Weaver & Agle, 2002), family decision-making (Sim & Bujang, 2012), selected store patronage behavior, and consumers' decision-making and purchase intentions (Battour, Ismail, & Battor, 2011; Mokhlis, 2009; Shah Alam, Mohd, & Hisham, 2011).

Much of tourism literature has debated religion as a theme for many years; however, most previous efforts were centered on spirituality and pilgrimage travel (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Given this, more general research examining the relationships between religiosity and tourists' behavior is very limited. The four main religions in the world are known as Islam, Christianity, Judaism, Hinduism, and Buddhism. Each of these religions has its own teachings that influence its believers in terms of life decisions and/or daily consumption decisions. For instance, Muslim and Jewish believers are forbidden from eating pork or pork-related products and Hindus from eating cows.

Islam and its teaching set norms that help guide the behaviors, choices, and lifestyles of its followers (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Both religion and religious involvement have been linked to positive mental health and decreased likelihood of various forbidden behaviors such as gambling (Ghandour, Karam, & Maalouf, 2009; Ghandour, El Sayed & Martins, 2012). Social psychology literature indicated that higher levels of religiosity are positively related to psychological wellbeing such as happiness and negatively associated to depression (Moreira-

Almeida, Lotufo Neto, & Koenig, 2006). Surprisingly, however, no research has been published on the role of Islamic religiosity to travel to gaming destinations

Gaming destinations are known for providing services and activities that are prohibited by Islamic law (e.g., gambling, prostitutions). A recent study by Ghandour et al. (2012) compares the Christians and Muslims students gambling behavior. Ghandour et al. (2012) concluded that there are a strong associations among Muslims religiosity and avoiding gambling behavior. Islamic religiosity seem to play a protective role, particularly among Muslims whose faith strictly prohibits gambling (Ghandour et al., 2012).

Following Islamic teachings, Islam advocates travel for the purpose of education and for seeing Allah's (God) creations. It promotes travel for historical, social, and cultural encounters and for the purpose of gaining knowledge, associating with others, spreading God's word, and enjoying and appreciating God's creations. The following verse from Holy Quran asks followers to travel in order to observe and meditate on the creation of God: "Travel through the earth and see how Allah did originate creation; so will Allah produce a later creation: for Allah has power over all things" (God, Surat AlAnkabout, p.398). Since a gaming destination mostly likely offers few of these attributes, gaming destinations are considered sin cities for many Muslims. These types of destinations offer many other activities that Islamic teachings prohibit participation. For example, God said in Quran "O you who believe, intoxicants, and gambling, and the altars of idols, and the games of chance are abominations of the devil; you shall avoid them that you may succeed. The devil wants to

provoke animosity and hatred among you through intoxicants and gambling, and to distract you from remembering God, and from observing the Contact Prayers (Salat). Will you then refrain?" (Quran, 5:90-91). Also, God mentioned illegal sex behaviors in Quran ""And come not near to unlawful sexual intercourse. Verily, it is a faahishah (a great sin) and an evil way." (Quran, 17: 32). Therefore, devout Muslims will likely avoid travelling to gaming destinations. However, gaming destinations might offer opportunities that assist some people to deviate from adherence to their religious precepts and allow them to engage in hedonistic activities that are prohibited by their religion (Cohen & Neal, 2012). In addition, some Muslims might travel to gaming destinations in order to live the feeling of being there and to see what is happening on that particular gaming destination without participating in forbidden behaviors. Hence, it is crucial to know to what extent Islamic religiosity influence Muslims decisions when it comes to travel to gaming destinations.

Scholars from other disciplines, such as marketing, have recently shed light on religion's role in consumer decision-making and purchase intentions. For example, Shah Alam, Mohd, and Hisham's (2011) research examines the effect of religiosity on Muslims' consumption behavior and purchasing decisions. The authors argue that religiosity plays a full mediating role in the relationship between contextual variables (such as the price of the product, brand name, quality, and image) and the purchase behavior of Muslim consumers. Their study found that religiosity influence the relationship between relative or contextual variables and the purchase behavior of Muslim consumers. The study by Shah

Alam et al. (2011) sheds light on the importance of examining religiosity as an important factor when studying consumers' buying behaviors. According to Rehman and Shahbaz Shabbir (2010), religiosity affects new product adoption among Muslim consumers by influencing their beliefs on how and what products they should purchase. Most recently, Jafari and Scott (2014) emphasized that religion has "an influence on the day to day activities of Muslims, whether at home or traveling, and thus it shapes the choice of a destination for discretionary purposes and what is done at the destination" (p. 7). According to Mokhlis (2009), religion is one of the most important factors to study. This dissertation will focus on religiosity from an Islamic perspective. Specifically, it will examine the effect of Islamic religiosity on shaping Muslim tourists' behavioral intentions when choosing a travel destination.

1.1.1 Purpose of the Study

Using the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) as a guiding framework, this dissertation examines the role of attitudes, subjective norms, travel motivations, religiosity, self-efficacy, travel constraints, constraints negotiation strategies, and past behavior on Muslim students' intentions to travel to a gaming destination. This model differs from previous decision-making models in two ways. First, the model focuses on identifying key factors that affect behavioral intentions and will thus add religiosity as a new construct to the model. Second, the model examines the interactions among these factors. The researcher expects this alternative model to enhance the understanding of decision-making in different ways. The proposed model will account for variation through the inclusion of motivations (push motives, pull attributes), travel

constraints, constraints negotiation, and self-efficacy with regard to visiting a gaming destination, along with religiosity and the TPB's original constructs.

Specifically, the objectives of this dissertation are the following:

- (1) To explain choice behavior using multitude of variables that are considered antecedent.
- (2) To enhance the predictive power of destination choices using a multitude of theories simultaneously.
- (3) To examine the moderating effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between attitude and intention to travel.
- (4) To examine the travel motivations of Muslim student tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations.
- (5) To develop new measurement items of religiosity, in the context of Muslims' travel decision-making, that can be used by researchers.
- (6) To determine which travel constraints impede Muslim students from traveling to gaming destinations.
- (7) To identify travel constraints negotiation strategies that Muslim students may apply in order to overcome their perceived travel constraints.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

This dissertation is developed from analysis of the theory of planned behavior, the theory of push and pull travel motivations, the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, and Bandura's self-efficacy theory.

1.2.1 The Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) is the theoretical model that guides this dissertation. Scholars use the TPB frequently in attempts to understand how human actions are directed. The TPB can under certain circumstances predict the likelihood of intentions to behave a certain way. The model posits that behavioral intention is a function of three variables: a) attitudes, b) subjective norms, and c) perceived behavioral control. According to Ajzen (1985), the basic premise of the TPB is that people will perform a particular type of behavior if they believe that such behavior will lead to a particular result (1) that they value, (2) that important referents will value and accept, and (3) if they have the necessary resources, abilities, and opportunities to perform such behavior. The TPB is especially applicable to behaviors that are not entirely under personal control (Corby, Schneider Jamner, & Wolitski, 1996), such as the consumption of halal food (Bonne, Vermeir, Bergeaud-Blackler, & Verbeke, 2007), intentions to purchase travel online (Amaro & Duarte, 2015), sustainable food consumption among young adults (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008), and travel behavior (Lam & Hsu, 2004). The TPB covers the relatively thoughtful process involved in considering the personal costs and benefits involved in different types of behavior (Petty, Unnava, & Strathman, 1991). The TPB postulates a set of relations among attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intention.

Since its first introduction in 1975, the TPB has been employed successfully to predict a variety of social and psychological behaviors (e.g., Ajzen

& Driver, 1992; Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Kim & Han, 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2006). Some tourism and hospitality scholars have applied the theory of planned behavior (TPB) to predicting the behavioral intention of selecting a travel destination (e.g., Lam & Hsu, 2006; Lam & Hsu, 2004), purchasing travel online (Amaro & Duarte, 2015), communicating negative intentions via word-of-mouth (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006), and choosing green hotels (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010). Some researchers recommend for additional constructs to be added in order to enhance the theory's predictive power (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). In the field of tourism studies, Lam and Hsu (2006) proposed a model that adds past behavior in order to predict the behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. Amaro and Duarte's (2015) also employed TPB and their study reveals that perceived risk indicates intentions to purchase travel online. This dissertation postulates that the religiosity construct, alongside these constructs, could enhance the predictive power of the TPB.

Evidence has continued to rise about the role religiosity plays in how people behave and make decisions in their daily lives and when they travel (Jafari & Scott, 2014; Mattila, Apostolopoulos, Sonmez, Yu, & Sasidharan, 2001; Stodolska & Livengood, 2006; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Recent evidence suggests that religiosity can effect behavioral intention formation as well as actual behavior (Eid, 2013; Mattila et al., 2001; Mokhlis, 2009; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Mattila et al. (2001) conducted an investigation of gender and religion's influence on health-risk behavior potentials and the destination-related expectations of college students

during spring break vacation. Their study revealed that gender and religion have a significant impact on students' choice of spring break destinations and on their anticipations for hospitality service quality and the characteristics of the destinations. Mattila et al. (2001) conclude their study by recommending that hospitality marketers consider students' religiosity as a further segmentation variable. Stodolska and Livengood (2006) apply the concept of ethnic resilience and selective acculturation to study the effects of religion on the leisure behavior of Muslim immigrants to the U.S. Their study finds that Islam's effect on leisure behavior reveals itself through dating, food, alcohol, an emphasis on strong family ties, restrictions on mixed-gender interaction, and so on. Stodolska and Livengood's (2006) study recommends that scholars pay more attention to the effects of religion on leisure behavior. Therefore, there is a need to enhance the understanding of the effect of religiosity in general and Islamic religiosity specifically on shaping Muslim tourists' behavioral intentions when choosing a travel destination.

1.2.2 The Theory of Push and Pull Travel Motivations

The sign-gestalt paradigm, better known as the "Push-Pull factor" compendium theory by Tolman (1959) is one of the distinguished models used in tourism literature to understand tourists travel motivations. The Push and Pull model of motivation is later enhanced by Dann in 1977. This theory demonstrates that people travel because they are pushed by internal motivations and pulled by external influences regarding their destinations. More specifically, this theory emphasizes that people travel because they are pushed by factors that include

cognitive processes and socio-psychological motivations (Chon, 1989).

Examples of push factors include the desire for escape, the desire for novelty, the desire for adventure, dream fulfillment, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, and prestige and socialization (Chon, 1989; Uysal & Jurowski, 1993). In contrast, pull factors (also known as destination attributes) include tangible and intangible characteristics of a specific destination that pull individuals for particular travel occasions. Examples of these attributes include food, people, natural attractions, historical sites, recreation facilities, religious sites, gaming, safety, and destination image (Sirakaya & Mclellan, 1997; Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

Tourism scholars acknowledges the push and pull theory as (1) a useful and valuable model for explaining and describing travel motivations, (2) an appropriate theory that can be used to understand travel motivations for people from both Eastern and Western cultures, and (3) a useful tool that can assist in determining when and where to travel (Huang & Hsu, 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015).

Some tourism researchers examine push and pull motivational factors jointly in order to provide knowledge to help destination marketers match the attributes of their destinations (pull factors) with the socio-psychological motivations (push factors) of potential travelers (e.g., Alsawafi, 2013).

Understanding the relationship between the push and pull factors is very important in gaining a deeper understanding of travel motivations and their link to destination choice. Crompton (1979) debates that push factors may be helpful not only because they explain why people travel abroad, but also because they

have the potential to direct these people to specific destinations. In regards to pull factors, Dann (1981) argues that destination attributes strengthen the influence of push motivations and hence lead tourists to make travel decisions (the behavior). Therefore, destination marketers must detect both push and pull travel motivations and recognize the relationship between motivations and destination choice decision in order to determine the most fitting combination of push and pull factors for a tourism product package.

1.2.3 The Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

Researchers develop leisure constraints frameworks in order to provide understanding and to explain this phenomenon (e.g., Crawford et al., 1991; Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Godbey, 1985; Iso-Ahola & Mannell, 1985; Jackson & Dunn, 1988; Jackson & Searle, 1985). Crawford and Godbey (1987) suggested the most extensively adopted leisure constraints model, and Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) later refine this model. Crawford and Godbey (1987) theorize that leisure constraints can be classified into three hierarchically organized categories: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, and (3) structural constraints. Intrapersonal constraints are psychological states comprised of personality, interest, stress, religiosity, and attitude toward leisure. Interpersonal constraints concern the relationship between a potential leisure participant and reference groups, e.g., the unavailability of family and/or friends, as this lack prevents a person from participating in activities that requires partner(s). The structural constraints dimension includes external factors in the environment, such as a

lack of facilities, inconvenient transportation, time, money, and bad weather, all of which can disturb and frustrate potential leisure participants.

Leisure and tourism researchers now widely accept the notion that constraints have a significant effect on the decision-making process in general and on travel and leisure participation in particular (Alsawfi, 2013; Ayling, 2008; Jackson, 1988; Wade, 1985). In this regard, Crompton, Jackson, and Witt (2005) state that participation in tourist activities is possibly impeded, prevented, or limited, dependent on the strength of motivation for participation and the level of constraints conveyed by people. Even though scholars generally develop the leisure constraints model to understand individuals' constraints when participating in leisure activities, some researchers also examine its applicability in travel behavior contexts. For example, Goodale and Witt (1989) employ leisure constraints' study findings to tourism, showing how the leisure constraints model may be relevant to destination marketing. Several subsequent tourism studies also support the leisure constraints model (e.g., Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Kazeminia et al., 2015; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004).

More recently, Chen, Chen, and Okumus (2013) assess the relationship between travel constraints and the destination image of Brunei as an Islamic destination, from the perspective of young, Chinese travelers'. Chen et al. (2013) study reveals that structural and intrapersonal travel constraints are significant at the early stages of the decision-making process. Their study adds a new dimension to the formal travel constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991): unfamiliar cultural constraints. Previous constraints-related studies demonstrate

that leisure and travel constraints function contrarily in different cultural contexts. For instance, Chick and Dong (2003) argue that people with different cultural backgrounds perceive constraints differently from North Americans, and their study proposes further development for leisure constraints categories. Similarly, Shinen et al. (2004) indicate that further examination of racial and ethnic populations would provide a better understanding of constraints.

1.2.4 Self-Efficacy

Bandura in his social learning theory (1986), defines self-efficacy as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p. 391). This definition reinforces this relationship between perceived efficacy and subsequent actions or behaviors, seeing as beliefs often determine actions (Bandura, 1997). This definition suggests that individuals who are confident in certain behaviors are more likely to engage in such behaviors more often (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997). Perceived self-efficacy is context specific, and depends on the type of behavior, as individuals’ level of confidence vary with each skillset (Bandura, 1997; Lenz & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). Since this perceived self-efficacy is dynamic and defined situationally, it is thus not a personality trait, but rather a temporary characteristic (Bandura, 1997; Lenz & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002).

While individuals may wish to change their behaviors or alter certain actions, these individuals typically understand that this desire does not necessarily mean that such change will occur or take place successfully.

Perceived self-efficacy, however, often allows individuals to begin making these changes. External verbal praise establishes a more positive self-efficacy by diminishing individuals' levels of insecurity. Those who are able to absorb this praise and a more positive attitude, instead of focusing on self-doubt, are in turn able to achieve a higher level of self-efficacy and lower their negative emotional arousal (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2008).

While those with high levels of self-efficacy are typically eager to engage in their correlating efficacy activities, they're also more generally willing to tackle difficult tasks and find solutions to challenges. These individuals also tend to be more driven, ambitious, and goal-oriented and are able to handle setbacks and face difficulties with more ease. On the other hand, individuals with lower levels of self-efficacy "avoid difficult tasks, such as making an effort to travel alone and save money to travel" (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2007). These individuals do not maintain confidence in their own abilities, are often preoccupied with self-doubt, and are thus less likely to take action or actively work toward their goals (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2007).

1.3 Description of Study Variables

1.3.1 Attitudes

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), intentions are the result of attitudes toward the outcomes of behavior. An attitude is a tendency, formed by knowledge and experience, to react in a consistent way to an object, such as a product, person, issue or event (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This tendency can be

favorable or unfavorable. According to Moutinho (1987), in the context of tourism, attitudes are predispositions or feelings toward a vacation destination or service, based on various perceived products' qualities. Following Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory, in this research, attitudes are the strength of Muslim tourists' feelings of favorableness or unfavorableness toward the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In the travel setting, several studies assert that attitudes positively influence intentions to travel (e.g., Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Lee, Qu, & Kim, 2007; Morosan & Jeong, 2008). Therefore, we postulate that Muslim individuals' attitudes toward travel positively influence their intentions to travel.

1.3.2 Subjective Norms

According to Moutinho (1987), individuals turn to specific groups for criteria for judgment. Any person or group acting as a reference group can thus apply a key influence on an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and choices (Moutinho, 1987). This conformation to such influence is a subjective norm. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen (1985) describe subjective norms as the individual's perceptions of the social pressures to perform a behavior. They argue that an individual's behavioral intention is not only a function of attitude toward the behavior, but also a function of subjective norms. Subjective norms are determined by the opinions of those who are most important to the individual and, further, the extent to which such an individual wishes to comply with these opinions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Subjective norms are thus social in nature, for individuals base their consideration of performing acts on the opinions of people

important to them and on perceived social pressures to behave in a particular way (Park, 2000).

1.3.3 Perceived Behavioral Control

Perceived behavioral control concerns an individual's belief about the ease or difficulty of performing a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This concept is comprised of the control beliefs and perceived behavioral control components multiplicatively combined. The proposed relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention/actual behavior is based on two assumptions: (1) an increase in perceived behavioral control will result in an increase in behavioral intention and the probability of performing the act (2) perceived behavioral control will directly influence behavior to the extent that perceived control reflects actual control (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Perceived behavioral control can thus be considered a form of controlling constraint that prevents individuals from actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Goh & Ritchie, 2011). Therefore, this study will use the concept of "travel constraints" instead.

1.3.4 Behavioral Intention

Behavioral intention can be defined as an individual's anticipated or planned future behavior (Swan & Trawick, 1981). This concept represents an individual's expectancies about a particular behavior in a given setting and can be operationalized as the likelihood to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Lam and Hsu (2004) studied potential travelers from mainland China to Hong Kong. Their findings in this observation reveal that attitude and perceived behavioral control

are related to travel intentions. According to the TPB, behavioral intention to act in a certain way is the immediate determinant of behavior (Ajzen, 1985). When there is an opportunity to act, the intention results in behavior; thus, if the intention is measured accurately, it will provide the best predictor of behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In this dissertation behavioral intention is defined as a potential Muslim traveler's anticipation of a future trip to one of the United States tourist destinations for leisure or vacation purposes.

1.3.5 Islamic Religiosity

Religion has a strong influence on the daily activities of Muslims. Islam is based on the concepts of human well-being and of living a good righteous life, and therefore Islam encourages its believers to travel for a variety of reasons. First, Muslims are required to travel at least once in their lifetime to Makkah (Kaba) in order to perform pilgrimage, called Hajj. Second, Islam encourages Muslims to travel to seek education and to see Allah's (God's) creations. Accordingly, religion seems to shape the choice of a destination and what activities are done within that destination (Jafari & Scott, 2014). According to Imam Alshafai, a well-known Muslim scholar, traveling involves five main benefits: relieving stress, acquisition of living, seeking education, improving morals, and forming friendships.

Muslims are required to follow many Islamic teachings (directly and indirectly related to travel). Islam calls for certain practices regarding health and hygiene, such as performing ablutions before reciting daily prayers; recognizing what food is permitted to be consumed, as pork and alcohol, for instance, are

prohibited; and recognizing how some food should be prepared, as Muslims are to consume halal meat which entails the slaughter of an animal according to Islamic specifications (Hodge, 2002; Stephenson, 2014). As these practices remain important when traveling, a number of authors have discussed how businesses such as hotels can become more accommodating to these strictures (Henderson, 2010; Ozdemir & Met, 2012; Zulkharnain & Jamal, 2012).

In addition, to assist the increasing number of Muslim travelers, many destination management organizations or hotels have improved their websites by including additional information, such as prayer times and the location of mosques and halal food stores (Timothy & Iverson, 2006). Tourism operators have also provided their staff with training about cross-cultural communication and have informed them how to accommodate or treat Muslim tourists with respect (Timothy & Iverson, 2006). As Muslims typically adhere to a specific dress code and avoid freely mixing with the opposite gender, some hotels in Turkey offer separate swimming pools and recreational facilities or make different times available for each gender (Ozdemir & Met, 2012). In other countries, Muslims may feel constraints placed upon them (Livengood & Stodolska, 2004; Moufakkir, 2011). Cohen and Neal (2012) have also discussed the haram (forbidden) behavior of single Muslim men on holidays in Bangkok. The rising significance of such Muslim traffic has led some countries, such as Malaysia, to focus on attracting Muslims and to develop their tourism industry to match the needs of these travelers (Al-Hamarneh & Steiner, 2004).

Muslims differ from other religious members in following Islamic principles (Shariah teachings). As aforementioned, a typical Muslim prays five times a day (Shia groups pray three times), fasts the month of Ramadan, pays zakat (the amount of money that every mentally stable and financially able adult has to pay to support specific categories of needy people), and performs the pilgrimage ritual (Hajj) once in a lifetime. In addition, Muslims are forbidden from lying, consuming or selling alcohol, gambling, prostitution, and profligate consumption and indulgence and also must adhere to many other teachings. Muslim women are further required to follow an Islamic dress code (covering the whole body except the hands and face) when dealing with men except first class family members (father, brothers, husband, children, uncles, and grandparents) (Zamani-Farhani & Henderson, 2010). However, not all Muslims strictly follow these teachings. For example, some Muslims do not perform the five prayers daily, do not pay zakat, do consume alcohol, and/or refuse to follow the Islamic dress code. These variations among Muslims are the determinants of religiosity levels. According to Worthington et al. (2003), religiosity is “the degree to which a person adheres to his or her religious values, beliefs, and practices and uses them in daily living” (p. 85). Given this, the formation of intention to choose a travel destination for Muslims can be influenced by their level of Islamic religiosity. Thus, existing behavioral theories should include the religiosity construct to enhance their ability to predict the choice of travel destination.

1.3.6 Travel Motivation

Motivation and Intention to Choose a Travel Destination

Tourism scholars have devoted remarkable attention to study travel behavior. Most of them agree that tourists' behavior is a continual process that consists of various related stages (Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2009; Mill & Morrison, 2002). Tourism motivation is regarded as one of the most important constructs in explaining tourists' behavior "because it is an impelling and compelling force behind all behavior" (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996, p. 32). According to Dann (1981), Pearce (1982), and Yoon and Uysal (2005), motivation is a set of psychological needs and wants that consist of vital forces that stimulate, guide, and integrate an individual's behavior and activity. Tourism researchers have drawn upon work from various disciplines to explicate phenomena related to motivation. For example, Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) claim that the definition of motivation focuses on emotional and cognitive motives. MacCannell (1976) argues that tourists are motivated to escape the routine of regular life and to seek authentic experience. In addition, Iso-Ahola (1982) classifies motivation into seeking and avoidance dimensions. In the tourism literature, the motivation construct has been categorized into two forces that indicate that people are pushed and pulled to travel by certain factors (Dann, 1977). Dann's concept is known as the "push-pull factor" model and has become one of the major travel motivation models related to tourists' decision-making in choosing destinations (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Sirakaya, Uysal, & Yoshioka, 2003). According to this model, people travel because they are pushed by factors that include cognitive processes and socio-

psychological motivations (Chon, 1989). Examples of push factors include a desire for escape, novelty seeking, adventure seeking, dream fulfillment, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, and prestige and socialization (Chon, 1989; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). In contrast, pull factors (also known as the destination attributes) include tangible and intangible characteristics of a specific destination that pull individuals for particular travel occasions. Examples of these attributes include food, people, natural attractions, historical sites, recreation facilities, religious sites, gaming, safety, and destination image (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Crompton (1979) argues that push motivations are useful to explicate the desire for travel, whereas pull motivations assist in explaining the actual destination choice.

Although the relationship between motivation and behavioral intention has been mentioned in several attitude and consumer behavior research studies, few provide comprehensive insights into this relationship in the tourism field (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Nyaupane, Paris, & Teye, 2010). Ajzen (1991) claims that intention captures the motivational factors that influence behavior and determines how hard people are willing to try or how much effort they use with regard to a certain behavior. This indicates that motivation is related to behavioral intention. Tourist motivations have been found to be significant factors in the destination selection process (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Nyaupane et al., 2010; Phillips & Jang, 2008). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) empirically demonstrate that travel motivation is a predictor of visit intention among potential tourists to four Mediterranean countries. Baloglu and McCleary's (1999) findings reveal that two

out of three motivational factors (escape and prestige) have a statistically significant but not quite substantive direct effect on visit intention (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Huang and Hsu (2009) also empirically tested the relationship between motivation to revisit and intention to revisit in the context of Chinese outbound tourists to Hong Kong. Their results reveal that only the shopping dimension of motivation has a significant influence on revisit intention (Huang & Hsu, 2009).

Scholars have also studied travel motivations in relation to the decision-making process, market segmentation, and destination choice. Mansfeld (1992) examines the role of motivation in comprehending travel behavior and states that, once motivated to travel, people gather information on their planned trips. Mansfeld (1992) skips the formation of travel intention in the travel-decision process but conclusively agrees that travel motivation is a key stage that triggers travel decisions before actual travel. Bieger and Laesser (2002) argue that the clustering of motivations is vital for market segmentation. Bieger and Laesser's (2002) study further shows that destination choices are related to motivation because potential tourists call upon pull factors when they think of certain destinations and/or activities offered by the destinations. Similarly, Jang and Cai (2002) argue a strong relationship between motivation and destination choices, showing that not only pull factors, but also push factors are related to destination choice. They also indicate that capitalizing on destinations' strengths in push and pull motivations renders a competitive advantage in the travel industry.

Motivation and Attitudes

Numerous studies have examined changes in tourists' attitudes as a result of the interaction between tourists and hosts. However, the tourism literature hasn't much explored how attitudes are formed and what factors play important roles in forming attitudes toward travel destinations (Nyaupane, Teye, & Paris, 2008). This understanding is even more lacking with respect to the diversity of the tourists who annually participate in various forms of travel (Nyaupane, Paris, & Teye, 2010). Although several studies assert that attitude positively influences intention to travel (e.g., Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Lee, Qu & Kim et al., 2007; Morosan & Jeong, 2008), other factors that might influence this relationship are rarely examined. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) identify the conditions necessary to arouse or modify an attitude and posit that such conditions would vary in accordance with the motivational basis of the attitude. Although Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) didn't clearly suggest a causal relationship, their theory proposes that attitude follows motivation and that the latter may influence the former (Hsu et al., 2009).

The investigation of the relationship between travel motivation and attitude is very limited (e.g., Hsu et al., 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ragheb & Tate, 1993; Sparks, 2007). In addition, the nature of the relationship between the two constructs continues to be ambiguous, as previous research reports findings that are inconsistent and inconclusive. Tourists' general evaluation of a destination is most likely to be crucial to any intentions to visit the

destination. Attitudes toward visiting a destination will thus be determined by the major important attributes of the destination. Accordingly, as proposed by the TPB, particular destination attributes will guide intended behavior. Firstly, the evaluation of the number of destination characteristics will influence attitudes and will, in turn, influence intentions to engage in such travel behavior (Sparks & Pan, 2009). Lam and Hsu (2004; 2006) performed two studies with 353 mainland Chinese (2004) and 480 Taiwanese (2006) tourists to predict travel behavior and the intention of destination selection by including motivation factors. Through the TPB, Lam and Hsu reveal that tourists' interactions with both push and pull motivational factors are a cause of their affective dimension of attitude toward visiting Hong Kong.

1.3.7 Travel Constraints

In the past four decades, a rising number of research studies have emerged on constraints to leisure activity involvement. Crawford and Godbey (1987) suggest a leisure constraints model. This model is later expanded by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) and since then has made a major contribution. The model illustrates that people's desire to participate in leisure-related activities is constrained by three aspects: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Intrapersonal constraints are the inhibitors that relate to individuals' psychological conditions, such as lack of interest, health related problems, and religious considerations. Interpersonal constraints refer to interactions between a potential leisure participant and others. For example, some people are unable to find a friend or family member to travel with them.

Structural constraints are external factors restraining potential travelers from their behavioral intentions, such as inconvenient transportation, financial issues, and lack of time and opportunities. This classification of constraints represents a systematic analysis of leisure and travel constraints and has been adopted as a common analytic framework by a large number of studies in both leisure and tourism (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Kerstetter, Yen, & Yarnal, 2005; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004). Although few studies have examined the travel constraints concept in travel decision-making settings, some researchers have emphasized the significant role that constraints play in travel and leisure participation in particular and on the decision-making process in general (Alsawafi, 2013; Chen, Chen, & Okumus, 2013; Jackson, 1988; Wade, 1985). According to Crompton, Jackson, and Witt (2005), participation in tourist activities is possibly inhibited, limited, or dependent on the strength of motivation for participation and individuals' level of constraints.

The previous research suggests that the model established by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) is suitable in examining travel and leisure constraints not only in participation settings for leisure activities, but also in nonparticipation. Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) argue that this model appears to be appropriate to a range of human behaviors. Zhang et al. (2004) suggests that constraints have a significant impact on whether to travel or to participate in leisure activities. He finds that cost, time, and money are the most important perceived travel constraints that inhibit Beijing residents from traveling overseas. Relatedly, Hung and Petrick (2012) examined the influence of

perceived travel constraints, constraint negotiation, self-congruity, functional congruity, and self-efficacy on travel intentions in the context of cruise tourism. Hung and Petrick's (2012) study results suggest that "travel constraints are an important variable influencing travel intentions" (p. 864). Shinew et al. (2004) tested leisure constraints and the preferences of African-Americans and Caucasians. The study results indicate that African-Americans have different leisure preferences than Caucasians and that the former are less constrained than the latter group. Previous constraint-related studies have demonstrated that leisure and travel constraints function contrarily in different cultural contexts. For instance, Chick and Dong (2003) argue that people with different cultural backgrounds perceive constraints differently from North Americans, and their study proposes further development for leisure constraint categories. Similarly, Shinew et al. (2004) indicate that further examination of racial and ethnic populations would provide better understandings of constraints. Therefore, the present study will add travel constraints as a construct to predict the travel intentions of international Muslim students.

Along with the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) also provide the constraints negotiation concept. This concept implies that nonparticipation is not the only outcome for constraints and instead suggests that individuals negotiate their constraints to overcome them instead of directly accepting them (Crawford et al., 1991; Scott, 1991; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). According to Hubbard and Mannell (2001), negotiation strategies involve time management, skills

acquisition, interpersonal coordination, and financial resources management and strategies. For example, if the travel constraint for an individual is time, a time management negotiation strategy might be to reduce travel time and change times. Furthermore, the results of the negotiation process depend on the relative strengths of the constraints, interaction between constraints, and motivation for participation (Crawford et al., 1991; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). For example, Hung and Petrick (2012) categorize their study participants into two groups, high and low self-efficacy, in order to find the influence of travel constraints on constraints negotiation. The result of their examination reveals significant influence. Hung and Petrick (2012) state that “while travel constraints stimulated the use of constraint negotiation strategies in the low efficacy group, the reverse was found to be true for high efficacy people” (p. 864). In addition, Hung and Petrick’s (2012) findings reveal that constraints negotiation has a significant influence on travel intention. This indicates that potential travelers who put more effort into negotiating their constraints are more likely to travel than those who devote less effort to constraints negotiation. Hence, the present study will further investigate the influence of travel constraints negotiation on college Muslim students’ travel intentions and behavior. In addition, the study will examine if their experience of travel constraints stimulates the use of constraint negotiation strategies.

1.3.8 Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1977) defines self-efficacy as the “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given

attainments” (p. 3). Bandura (1986) further interprets self-efficacy as self-evaluation or judgment of an individual’s ability to implement the action. In other words, self-efficacy refers to the ease or difficulty of performing a behavior or to confidence in the individual’s ability to perform it (Amaro & Duarte, 2015). In their meta-analysis study to examine the use of the TPB, Armitage and Conner (2001) indicate that self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control are strongly correlated with intention and behavior. Specifically, Armitage and Conner (2001) emphasize that self-efficacy accounts for more additional variance in intention than perceived behavioral control. They conclude that “self-efficacy should be preferred measure of perceived control within the TPB, but further research is required that more fully evaluates the impact of different operationalizations of perceived control on intention and behavior” (Armitage & Conner, 2001, p. 488). Some researchers use perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy constructs interchangeably. Although these two constructs are related, they should be differentiated (Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Terry, 1993). Armitage and Conner (2001) illustrate that self-efficacy is related to cognitive perceptions of control based on internal factors, while perceived behavioral control reflects both internal and external factors.

Although the self-efficacy concept has been widely used in a wide range of topics, very few studies examine the influence of the self-efficacy construct on travel intention (e.g., Amaro & Duarte, 2015). When examining the determinants of intentions to purchase travel online, Amaro and Duarte (2015) split perceived behavioral control into two components: self-efficacy and controllability. Amaro

and Duarte's (2015) findings indicate that self-efficacy and controllability have significant positive influences on the intention to purchase travel online. Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) use the term "negotiation efficacy" when discussing self-efficacy in the constraints negotiation setting. Negotiation efficacy refers to individuals' confidence in their ability to use negotiation resources effectively (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Following this hypothesis, Hung and Petrick (2012) examine the moderation effect of self-efficacy between travel constraints and constraints negotiation. Their study finds that travel constraints negatively influence constraints negotiation in the high self-efficacy group while the effect is positive in the low efficacy group.

1.3.9 Past Behavior

Scholars from social psychology, sociology, and tourism claim that past behavior is the best predictor of future behavioral intention and actual behavior (Bagozzi, 1981; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). The role of past behavior in the context of the TRA and TPB has been tested in a few previous studies (Bagozzi, 1981; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2007). These studies indicate that the TRA and TPB models' ability to predict intentions and/or actual behaviors could be enhanced by adding past behavior as a predictor. Bagozzi (1981) finds that the effects of past behavior on intentions are not mediated by attitudes and/or subjective norms, and that prior behavior has direct effects on actual behavior that is not mediated by intentions. A meta-analysis by Ouellette and Wood (1998) examines 64 studies and finds robust evidence for the effect of the past behavior

structure on both behavioral intentions and future behavior. Kim and Chalip (2004) argue that past travel experiences also affect tourists' risk and safety concerns, in addition to their intention to revisit. Ryu and Jang (2007) examine the validity of an extended TRA model within the context of tourist intentions to try local cuisine on vacation. Their study reveals a positive causal relationship from past behavior to behavioral intention, indicating that past experience could make tourists' intentions to try local cuisine significantly stronger. Both studies of Lam and Hsu (2004; 2006) result in a significant influence of past behavior on the behavioral intention to travel. Based on the findings of previous studies, past behavior is expected to directly influence behavioral intentions in this study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Practical Implications

The demand for travel can be influenced by demographic, socioeconomic, and cultural variables, such as ethnic identity, nationality, age, region, family size, gender, marital status, religion, income, occupation, and educational level (Cai & Combrink, 2000; Collins & Tisdell, 2002; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Meng & Uysal, 2008; You, O'Leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000). Despite numerous studies on most of the aforementioned demographic and socioeconomic variables, scholars pay very little attention to the religiosity construct, especially in the field of travel decision-making. No studies in tourism literature investigate the role of Islamic religiosity in predicting Muslims' destination choice decisions. Thus, this dissertation examines Islamic religiosity, via the frequency of attendance of religious services and the importance of Islamic faith in individuals' lives, and the

effect that these factors have on destination choice decisions. The findings of this research will have significant management and theoretical implications. From a management point of view, the study results can aid marketers in segmenting the tourist market. Findings from this research may encourage destination marketers to develop products and services that are compatible with Islamic laws. These products and services can pull Muslim travelers to these destinations.

Furthermore, destination marketing entails the development of communication channels between tourists and other stakeholders, in order to enhance awareness and persuade tourists to purchase products (Buhalis, 2000).

Promotional activities include advertising on television, radio, the press, and online. Stakeholders must target the right market with the right message at the right time, in order to guarantee a successful marketing campaign with minimal costs. This study postulates that highly religious individuals will be less likely to travel to gaming destinations. Therefore, the findings of this study will assist destination marketers in planning out marketing strategies. For example, destination marketers should not target highly religious individuals, as this promotion will not allow for any profit margin.

Theoretical Contributions

Sutton and Staw (1995) define “theory” as “a statement of concepts and their interrelationships that shows how and/or why a phenomenon occurs.”

Following this definition, Corley and Gioia (2011) argue, in their comprehensive review of what constitutes a theoretical contribution, that a theoretical contribution is something that advances our understanding of such concepts and

interrelationships. Corley and Gioia (2011) additionally suggest that, in order to be seen as significant, a theoretical contribution needs to show both originality and utility. Hence, this notion is followed in discussing the theoretical contributions of this dissertation.

This study will have four theoretical contributions to the literature. First, Ajzen (1991) argues that the relationship between the three elements of the TPB and the outcome variable (intention) may vary depending on behaviors and situations. Hence, this study could help extend and enhance the TPB, through application of this theoretical model in predicting Muslim tourists' traveling decisions, along with the addition of the new independent variable, religiosity. Second, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argue that attitude alone cannot always definitively predict a behavior. They propose that the aggregation of other constructs with attitude could make the prediction of behavior more valid. Thus, this dissertation's proposed model will account for variation through the inclusion of subjective norms, motivations (push motives, pull attributes), travel constraints, constraints negotiation, and self-efficacy with regard to visiting a gaming destination, along with the religiosity construct. The combination of these constructs will enhance the model's validity.

Third, the researcher hypothesize that travel motivation is a predictor for attitudes toward gaming destinations. If individuals have higher travel motivations, then they will have more favorable attitudes toward travel. In addition, in this study, the researcher postulates that religiosity plays a role in predicting attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is

stronger, then this person will have a less favorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination. Islamic religiosity may also moderate the relationship between attitudes and the intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a person is highly religious, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be lesser. The explanation of these interrelationships will provide a better understanding of how and why people make travel decisions.

Fourth, previous studies examine travel intention by including either perceived behavioral control or self-efficacy, along with attitude and subjective norms, as predictors. In this dissertation, the researcher argues that the perceived behavioral control construct is limited in terms of predicting travel intention. In a travel behavior context, the resources and opportunities are broader and may include many internal and external factors that may facilitate or inhibit making a travel decision. Thus, the travel constraint construct alongside travel negotiation strategies and self-efficacy will be used in this dissertation in order to predict the intention to travel to a gaming destination. This will ensure a more comprehensive list with which to measure perceived behavioral control constructs in a travel behavioral setting.

1.5 Research Model and Propositions

The research model of this study is shown in Figure 1.1. The intention to visit a gaming destination precedes the process before actual visitation. Intention reflects future behavior. The model consists of 10 variables: (1) attitude; (2) motivations to travel (push and pull); (3) subjective norms; (4) travel constraints;

(5) constraint negotiation strategies; (6) past behavior; (7) self-efficacy; (8) religiosity as a significant factor in destination choice; (9) intention to travel to a gaming destination; and (10) actual behavior. This model mainly attempts to explain the relationships between these constructs as well as their effect on travel behavior. This dissertation is developed from analysis of the theory of planned behavior, the theory of push and pull travel motivations, the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, and Bandura's self-efficacy theory. In the development of the study propositions, the findings of such studies are then joined with the teachings of the Islamic religion and knowledge of the relationship between Islam and tourism.

1.5.1 Research Propositions

- Proposition 1** Travel motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher motivations lead to higher intentions.
- Proposition 2** Travel motivation is a predictor for attitudes toward gaming destinations. Individuals with a higher intensity of travel motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.
- Proposition 3** Tourists' intention to travel to a gaming destination is positively related to their actual behaviors. If individuals have a stronger intention toward a behavior, then they will be more likely to perform the behavior.

- Proposition 4** Muslims' attitudes positively influence their intentions to travel to gaming destinations. Positive attitudes toward gaming destinations result in a greater intention to choose gaming destinations.
- Proposition 5** Subjective norms positively influence intention to travel. If a subjective norm is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.
- Proposition 6** Travel constraints negatively influence travel intentions. If a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be less likely to intend to travel.
- Proposition 7** The presence of travel constraints initiates the adoption of constraints negotiation strategies. If a person has more constraints, then this person will be more likely to use negotiation strategies.
- Proposition 8** Constraints negotiation positively influences travel intentions. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person will be more likely to intend to travel.
- Proposition 9** Self-efficacy positively influences travel intentions. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming constraints, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

- Proposition 10** Self-efficacy positively influences negotiation strategies. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them.
- Proposition 11** Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.
- Proposition 12** Religiosity is a significant predictor of the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist's religiosity is stronger, then this tourist will be less likely to choose a gaming destination.
- Proposition 13** Religiosity is a significant predictor of actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower.
- Proposition 14** Religiosity is a predictor for attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then this person will have a more unfavorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination.
- Proposition 15** Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and travel intention for gaming destinations. If a

person's religiosity is stronger, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be weaker. If a person's religiosity is weaker, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be stronger.

Proposition 16 Past behavior is a significant predictor of the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If past experiences are positive, then intentions are more likely to be stronger.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

Limitations for this research study pertain to the sample's characteristics and the data collection procedures. The first limitation of this study relates to the results' external validity. The exact college Muslim student population in the United States is unknown. No available list of this population exists. In addition, United States' universities and colleges are prevented by law from providing contact information for their international students. Thus, the data collection in this study is limited to students found from two sources: the universities and colleges identified from multi-stage sampling and Fulbright students.

The study's second limitation pertains to the study's questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of nine scales and six demographic questions. The participants have to answer a total of 196 items and six demographic questions, which means that subjects are expected to take approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. In this situation, participants may become anxious

about time. Respondents' burden (e.g., issues of tiredness, feeling rushed, and anxiety) could be a limitation to the data's accuracy. Furthermore, the study collects data using online, self-administered questionnaires. This represents a limitation in that participants could be influenced by social desirability and human memory during self-reporting, which can consequently influence data's accuracy (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001). Moreover, the questionnaire does include a shorter version of the social desirability scale, in order to tackle the issue of dishonesty in answering sensitive questions, such as those related to religiosity. Yet this social desirability scale also involves self-reporting behavior, and the sensitive nature of the topic may still affect honest completion of the questionnaire.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study is delimited in the following ways: First, to guide the research, the study chooses a positivism paradigm by employing quantitative methods. The research excludes other paradigms (e.g., post-positivism and constructivism). The study uses this positivism paradigm because general patterns of cause and effect between and among variables can be used as a basis for predicting travel behavior intentions. The study's goal is to discover these patterns. In addition, the positivism paradigm follows a strict methodological protocol that makes the research free of subjective bias, and the research will thus achieve objectivity (Guba, 1990). Third, one of the inclusion criteria is that the selected university or college should have a Muslim students' association and international students' office (ISO). Universities and colleges that do not have Muslim students' associations are excluded from the study. Therefore, some Muslim students may

not be captured in this study sample. Fourth, this study will evaluate attitudes, subjective norms, travel motivation, religiosity, self-efficacy, travel constraints, constraints negotiation strategies, and past behavior, as well as these factors' influences on Muslims' travel intentions. Other factors will be excluded due to time constraints but include personality, destination image, satisfaction, perception, and so on. The addition of these factors would lead to (1) model complexity and a (2) longer questionnaire, which may lead to a very low response rate. This study is exploratory in nature, and these factors could be added to the model in future studies.

1.8 Overview of the Dissertation

The dissertation will be divided into five chapters. A summary of each chapter follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter provides a background on the topic that includes a statement of the problem, the purpose of the dissertation followed by the objectives, a description of all study variables (attitudes, subjective norms, Islamic religiosity, travel motivations, travel constraints, travel constraints negotiation strategies, self-efficacy, past behavior), and the theoretical framework that will guide the study. This introduction then presents the proposed research model, the study propositions, significance of the study that includes both practical and theoretical implications, study limitations and delimitations. Finally, the chapter also provides an overview of the dissertation structure.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

In this chapter, the researcher links the research problem with a wide range of literature relevant to the Islamic religiosity, the decision-making process, travel motivations, travel constraints, negotiation strategies, self-efficacy, past behavior, attitudes, subjective norms, and intention to travel. The researcher identifies the state of the current literature and its corresponding gaps. Finally, on the basis of the related literature and the study's objectives, the researcher advances existing literature by developing 16 propositions.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

In this chapter, the study's research methodology and the conceptual research framework that drives the dissertation are presented and discussed. The researcher starts by illustrating the research process. In the second section of the chapter, the researcher then presents the research objectives, hypothesis, and conceptual model proposed in the first chapter. The researcher next, in the third and fourth sections of the chapter, discusses the development of the survey instrument: the procedure of pretesting the questionnaire. In the fifth section, a discussion of the sampling and data collection procedures is provided. In the last sections of the chapter, the researcher describes the study's statistical methods (descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, and partial least square structural equation modeling, or PLS-SEM) and related validity and reliability issues of the measurement scales.

Chapter Four: Results

The results of the data analysis and hypothesis testing are presented in this chapter. The structure of this chapter covers: (a) an overview about the data representativeness (b) the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, (c) general travel information about the respondents, (d) descriptive information about the study variables, (e) exploratory factor analysis results of the dimensional constructs, (f) the confirmatory factor analysis results, (g) results of the validity and reliability examinations, and (h) the results of the hypothesis tests applied in PLS-SEM.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusions of the Dissertation

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the dissertation, present its practical and theoretical implications, highlight its limitations, and provide recommendations for future research. In the first section, the researcher summarizes the main findings regarding the dissertation's objectives and hypotheses and suggests the practical applications. In the second section, the researcher highlights the practical and theoretical contributions of this dissertation. In the third section, the researcher highlights the dissertation's limitations. Finally, in the fourth section, the researcher offers recommendations for future research.

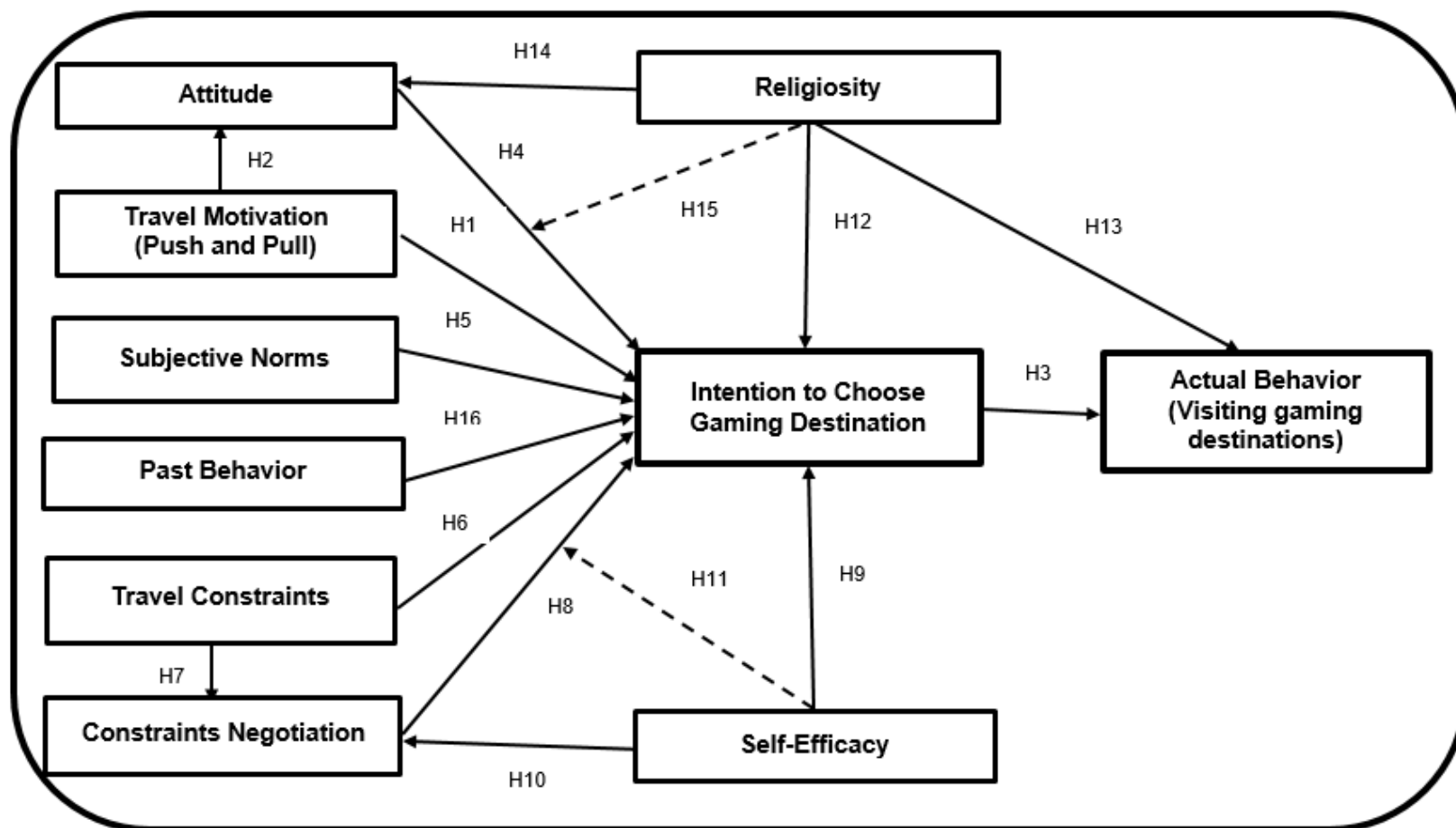


Figure 1.1 The Proposed Research Model

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the researcher links the research problem with a wide range of literature relevant to the Islamic religiosity, the decision-making process, travel motivations, travel constraints, negotiation strategies, self-efficacy, past behavior, attitudes, subjective norms, and intention to travel. The researcher identifies the state of the current literature and its corresponding gaps. Finally, on the basis of the related literature and the study's objectives, the researcher advances existing literature by developing 16 hypotheses and proposes the theoretical model that this study will test.

2.1 The Consumer Decision-Making Process

In any research that aims to examine the factors that affect destination choice, the researcher should clarify and define the tourist's decision-making process. This examination fundamentally takes in consideration both the factors that influence the tourist's decision-making process and existing models that explain different decision-making processes.

Decision-making studies are multi-disciplinary in general and emerge from a wide range of disciplines including psychology (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Harmon-Jones, 2000; Briñol, Petty, & Barden, 2007), sociology (e.g., Howard, 2000; Lawler, Thye, & Yoon, 2000; Pierce, Cameron, Banko, & So, 2012), marketing (e.g., Cotte & Wood, 2004; Simonson, Carmon, Dhar, Drolet, & Nowlis, 2001),

and communication (e.g., Homer, 2006; Katz, 1957; Till & Baack, 2005).

Although scholars propose various theories for explaining consumers' decisions (e.g., theory of planned behavior by Ajzen, 1991; goal hierarchy of motivation by Bettman, 1979; elaboration likelihood model of persuasion by Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; brand personality by Aaker, 1997), these scholars cannot agree upon one unifying theory to fully explain the decision-making process (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Simonson, Carmon, Dhar, Drolet, & Nowlis (2001, p. 251) argue that this might be because consumer behavior is too complicated to be effectively explained by a single model. Therefore, alternative models may enhance our knowledge of decision-making in several ways (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). For example, this knowledge enables service providers and marketers to understand the origins of the psychological differences among different market segments, which, in turn, allows them to satisfy the different market segments by: (1) meeting their unique desires, motivations and aspirations; (2) considering the factors that affect the choice of a product/service; (3) minimizing their constraints; and, (4) strengthening their negotiation strategies (Alsawafi, 2013; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008).

The examination of the consumer decision-making process has been a central point of attention among consumer behavior researchers for almost 50 years (e.g., Howard & Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966). Over these years, consumer behavior researchers have developed many cognitive consumer decision-making process models. These models illustrate the process by which consumers make decisions. Howard and Sheth (1969) developed one of the earliest grand models

of buyer behavior, and their model emphasizes the importance of stimulus inputs to consumer choice behavior and the specific ways in which a consumer orders these inputs before arriving at a final decision.

Although this model conceptualizes the consumer decision-making process as a process of narrowing down alternatives, the model does not consider many of the constructs that the decision-making process may involve. Later research indicates that other factors, besides the psychological factors of attitude and motivation, might play a role in the buying decision-making process. For example, the influence of significant others (subjective norms), past purchase experiences, religion, and constraints (time, money, opportunities) might play a role in the decision-making process.

The previously recognized consumer decision-making models are helpful in identifying the components of the consumer decision-making process and in describing the nature of the relationship between these components. These early models provide the conceptual basis for later consumer behavior models. Cognitive processing subsequently transforms the focal component of these decision-making models into attitude and intention to perform acts. Intention then determines purchase behavior and brand choice (McGuire, 1976). Later sections of this chapter will further discuss these causal effects.

2.1.1 The Travel Decision-Making Process

Tourism is regarded as a product or service that requires a high level of involvement in the decision-making process because the nature of travel necessitates a significant amount of time and financial resources from a traveler

(Chon, 1990; Sirakaya, McLellan, & Uysal, 1996). Laws (1995) provides four aspects of holidays that make tourists highly involved in choosing their destinations: (1) holidays are expensive; (2) holidays are complex to purchase and to experience; (3) there is a risk that the destination will not prove satisfying; and (4) destinations typically reflect the holidaymaker's personality. Therefore, tourists go through a complex decision-making process when they intend to make a travel decision. This travel decision making also influenced by several other factors, such as the nature of tourism products (which cannot be evaluated in advance), the high cost of tourism activities, the level of personal risk, the number of people who participate in the tourist decision-making process, the characteristics of travel information, push factors (internal), pull factors (destination attributes), satisfaction, location, the perceived image of the destination, travel constraints, the influence of significant others, past travel experiences, and uncertainty (Alsawafi, 2013; Correia, Santos, & Barros, 2007; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Decrop, 2010; Hsu et al., 2009; Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Jönsson & Devonish, 2008; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Moutinho, 1987; Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007; Um & Crompton, 1992). These components are responsible for the complexity of the travel decision-making process. In addition, the travel decision influences vary considerably according to the demographic characteristics of the consumers (for example, by social class, age, gender, culture, and religion) (Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

A review of previous decision-making studies indicates that scholars normally consider decision-making to be a process that includes multiple stages (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), through which consumers arrive at a final purchase decision. For example, Crompton (1992) and Botha, Crompton, and Kim (1999) suggest a destination choice model in which people narrow their choices from an awareness set to an initial consideration set, to a late consideration set, and to a final destination choice. Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) use Assael's (1984) work to propose an information search model in which the information search process involves five stages: (1) input variables, (2) information acquisition, (3) information processing, (4) brand evaluation, and (5) purchase. Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) review previous travel decision-making studies and propose that individuals usually go through the following steps when making a travel decision: (1) recognizing the need for making a decision, (2) identifying goals, (3) formulating choice sets, (4) collecting information on each choice, (5) making a choice from among the options, 6) purchasing and/or consuming products/services, and 7) evaluating, post-purchase.

Although these models present a logical hierarchical process of decision-making, some scholars (e.g., Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002; Oppermann, 1998) propose that not all individuals go through all of the aforementioned decision-making stages. Individuals are more likely to ignore some steps of this decision-making process when they are brand loyal (Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014), have previous experience (Oppermann, 1998), are familiar with the products/services (Prentice & Andersen, 2000), are affected by social

influences (Lam & Hsu, 2006), are more involved in the decision-making process (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993), and/or if their decisions are routinized (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993), have constraints (Alsawafi, 2013; Um & Crompton, 1992), or are less motivated (Hsu et al., 2009).

In examining cruise travelers' decision-making, Petrick, Li, and Park (2007) find that Crompton's (1992) destination choice set model (which is a multistage decision-making model) does not fully explicate the phenomenon. This finding indicates that the traditional multi-stage models may not be appropriate for describing and explaining tourists' decisions, due to these models' limitations in taking into consideration the aforementioned factors (e.g., motivation factors, social influences, travel constraints, religion) (Hung & Petrick, 2012). Therefore, tourism researchers utilize other theories that may explain tourists' decision-making phenomena. For instance, Hung and Petrick (2012) employ the motivation-opportunity-ability (MOA) model that MacInnis and Jaworski first proposed in 1989 within the information processing setting. The model proposes that motivation, opportunity, and ability (MOA) are antecedents of consumer behavior. Hung, Sirakaya-Turk and Ingram (2011) were the first to apply the (MOA) model in tourism development context. Later on, Hung and Petrick (2012) applied the MOA model to explore the roles of self-congruity, functional congruity, perceived travel constraints, constraints negotiation, and self-efficacy in relation to travel intention.

Although Hung and Petrick's attempt is foundational, this approach only discusses the internal factors that might influence travel decision-making.

Moutinho (1987), however, suggests almost three decades ago that the factors that affect an individual's destination choice can be categorized as both internal and external. The author further states that these factors vary in their degree of influence, in their time of appearance from arousal stage to decision stage, and from purchase to post-purchase experience. Major influences on individual travel behavior include cultural and subcultural effects, reference groups, social classes, personality and self-concepts, learning, motivation, perception and cognition, perceived risks, attitude, and intention (Moutinho, 1987).

Tourism researchers utilize theories that incorporate some of the aforementioned factors to understand travelers' decision-making processes. To understand tourists' decision-making phenomena, these researchers develop and test theories in a range of contexts, e.g., the expected utility theory (Von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1947), the prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1974), the regret theory (Bell, 1985), the satisfying theory (Simon, 1956), the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), and the derivative theory of planned behavior or the TPB (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). These theories enhance the understanding of and shed further light on other factors related to tourists' travel decision-making. The author of this dissertation postulates that the TPB is the most suitable framework for explaining which factors influence individuals' travel behaviors. According to Ajzen and Driver (1992), the TPB recognizes that behavioral intention determines individuals' leisure behavior. As a result, this intention is affected by (1) individuals' attitudes, (2) the significance

of the subjective norm in which they are situated, and (3) individuals' beliefs regarding whether their task at hand is easy.

Since the middle of the last decade, some tourism and hospitality researchers have begun to utilize the TPB to predict various behaviors. Most of these studies increase the predictive power of this theory by adding more relevant constructs. For example, Sparks (2007) adds personal development, destination experience, core wine experience, and food and wine involvement to the TPB to investigate wine tourists' intentions to take a wine-based vacation. Sparks and Pan (2009) add travel constraints and the use of information sources to investigate potential Chinese outbound tourists' values in terms of destination attributes. Lam and Hsu (2006) add past behavior constructs when studying the potential Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong. Li and Cai (2012) examine internal and external values as predictors for travel motivations and behavioral intention. Chen and Peng (2012) add the knowledge construct for examining tourists' staying behaviors. Chen, Hung, and Peng (2011) add the attachment construct in their examination of individuals' planned leisure behavior.

Yet despite all these additions, individuals' decisions are normally influenced by a range of personal, social, market, economic, religious, and cultural factors (Xu, Morgan, & Song, 2009). More specifically, the literature suggests that many factors, such as religiosity, stress, self-efficacy, personality traits, and demographic characteristics, contribute to a general understanding of tourists' travel decision-making.

2.2 Motivations

2.2.1 Motivations from Psychology to Tourism

Motivation is an essential factor in the decision-making process, as it influences both the direction and strength of a behavior (Bettman, 1979; Sirakaya, Uysal, & Yoshioka, 2003). Several fields of study pay extensive attention to examining motives that cause human behavior. Researchers who study motivation use different theories to explain human motivations, such as drive reduction theory (Hull, 1943; Hull, 1952), the hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943; Maslow, 1954), and expectancy-value theories (Lewin, 1938). These approaches offer differing insights into human behavior.

Many psychologists in 1950s believed that all motivation depends upon the pleasure experienced when basic needs are met (Atkinson, 1964; Zimbardo & Ruch, 1988). For instance, an individual who is hungry eats in order to lower the tension that hunger produces. All human behavior can be attributed to the pleasure gained when these drive-induced tensions are reduced. Drive reduction theory has ultimately dropped because it fails to explain human actions that produce, rather than reduce, tension. For example, many people enjoy rafting despite the fact that such an activity may cause fear and anxiety. The more modern motivational theory includes the principal of optimal arousal, that individuals act to maintain an appropriate rather than a minimal level of stimulation and arousal (Atkinson, 1964; Zimbardo & Ruch, 1988). Optimal levels

differ from person to person, and this variation explains why some people drive race-cars while others prefer evenings at the opera house.

The Expectancy-Value Theory first introduced by Lewin (1938) and then further developed in the 1950s and 1960s by Atkinson in an effort to understand the achievement motivation of individuals. Expectancy-value theory has been developed in many different fields including education, health, communications, marketing and economics. Although the model differs in its meaning and implications for each field, the general idea is that there are expectations as well as values or beliefs that affect subsequent behavior. The Expectancy Theory suggests that people involve in a certain behavior because of the outcome that they anticipate from that behavior. Thus, behavioral motivation is dependent on the personal assessment of the intended outcome as well as the expectancy that the efforts will lead to the outcome (Vroom, 1964). Additionally, the Expectancy-Value-Theory proposes that people first form a belief about the behavior by evaluating various attributes associated with that behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The outcome of beliefs and values can be summarized in a construct called “attitude”, which is consider as a basic determinant of actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The derivatives of the Expectancy-Value-Theory, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), continue their argumentation in line with this belief/value attitude-behavior logic, and they have been utilized to predict behavior in different settings, including tourists’ behavior (Chiu, Lee, & Chen, 2014).

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, as the second psychological motivation theory, originates from the context of his work in the clinical psychology field. Yet this theory has become extensively influential in several applied fields, such as industrial and organizational psychology, marketing, and tourism. Pizam and Mansfeld (2000) argue that one of the main reasons for the attractiveness of Maslow's hierarchy of needs is likely its simplicity. Maslow argues that if none of the needs in the hierarchy are satisfied, then the physiological needs (hunger, thirst, sex, sleep, air, etc.) will govern behavior. If these are satisfied, however, they no longer motivate, and the individual moves up to the next level in the hierarchy: safety needs (freedom from threat or danger). Once these needs are satisfied, the individual will move up to the next level, continuing to work up the hierarchy as the needs at each level are satisfied (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow's theory appears to be widely accepted in many fields including tourism (Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009), although a few scholars, such as Goebel and Brown (1981), state that a potential drawback to Maslow's theory is that behavior may be initiated for more than one need at a time and that action can be taken in a different order than in Maslow's hierarchy (Jang et al., 2009). Similarly, Witt, Wright, Johnson, and Thomas (1992) criticize Maslow's theory for not including many other important needs because they might not fit appropriately into Maslow's hierarchical framework. Such needs include dominance, abasement, play, and aggression. In contrast, some tourism scholars do attempt to explain tourists' motivations by relying on Maslow's hierarchy of

needs. For example, Mill and Morrison (1985) show how Maslow's framework ties in with travel motivations by considering travel as a need. Similarly, Dann's (1977) tourism motivation factors can be linked to Maslow's list of needs (Pizam & Mansfeld, 2000). Dann (1977) proposes two factors in travel decision-making: the push factors and the pull factors. This chapter allocates a separate section to discussing Dann's push and pull theory later. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) employ Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a model to explain travel motivations from travelers' experiences. These researchers gather data via a self-report survey consisting of open-ended questions. The findings of Pearce and Caltabiano's (1983) study fit nicely within Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Fodness, 1994).

2.2.2 Defining Motivation

As a concept obtained from psychology, motivation is frequently defined as an inner state (force) which causes people to take particular types of action in order to satisfy their internal socio-psychological needs and to respond to the external factors that surround them (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Moutinho, 2000). Scholars also describe motivation as the desire to satisfy both the psychological and physiological needs of individuals (Berkman, Lindquist, & Sirgy, 1997). In this instance, human needs thus establish the fundamental ground for understanding travel motivations and tourists. Mill and Morrison (2002) justify that travel motivation occurs when an individual is made aware of a deficiency in a need. Their argument can also be referred to Maslow's (1954) hierarchical framework of needs: The behavior of an individual is a result of

conscious or unconscious needs, which generate the motivation for this behavior. In a similar setting, Iso-Ahola (1982) defines motivation as "an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behavior, implying a clear motivation-behavior relationship" (p. 130). The above definitions support the argument that motivation both guides and determines the direction of people's behavior.

Some scholars also link motivation to satisfaction (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Correia, do Valle, & Moço, 2007; Dann, 1977; Jang & Cai, 2002; Jang & Wu, 2006; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Mill & Morrison, 1985; Moutinho, 1987). Dann (1977), also supported by Iso-Ahola (1982), argues that motivation should not be viewed in isolation of satisfaction. Social psychologists agree that "a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behavior" (Murray, 1964, p. 7). This internal factor can thus be associated with the awareness of future satisfaction (Iso-Ahola, 1982). According to this definition, individuals generate and stimulate motives when they think of particular activities that they can do in the future, with the assumption that these activities, e.g., visiting relatives or playing blackjack in Las Vegas, will possibly produce satisfaction (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Zhang, 2009).

Kim (2007) considers motivation to be a starting point /catalyst or foundation for all actions and thus recognizes motivation as a very important factor in understanding and explaining travelers' behaviors in a tourism setting. Similarly, O'Leary and Deegan (2005) define tourist motivation as the combination of needs and desires to get away from the tourist's usual environment that affect this tourist's tendency to travel. Accordingly, although

many factors influence tourist behavior, scholars consider motivation to be a vital factor and force in answering why tourists behave in certain ways. Huang and Hsu (2009) propose that motivation is comprised of the interaction between motive and the situation leading to action. This definition emphasizes that interactions between their motives and the situations with which they are dealing determine individuals' behaviors.

Moutinho (1987) states that "travel motivations are often the result of a complex of motives set, including the fun and excitement of planning and preparing for a trip. This means that the pleasure of travel is not restricted to the period of time spent on the trip. During pre and post-vacation stages there may be pleasure in talking about it, making arrangements related to it, reporting the experience to friends afterwards, etc." (p. 18). This definition of motivation emphasizes that travel motivations are greatly determined by social factors and are linked to the need for optimal arousal, stability, and novelty. Moutinho (1987) further suggests that vacations reduce the tension created by daily life stresses, thus placing this stress reduction as a significant underlying factor explaining the desires and expectations of a vacation. In agreement with this claim, Fodness (1994) describes motivation as the "driving force behind all behavior." A motivated individual acts on psychological or physiological stimuli in order to satisfy a felt need or attain an anticipated goal (Fodness, 1994; Gnoth, 1997; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Sirakaya, Uysal, & Yoshioka, 2003).

Tourism literature frequently uses motivation and motive interchangeably because of their linguistic similarity (Li & Cai, 2012). However, several scholars in

psychology argue that the terms indicate different concepts relating to human behavior. For instance, each motive can trigger many different types of behavior, or motivations, as much as each behavior can be triggered by a range of motives (Murray, 1964). Therefore, it is essential to differentiate between motive and motivation. Gnoth (1997) argues that studies that focus on motives should pursue a deeper understanding of the factors that energize (motivate) people toward certain activities, while research into motivation should focus on emphasizing the distinct situational parameters in which these motives are expressed.

Research in psychology indicates that in general “a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behavior” (Murray, 1964, p. 7). In contrast, these same scholars also argue that motivation contains the results of situation–person interactions (Heckhausen, 1989). Motivation is a collective term for the processes and forces linking to the awareness that the selection and implementation of certain types of behavior can lead to expected outcomes (Li & Cai, 2012). Hence, motivation has a broader meaning than motive. Motivation is comprised of the observed aim and directedness of behavior, the launch and accomplishment of a behavior, the resumption of a form of behavior after an interruption, the transition to a new behavioral sequence, and the conflict between various behavioral goals and their resolution (Heckhausen, 1989; Li & Cai, 2012). Therefore, motivation should be used to signify person–situation interactions and processes in which a person is stimulated by a given

(or pursued) condition and the desirable or undesirable potential expectations of the consequences occurring from this individual's actions (Li & Cai, 2012).

2.2.3 Theories of Travel Motivation

Travel motivation has always been considered the central part of the dynamic process of tourist behavior and has drawn great attention from tourism research since the 1960s. Scholars have developed a number of motivation theories to guide the examination of this concept, such as allocentric-psychocentric (Plog, 1974), push-pull (Dann, 1977), escape seeking (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991), and travel career ladder (Pearce & Lee, 2005) models. Table 2.1 illustrates various travel motivation theories.

2.2.3.1 Plog's Allocentrism-Psychocentrism Model

In the 1960s, 16 travel companies requested Stanley Plog to verify why a substantial percentage of the American population at the time did not fly and what could be done to turn more non-flyers into flyers. Plog's (1974) in-depth, one-on-one interviews with these non-flyers conclude that these individuals have several common personality types:

- territory boundness – a tendency to have traveled less throughout their lifetime;
- generalized anxieties – a strong feeling of insecurity in daily life; and
- a sense of powerlessness – inability to control their fortunes and misfortunes throughout their lifetimes.

Plog classifies this set of personality types as “psychocentrism” and so labels these non-flyers as “psychocentrics.” In 2001, Plog's revision of this model

re-labels “psychocentrics” as “dependables” and “allocentrics” as “venturers.”

Plog’s model distributes travelers’ personality types along a scale that estimates a normally distributed curve. Plog divides the scale into five segments/types. At one edge, Plog defines psychocentric travelers as “self-inhibited, nervous, and non-adventuresome,” favoring the “familiar” in holiday travel destinations. At the other extreme of the scale are the outgoing and self-confident allocentrics, who “want to see and do new things, and to explore the world” (Plog, 1974). In the middle, Plog categorizes the greater part of travelers as mid-centric, near-psychocentric, or near-allocentric travelers. Mid-centric travelers lean in neither the tried-and-true direction of the psychocentrics nor the variety-seeking direction of the allocentrics (Litvin, 2006; Plog, 1974).

Plog’s model has drawn great interest from tourism literature over the years. Tourism research frequently cites his theory, most likely due to its simplicity (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Litvin, 2006). In addition, the model may be extensively used because of its ability to explain why tourist destinations rise and fall in popularity (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Concurrently, however, many scholars criticize and question the model regarding its applicability to real-world situations. For example, Smith (1990) argues that Plog’s model neither explains tourists’ motivations nor predicts tourists’ behavior. Andreu, Kozak, Avci, & Cifter (2006) criticize Plog’s model because travelers often travel with dissimilar motivations at different times. For instance, some tourists may take a winter skiing break in a destination appealing to allocentric travelers, while their main holiday is to a psychocentric destination. Similarly, Lowyck, Van Langenhove, and Bollaert

(1993) criticize Plog's model by arguing that people are complex, and it may not be possible to place travelers in a single simple category. In addition, Plog designed this theory based on the activities of American citizens, and it may not work well beyond this sample (Litvin, 2006). Litvin (2006) too revisits Plog's model to validate it but concludes that the model proves ineffective as a predictor of travel behavior (Litvin, 2006).

2.2.3.2 Travel Career Ladder (TCL)

Pearce (1988; 1991; 1993), Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), Moscardo and Pearce (1986), and Pearce and Lee (2005) together established the travel career ladder (TCL) as a motivation theory, using Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. The TCL explains tourist motivation as consisting of five different levels: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and self-actualization/fulfilment needs (Pearce & Lee, 2005). Following Maslow's theory, the needs of tourists are seen as ordered into a ladder, with relaxation needs at the lowest level and these followed in order by safety/security needs, relationships needs, self-esteem and development needs, and finally, at the highest level, fulfilment needs. However, while Pearce and Lee (2005) do not believe that tourists have only a single level of travel motivation, they propose that one set of needs in the ladder levels may be dominant.

Pearce suggests that as individuals' travel experience grows, they climb the hierarchy of human needs. Pearce and Lee's (2005) study examines the relationship between patterns of travel motivation and travel experience. The findings of the interviews and the survey that the researchers conduct show that

the key motivations of relatively more experienced travelers and relatively less experienced travelers are different. Overall, having fun and experiencing something different are two important factors that drive people to travel (Pearce & Lee, 2005). Nevertheless, the study does not provide much empirical evidence to support the primary assumptions and concept development of the TCL theory (Huang, 2007; Ryan, 1998).

2.2.3.3 The Theory of Escaping and Seeking

Iso-Ahola developed escape-seeking theory in 1982. Iso-Ahola's escape-seeking theory and the model of push and pull factors are interconnected (Crompton & McKay, 1997). Escape-seeking travel motivation theory involves two motivational forces of travel activity: escaping and seeking. Escaping is "the desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through travel in a contrasting (new or old) environment" (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 261). These components share similar classifications to those proposed by Dann (1977; 1981) and Crompton (1979) concerning the push (escape) and pull (seeking) factors. These earlier pull conceptualizations consider pulls to be attractions rather than social-psychological needs, for instance, "the specific attractions of the destination which induces the traveler to go there... (e.g., sunshine, relaxed tempo, friendly natives, etc.)" (Dann, 1981, p. 191). Yet the Iso-Ahola model modifies this former model by constructing the pull factor in terms of intrinsic benefits.

Review of the related literature reveals very few papers that explicitly test the psychometric scale for Iso-Ahola's four dimensional motivation framework (e.g., Norman & Carlson, 1999; Sirakaya, Uysal, & Yoshioka, 2003; Snepenger,

King, Marshall, & Uysal, 2006). One disadvantage of this theory is that it does not clarify why people escape from their personal and interpersonal social worlds. Snepenger et al. (2006) model the escape-seeking theory in the tourism context and conclude that tourism behavior generally involves multiple motives. The social-psychological states of tourists contain four dimensions: personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal seeking, and interpersonal escape (Snepenger et al. 2006). Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) base this theory mainly on the studies of leisure motivation; empirical support from tourism research is still lacking. In addition, Snepenger et al. (2006) conclude that Iso-Ahola's theory fails to detect a relationship between the number of domestic and international vacations and tourism motivations among the study participants.

2.2.3.4 The Theory of Push and Pull Motivations

The sign-gestalt paradigm, better known as the "Push-Pull factor" compendium theory by Tolman (1959) is one of the distinguished models used in tourism literature to understand tourists travel motivations. The Push and Pull model of motivation is later enhanced by Dann in 1977. This theory demonstrates that people travel because they are pushed by internal motivations and pulled by external influences regarding their destinations. More specifically, this theory emphasizes that people travel because they are pushed by factors that include cognitive processes and socio-psychological motivations (Chon, 1989).

Examples of push factors include the desire for escape, the desire for novelty, the desire for adventure, dream fulfillment, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, and prestige and socialization (Chon, 1989; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Uysal & Jurowski,

1994). In contrast, pull factors (also known as destination attributes) include tangible and intangible characteristics of a specific destination that pull individuals for particular travel occasions. Examples of these attributes include food, people, natural attractions, historical sites, recreation facilities, religious sites, gaming, safety, and destination image (Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997; Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

After Dann's (1977) study, Crompton (1979) classifies travel motivations into nine specific motivations for travel. He labels seven of them as socio-psychological (push) factors (escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction) and two of them as cultural (pull) factors (novelty and education). Later on, Uysal and Jurowski (1994) classify travel motivations into internal motivators and external motivators. Internal motivators (push motivations) include the desire for escape, relaxation, rest, prestige, adventure, health and fitness, and social interaction. External motivators (pull motivations) include tangible resources (beaches, weather, exotic food, recreational activities, and cultural attractions) and travelers' perceptions and expectations (novelty, shopping, benefit expectations, and marketing image). Many other researchers follow this notion of push and pull categorization, such as Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) and Reisinger and Mavondo (2002).

Tourism literature acknowledges the push and pull theory as (1) a useful and valuable model for explaining and describing travel motivations, (2) an

appropriate theory that can be used to understand travel motivations for people from both Eastern and Western cultures, and (3) a useful tool that can assist in determining when and where to travel (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Goossens, 2000; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hsu, Cai, & Wong, 2007; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Meng, Tepanon, & Uysal, 2008; Rittichainuwat, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015).

Dann (1981) bases the push and pull travel motivations model on the notion that tourists go on vacation to satisfy physical and social needs. These needs push them away from home (push factors), and at the same time, attractive attributes of the destination pull them toward the destination (pull factors) (Alsawafi, 2013; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Correia, Valle & Moço, 2007; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Mehmetoglu, Dann, & Larsen, 2001; Sellick, 2004; Rittichainuwat, 2007; Yun & Lehto, 2009). However, awareness of this need and of the destinations attributes is not of much use when examining them separately. The interaction between the internal push factors, that represent socio-psychological motives, and external pull factors, that represent destination attributes, plays a crucial role in the tourist's decision-making process. In other words, tourists take vacations because they need to simultaneously satisfy those needs that push them away from home and those that pull them to experience the attributes and images of a destination (Correia et al., 2007; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Jang et al. 2009; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Mehmetoglu et al., 2001; Sellick, 2004; Sangpikul, 2008; Rittichainuwat, 2007; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongkhonvanit, 2008). Hence, push factors are helpful for explaining the

motivation to take a vacation, while pull factors are useful in understanding the tourists' choice of a destination (Goossens, 2000; Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2009; Jang & Cai, 2002; Klenosky, 2002). Correspondingly, many destination marketers strive to offer a variety of products and services that may match and satisfy tourists' complex needs (Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Hsu et al., 2009; Jönsson & Devonish, 2008; Kim, Borges, & Chon, 2006; Kim, 2007).

Some tourism researchers examine push and pull motivational factors jointly in order to provide knowledge to help destination marketers match the attributes of their destinations (pull factors) with the socio-psychological motivations (push factors) of potential travelers (e.g., Alsawafi, 2013).

Understanding the relationship between the push and pull factors is very important in gaining a deeper understanding of travel motivations and their link to destination choice. Crompton (1979) debates that push factors may be helpful not only because they explain why people travel abroad, but also because they have the potential to direct these people to specific destinations. In regards to pull factors, Dann (1981) argues that destination attributes strengthen the influence of push motivations and hence lead tourists to make travel decisions (the behavior). Therefore, destination marketers must detect both push and pull travel motivations and recognize the relationship between motivations and destination choice decision in order to determine the most fitting combination of push and pull factors for a tourism product package (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996).

2.2.4 Motivation and Behavioral Intention to Travel

Several attitude and consumer behavior research studies posit the relationship between motivation and behavioral intention; however, few provide comprehensive insight into this relationship in the travel context (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Nyaupane et al., 2010). Ajzen (1991) claims that intention captures the motivational factors that influence behavior and determines how hard people are willing to try or how much effort they use with regard to a certain behavior. This indicates that motivation is related to behavioral intention. Scholars have found that tourists' motivations are significant factors in the destination selection process (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Nyaupane et al., 2010; Phillips & Jang, 2008). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) empirically demonstrates that travel motivation is a predictor of visit intention among potential tourists to four Mediterranean countries. Baloglu and McCleary's (1999) findings reveal that two out of three motivational factors (escape and prestige) have a statistically significant but not quite substantive direct effect on visit intention (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Huang and Hsu (2009) also empirically test the relationship between motivations to revisit and intention to revisit in the context of Chinese outbound tourists to Hong Kong. Their results reveal that only the shopping dimension of motivation has a significant influence on revisit intention (Huang & Hsu, 2009).

Scholars also study travel motivations in relation to the decision-making process, market segmentation, and destination choice. Mansfeld (1992) examines the role of motivation in comprehending travel behavior and states

that, once motivated to travel, people gather information on their planned trips. Mansfeld (1992) skips the formation of travel intention in the travel decision-making process but conclusively agrees that travel motivation is a key stage that triggers travel decisions before actual travel can occur. Bieger and Laesser (2002) argue that the clustering of motivations is vital for market segmentation. Bieger and Laesser's (2002) study further shows that destination choices are related to motivation because potential tourists draw upon pull factors when they think of certain destinations and/or activities offered by these destinations. Similarly, Jang and Cai (2002) argue a strong relationship between motivation and destination choice, showing that not only pull factors, but also push factors are related to destination choice. They also indicate that capitalizing on destinations' strengths in push and pull motivations renders a competitive advantage in the travel industry. Based on these findings, the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 1: Travel motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher motivations lead to higher intentions.

2.2.5 Motivation and Attitudes

Numerous studies examine changes in tourists' attitudes as a result of the interaction between tourists and hosts. However, tourism literature has not much explored how attitudes are formed and what factors play important roles in forming attitudes toward certain destinations (Nyaupane, Teye, & Paris, 2008). This understanding is even more lacking with respect to the diversity of the tourists who participate annually in various forms of travel (Nyaupane et al.,

2010). Although several studies assert that attitude positively influences intention to travel (e.g., Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Lee, Graefe, & Li, 2007; Morosan & Jeong, 2008), scholars rarely examine other factors that might influence this relationship. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) identify the conditions necessary to arouse or modify an attitude and posit that such conditions vary in accordance with the motivational basis of the attitude. Although Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) do not clearly suggest a causal relationship, their theory proposes that attitude follows motivation and that the latter may influence the former (Hsu et al., 2009).

The investigation of the relationship between travel motivation and attitude is very limited (e.g., Hsu et al., 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ragheb & Tate, 1993; Sparks, 2007). In addition, the nature of the relationship between the two constructs continues to be ambiguous, as the previous research reports findings that are inconsistent and inconclusive. Tourists' general evaluations of a destination are most likely to be crucial to any intention to visit the destination. Attitudes toward visiting a destination are thus determined by significant attributes of the destination. Accordingly, as proposed by the TPB, particular destination attributes guide intended behavior. Firstly, evaluation of the number of destination characteristics influences attitude and, in turn, influences intention to engage in travel behavior (Sparks & Pan, 2009). Lam and Hsu (2004; 2006) perform two studies with 353 mainland Chinese (2004) and 480 Taiwanese (2006) tourists to predict travel behaviors and the intention of destination selection, and they do so by including motivation factors. Through the TPB, Lam and Hsu reveal that tourists' interactions with both push and pull

motivational factors are a cause of their affective dimension of attitude toward visiting Hong Kong. Therefore, the researcher proposes the following:

Proposition 2: Travel motivation is a predictor for attitudes toward gaming destinations. Individuals with a higher intensity of travel motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.

2.3 The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

2.3.1 From the TRA to the TPB

Since Wicker (1969) evaluated studies examining the relationship between attitude and behavior, social psychologists have attempted to enhance the predictive power of attitudes (Armitage & Conner, 2001). The main approach within this area of study is to generate integrated theories of behavior, including additional predictors of behavior such as social norms and intention (Olson & Zanna, 1993; Armitage & Conner, 2001). Perhaps the most widely examined models are the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen, 1991). The TPB is basically an extension of the TRA and is comprised of constructs of control belief and perceived behavioral control, as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Intention is a fundamental concept to the TRA. Ajzen (1985) defines intention as an individual's motivation and willingness to exert an effort to perform a particular behavior. The TRA suggests that most human behaviors are predictable, as they are based on intention, since such behaviors are volitional and under the control of this intention (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In other words,

individuals in their decision processes have a high level of volitional control and, accordingly, make reasoned choices among alternatives. The TRA has proven to have a strong predictive power and thus has been extensively used as a framework to predict behavioral intention and behaviors in the areas of social psychology, sociology, education, marketing, and consumer behaviors (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lee, 2005; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). The TRA proposes that behavioral intention is a function of two factors: namely, attitude toward performing the behavior and subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The TPB is an extension of the TRA (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). The main distinction between the two theories is that the TPB incorporates an additional construct named perceived behavioral control as a predictor of behavioral intention (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

The TPB overcomes the major limitations of the TRA, a purely volitional control, by involving a belief construct that is related to the control of necessary resources, abilities, and opportunities to perform a particular behavior (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992). Some scholars criticize the suitability of the TRA because some of individuals' behaviors are volitional while others are non-volitional (Ajzen, 1985; Han et al., 2010; Park, 2003). In such contexts/settings, the TRA is not adequate to predict a person's intention and behavior. For example, although a potential tourist has a positive attitude and a positive perception, via significant others, toward traveling to Las Vegas, the potential tourist cannot travel to this destination if he/she cannot afford the travel costs (e.g., transportation and

lodging). In such situations, the TPB would be more suitable in examining the potential tourist's behavior. According to Ajzen and Driver (1992), the TPB recognizes that individuals' leisure behavior is determined by their behavioral intention. As a result, this intention is affected by (1) individuals' attitudes, (2) the significance of the subjective norm in which they are situated, and (3) individuals' beliefs regarding whether the task at hand is easy. Tourists' decision-making processes may be comprised of many non-volitional components that may diminish their ability/opportunity to travel to a gaming destination. Hence, this dissertation chooses the TPB as its conceptual framework since this theory offers a well-defined structure that guides the investigation of destination choice decisions by concurrently taking into account volitional and non-volitional elements.

2.3.2 The TPB in Tourism Literature

Many different contexts have validated the usefulness of the TPB in explaining a range of behaviors (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Han, 2015; Han & Kim, 2010; Han et al., 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Oh & Hsu, 2001). Due to its efficacy in predicting intention and behavior, scholars have mainly used the TPB in a number of hospitality and tourism situations, e.g., with gambling behavior (Oh & Hsu, 2001), leisure participation (Ajzen & Driver, 1992), convention participation (Lee & Back, 2009), international travel (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006), intention to purchase travel online (Amaro & Duarte, 2015), sustainable food consumption among young adults (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008), communication of negative intention via word-of-

mouth (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006), planned leisure behavior and pet attachment (Chen, Hung, & Peng, 2011), staying in green hotels (Chen & Peng, 2012), and, recently, pro-environmental behavior in a hotel context (Han & Kim, 2010; Han et al., 2010; Han, 2015).

In a context similar to this dissertation's, Lam and Hsu (2004; 2006) examine the applicability of the TPB in predicting travel behavior. Lam and Hsu (2004) empirically test the fit of the TPB with 328 potential tourists traveling from mainland China to Hong Kong. Results show that data fit the TPB model moderately well and explain respondents' traveling intention. The study finds attitude, perceived behavioral control, and past behavior to be related to the study participants' travel intention to visit Hong Kong. This study finds subjective norms are not related to intention. The main theoretical contribution of Lam and Hsu's (2004) study is the addition of the past behavior construct to the TPB. Although their study shows a significant relationship between past behavior and intention to travel, the researchers find the correlation between the two variables to be weak. This lacking implies that more studies are required to investigate past behavior in other settings.

Subsequently, Lam and Hsu (2006) undertake another study to examine the suitability of the core constructs of the TPB (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) to the behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination with the addition of past behavior. By using a sample of 299 potential Taiwanese tourists traveling to Hong Kong, the study indicates that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control predict the behavioral intention of

choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination. Lam and Hsu (2006) contradict their earlier attempt, for this latter study demonstrates that subjective norms have the greatest direct effect on the behavioral intention of visiting Hong Kong. Lam and Hsu (2006) specifically find travel agency, close friends, and family to be important social influences to Taiwanese travelers'. In a similar Asian context, Sparks and Pan (2009) investigate potential Chinese outbound tourists' values in terms of destination attributes, as well as their attitudes toward international travel, by using a survey developed based on the TPB. This study identifies five destination attributes as important. In terms of predicting the intention to travel, subjective norms and perceived levels of personal control constraints are the most influential, based on the TPB.

Sparks (2007) conducts a large cross-sectional survey within Australia to investigate potential wine tourists' intention to take a wine-based vacation. Sparks (2007) predicts tourists' intention based on the TPB. This study reveals that perceived control, normative influences, past attitudes, wine/food involvement, and three wine attitudinal factors predict tourists' intention to take a wine vacation. Quintal, Lee, and Soutar (2010) employ the TPB to test the impacts of risk and uncertainty on travel decision-making by using a sample of tourists from South Korea, China, and Japan who visit Australia. Findings of this study by Quintal et al. (2010) show that perceived risk and uncertainty are separate constructs that have another unique impact on Ajzen's original TPB. The analysis also suggests that both subjective norms and perceived behavioral control are significant predictors of intention to visit Australia. Similarly to Lam

and Hsu's (2006), the study by Quintal et al. (2010) indicates that important referents show an even greater influence than in previous studies, and subjective norms, aside from predicting intention, also affect both attitudes and perceived behavioral control.

From the above synthesis of use of the TPB in tourism literature, we arrive at three major conclusions: (1) Studies that use the TPB framework to understand travelers' destination choices are scarce at best; (2) The limited number of travel studies using the TPB in tourism literature only involve Asian samples, and thus more studies must generalize the applicability of proposed models to other samples and cultures. Ajzen (1991) suggests that the application of the TPB to other research subjects will extend and improve the theory; and (3) Researchers should include a broader variety of variables to ensure the comprehensiveness of the predictive model (Lam & Hsu, 2004).

As tourism and hospitality studies have used the TPB to predict various behaviors since the middle of the last decade, these studies have increased the predictive power of this theory by adding more relevant constructs. For example, Sparks (2007) adds personal development, destination experience, core wine experience, and food and wine involvement to the TPB. Sparks and Pan (2009) add travel constraints and the use of information sources. Lam and Hsu (2006) add past behavior constructs. Li and Cai (2012) examine internal and external values as predictors for travel motivations and behavioral intention. Chen and Peng (2012) add the knowledge construct for examining tourists' staying

behaviors. Chen, Hung, and Peng (2011) add the attachment construct in their examination of individuals' planned leisure behavior.

Yet despite all these additions, individuals' decisions are typically influenced by a range of personal, social, market, economic, religious, and cultural factors (Xu, Morgan, & Song, 2009). Specifically, the literature suggests that many factors, such as religiosity, stress, self-efficacy, personality traits, and demographic characteristics, contribute to a general understanding of tourists' travel decision-making. This study focuses on examining religiosity's role alongside travel motivations (push and pull factors), travel constraints, self-efficacy, and the primary constructs of the TPB. The inclusion of these constructs accounts for much potential variation. The following section discusses the dependent variable (intention) of the TPB, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The final section discusses travel constraints, constraints negotiation, and self-efficacy and religiosity, as additional predictors to the TPB.

2.3.3 Constructs of the TPB

2.3.3.1 Behavioral Intention

Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) consider intention a central component in the theory of planned behavior and one that occurs before the actual behavior. They claim that an individual performs an actual behavior when an opportunity arises; if individuals have a stronger intention to perform a behavior, then they will be more likely to actually perform this behavior. Similarly, Swan and Tarwick (1981) defines behavioral intention as an individual's anticipated or planned future

behavior. The intention concept represents a person's expectations about a specific behavior in a given setting and can be operationalized as the likelihood to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This dissertation follows Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) definitions and defines behavioral intention as a potential Muslim traveler's anticipation of a future trip to a gaming destination for leisure or vacation purposes.

According to the TPB, behavioral intention to act in a certain way is the immediate determinant of behavior (Ajzen, 1985). More precisely, behavioral intention is an indication of a person's readiness to perform a particular behavior (Ajzen, 2011). Ajzen (2011) mentions that this readiness to act can be operationalized by asking whether people intend to engage in the behavior, expect to engage in the behavior, are planning to engage in the behavior, will try to engage in the behavior, and are willing to engage in the behavior. According to Ajzen, these statements of behavioral readiness are the indicators that best reflect the intention construct. Many disciplines empirically examine the relationship between individuals' intention and their actual actions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). However, most of these studies focuses on behavioral intention rather than on the actual behavior itself. Ajzen (2011) relates this shift in focus to two reasons. Firstly, many different external factors can affect the relationship between the two constructs. Ajzen, secondly, attributes this focus to the assumption that finding individuals' behavioral intention allows researchers to predict their future, actual behaviors.

As the above sections note, within the TPB, researchers assume that perceived behavioral control influences both intention and behavior. Subjective norms and attitudes toward a behavior are the two additional antecedents of intention that are retained from the TRA. Subjective norms refer to a person's perceptions of overall social pressures to perform or not perform a behavior. If people perceive that significant others approve or disapprove of a behavior, they will be more (or less) likely to intend to do it. Attitudes toward a behavior reflect a person's general positive or negative assessment of performing this particular behavior. In general, if individuals have more favorable attitudes toward a behavior, then their intention to perform this behavior will be stronger. Therefore, the researcher proposes the following:

Proposition 3: Tourists' intention to travel to a gaming destination is positively related to their actual behaviors. If individuals have a stronger intention toward traveling to a gaming destination, then they will be more likely to travel to these types of destinations.

2.3.3.2 Attitude

Scholars in various fields have extensively researched attitude since the beginning of the last century (e.g., Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991; Anastasopoulos, 1992; Allport, 1935; Baldwin, 1901; Cohen, 1988; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Galani-Moutafi, 2000; Kearney, 1995; Lee, 2009; MacCannell, 1992; Moutinho, 1987; Sirakaya-Turk, Ekinci, & Kaya, 2007; Thomas & Znaniecki, 1918). Gnoth (1997) finds attitude to be hard to define, as it is multidimensional and longitudinal according to distinct research settings. Allport (1935) summarizes

and analyzes various definitions of attitude. According to Allport, Baldwin (1901) is the first scholar that defines attitude. Baldwin (1901) defines attitude as “readiness for attention or action of a definite sort.” A few years later, Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) become the first to relate the notion of attitude to social behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). However, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argue that attitude alone cannot always completely predict a behavior. They propose that the aggregation of other constructs with attitude could make the prediction of behavior more valid.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), intention is the result of attitudes toward the outcomes of behavior. An attitude is a tendency, formed by knowledge and experience, to react in a consistent way to an object, such as a product, person, issue, or event (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This tendency can be favorable or unfavorable. Similarly, Brenes, Strube, & Storandt (1998) define attitude as “the individual’s positive or negative evaluation of the target behavior.” Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) revise their definition of attitude to “the evaluation of an object, concept, or behavior along a dimension of favor or disfavor, good or bad, like or dislike.” Following this logic, according to Moutinho (1987), in the context of tourism, attitudes are predispositions or feelings toward a vacation destination or service, based on various perceived products’ qualities. Following Ajzen and Fishbein’s (2000) definition, this research defines attitudes as Muslim tourists’ evaluations of travel to gaming destinations along a dimension of favor or disfavor, good or bad, like or dislike. In the travel setting, several studies assert that attitudes positively influence intention to travel (e.g., Amaro & Duarte,

2015; Lee, Qu, & Kim, 2007; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Morosan & Jeong, 2008; Sparks, 2007).

Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) description of attitude implies an evaluation or prediction of consequences (for example, good or bad) or, in other words, a person's subjective probability that executing a behavior will lead to certain consequences. For example, in this dissertation's context, highly religious Muslim tourists could perceive traveling to a gaming destination as committing a sin and/or experiencing forbidden things, including gambling, strip clubs, and so on. When determining whether to perform a specific behavior, a person is likely to assess the benefits and the costs resulting from this behavior (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006).

People tend to possess favorable attitudes when they positively evaluate outcomes and are thus likely to engage in these specific behaviors (Ajzen, 1991; Cheng et al., 2006; Lee, 2005). In other words, individuals' positive or negative attitudes toward certain behaviors strengthen or weaken their intention to perform these behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, I postulate that Muslim tourists' attitudes toward travel to a gaming destination positively influence their intention to travel. In addition, religiosity might play a role in moderating the relationship between attitude and this intention to travel to a gaming destination. Highly religious Muslims will have more unfavorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination than less religious Muslims. Therefore, the researcher propose the following propositions:

Proposition 4: Muslims' attitudes positively influence intention to travel. If individuals exhibit positive attitudes toward gaming destinations, then their intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.

2.3.3.3 Subjective Norms

Subjective norms are the second determinant of behavioral intention in the original TPB. Ajzen (1991) defines subjective norms as “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior” (p. 188). In other words, subjective norms are the perceived opinions and views of significant others who are close/important to individuals and who influence their decision-making (e.g., a spouse, relatives, classmates, close friends, co-workers/colleagues) (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Park, 2000). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) describe subjective norms as “perceptions of significant others' preferences about whether one should engage in a behavior” (p. 171). In other words, subjective norms relate to the possibility of whether significant referents would approve or disapprove of certain behaviors. The vital role of subjective norms as a determinant of behavioral intention is well recognized in different contexts in marketing and consumer behavior (e.g., Baker, Al-Gahtani, & Hubona, 2010; Cheng et al., 2006; East, 2000; Laroche, Bergeron, & Barbaro-Forleo, 2001; Lee, 2005).

The tourism and hospitality literature provides much evidence that subjective norms influence the likelihood of a behavior (Brown, 1999; Han et al., 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Phetvaroon, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Vanucci & Kerstetter, 2001). As previously mentioned, Lam and Hsu (2006) examine the TPB in the context of Taiwanese travelers' intention to visit Hong

Kong. Their study uses a focus group to identify the referent groups that may influence Taiwanese travel decisions. Those referent groups include family, relatives/friends, and travel agents. The study's findings reveal that subjective norms have a direct impact on behavioral intention. Phetvaroon's (2006) study also supports this finding. By using the TPB to examine tourists' travel choices in Phuket, Thailand following a crisis, Phetvaroon (2006) finds that the effect of subjective norms on behavioral intention is the strongest among the TPB constructs. Phetvaroon (2006) also concludes that social pressure influences travel decisions.

One must also relate the strength of subjective norms' influence on behavior to culture. Culture is divided between the West and the East, and we therefore refer to either Western or Eastern culture when discussing social norms. Observing the differences between the two cultures, researchers categorize Western culture as individualistic and Eastern as collectivistic (Cheng & Kwan, 2008; Hofstede, 1980). Those in collectivistic cultures perceive themselves as interconnected and interdependent (Cheng & Kwan, 2008). Collectivistic cultures emphasize collective identity, emotional dependence, and group solidarity (Triandis, 1989). Therefore, collectivistic cultures view individuals in terms of specific relationships to significant others, unlike individualistic cultures, which view individuals as autonomous beings with abstract qualities (Cheng & Kwan, 2008). Most Islamic countries fall under the collectivistic cultural category (whether in the Middle East or Asia, with countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia). Previous research finds that involvement in religious groups can

establish stronger social bonds (Regnerus & Elder, 2003). In Islamic societies, the family unit is more important than the individual, and this makes an Islamic society a collective one (Abd Al Hameed & Al Sheikh, 1978). In a similar context, Ho, Lee, and Hameed (2008) find that the influence of the Muslim community is positively related to engagement in online religious activities.

Using the theory of reasoned action to examine gambling behavior, Oh and Hsu (2001) find subjective social norms to have a direct, positive effect on the behavioral intention to gamble. When examining gamblers' decisions to engage in gambling, they conclude that subjective social norms play a significant role in this process. According to Moutinho (1987), individuals turn to specific groups for criteria for judgment. Any person or group acting as a reference group can thus become a key influence to an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and choices (Moutinho, 1987). This conformation to such influence is a subjective norm. Regarding the impact of family on vacation decision, Moutinho (1987) claims that the family life stage affects individual personality characteristics, desires, attitudes, and values and in turn influences the decision-making process related to travel. Therefore, researchers must understand the important role that subjective norms play generally in behavioral decisions in tourism and more specifically in Muslims' destination choices. Thus, in this dissertation setting, when Muslim tourists' significant others think that traveling to a gaming destination is a proper behavior, their perceived social pressure to visit a gaming destination will increase with their motivation to comply. In following the previous literature (e.g., Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Quintal, Lee,

& Soutar, 2010) and considering the nature of Muslim culture as collectivistic, the researcher proposes that social pressure groups can influence Muslims' decisions regarding intended travel to a gaming destination. Therefore, the researcher puts forth the following:

Proposition 5: Subjective norms positively influence intention to travel. If a subjective norm is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.

2.3.3.4 Perceived Behavioral Control

The TPB posits perceived behavioral control as the third determinant of intention. Perceived behavioral control concerns an individual's belief about the ease or difficulty of performing a behavior. Ajzen (1991) defines perceived behavioral control as the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over the personal or external factors that may facilitate/constrain them from performing a certain behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This concept is comprised of the control beliefs and perceived behavioral control components multiplicatively combined. The proposed relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention/actual behavior is based on two assumptions: (1) an increase in perceived behavioral control will result in an increase in behavioral intention and the probability of performing an act and (2) perceived behavioral control will directly influence behavior to the extent that perceived control reflects actual control (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001). Following this notion, Chiou (1998) defines perceived behavioral control as a person's belief regarding access to the resources and opportunities required to perform a behavior. In

other words, individuals who believe that they do not have enough resources or opportunities are less likely to form a strong intention to perform a behavior, even if they hold positive attitudes toward the behavior and have the support of significant others (Ajzen, 1991).

In a travel behavior context, the resources and opportunities are broader and may include many internal and external factors that may facilitate or inhibit making the travel decision. Crawford and Godbey (1987) suggest a leisure constraints model. Crawford et al. (1991) later expand this model, and since then, it has made a major contribution. The model illustrates that individuals' desire to participate in leisure-related activities is constrained by three aspects: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Intrapersonal constraints are the inhibitors that relate to individuals' psychological conditions, such as lack of interest, health-related problems, and religious considerations. Interpersonal constraints refer to interactions between a potential leisure participant and others. For example, some people are unable to find a friend or family member to travel with them. Structural constraints are external factors restraining potential travelers from their behavioral intention, such as inconvenient transportation, financial issues, and lack of time and opportunities. Therefore, researchers require a more comprehensive list to measure perceived behavioral control constructs in a travel behavioral setting. Recently, some researchers (e.g., Alsawafi, 2013; Chen, Peng, & Hung, 2014; Kazeminia, Del Chiappa, & Jafari, 2015) attempted to modify the leisure constraints scale to make the scale suitable for measuring travel constraints. It is argued that the use of "travel

constraints” and “constraints negotiation,” concepts instead of perceived behavioral control, in order to find out which constraints inhibit travelers from traveling to gaming destinations.

Furthermore, since perceived behavioral control is considered a form of controlling constraint that prevents individuals from actual behaviors (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Goh & Ritchie, 2011), many researchers suggested the use of self-efficacy to examine individual’s ability to control and implement travel constraints negotiation strategies (Hung & Petrick, 2012). In the following sections, the concepts of travel constraints, travel constraints negotiation strategies, and the theory of self-efficacy are discussed.

2.4 Travel Constraints

2.4.1 Defining Travel Constraints

As previously mentioned, leisure constraints research at early stages is driven by the assumption that there is a positive relationship between leisure constraints and leisure nonparticipation. Scholars clearly recognize this notion in early definitions of leisure constraints. For example, Backman and Crompton (1989) define constraints as “those barriers or blockages that inhibit continued use of a recreation service” (Backman & Crompton, 1989, p. 59). Similarly, Jackson (1988) proposes that a constraint to leisure is anything that hinders a person’s ability to (1) participate in leisure activities, (2) spend more time doing so, (3) enjoy the benefits of leisure services, or (4) attain a desired level of satisfaction. Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) view constraints as factors, or a subset of reasons, for not participating in a particular behavior. As leisure

research constantly progresses over the years, researchers make modifications and improvements to the leisure constraints definition (Chen et al., 2014).

Specifically, researchers are able to identify more outcomes of leisure constraints, which enables them to broaden the extent of the leisure constraints definition.

Jackson and Scott (1999) categorize the outcomes of the constraints used in former research into four categories: (1) an inability to maintain participation at, or increase participation to, desired levels; (2) nonparticipation in former activities; (3) nonuse of public leisure services; and (4) the unsatisfactory enjoyment of existing activities. Grounded by these four outcomes of leisure constraints, Nadirova and Jackson (2000) refine the “constraints” definition to be those factors that inhibit continued use of leisure services, cause the inability to participate in a new activity, result in the inability to maintain or increase frequency of participation, and/or lead to negative impacts on the quality of a leisure experience.

2.4.2 Review of Leisure and Travel Constraints Research

Over the past three decades, research on leisure constraints has evolved as a distinct sub-field of study within leisure studies. Leisure constraints started with a few recognized studies that were published in the early 1980s (e.g., Boothby, Tungatt, & Townsend, 1981; Buchanan & Allen, 1985; Goodale & Witt, 1989; Jackson & Searle, 1985). However, Goodale and Witt (1989) stated that the roots of the leisure constraints field can be traced back over a much longer time-period, at least to the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission

studies of the early 1960s and even to the origins of the North American parks and recreation movement in the nineteenth century (Goodale & Witt, 1989; Hinch, Jackson, Hudson, & Walker, 2005). Since the mid-1980s, constraints research has considerably developed and changed conceptually. In this regard, Jackson and Scott (1999) categorize constraints studies into four main stages: (1) pre-barrier stage, (2) experimental stage, (3) assumption-driven stage, and (4) theory-driven stage. In the first stage, scholars make assumptions about the cause of nonparticipation in recreation. As an example, nonparticipation often happens because of insufficient services (Jackson & Scott, 1999).

In the second stage, researchers offer answers to particular problems. In other words, leisure research focuses on particular constraints, e.g., a lack of services' effect on nonparticipation (Jackson & Scott, 1999). In the third stage, leisure constraints studies are guided by two main assumptions: (1) Constraints operate only as hurdles to participation after the preference for a leisure activity is formed. Specifically, only structural or intervening constraints affect the participation decision; and (2) There is a positive relationship between constraints and the level of leisure nonparticipation (Shaw, Bonen, & McCabe, 1991), which indicates that at the presence of constraints, a person will not participate in an activity (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007).

According to Jackson and Scott (1999), in the fourth stage, leisure constraints research is more theory-driven. At this stage, researchers expand the results of constraints, use more sophisticated statistical tools, and develop theories (Jackson & Scott, 1999). In addition, leisure researchers identify

domains of constraints and classify constraints items into them (Kazeminia et al., 2015). Researchers also introduce the concept of constraints negotiation strategies during this stage. Constraints negotiation proposes that having a constraint does not necessarily mean nonparticipation. This concept assists researchers in explaining why some individuals participate in leisure activities despite having several constraints. Early constraints research provides the primary knowledge that has encouraged scholars since the end of the last century to develop better methods to assist in understanding travel and leisure behavior (Hung & Petrick, 2010).

Over the last years, researchers have developed and changed several different aspects, such as the role of constraints in shaping tourists' behavior and explaining this behavior (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Huston & Ashmore, 1986; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Iso-Ahola, 1989; Jackson, 1988; Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993; Kazeminia et al., 2015; Moutinho, 1987), determining their travel decisions (Hsu & Kang, 2009; Lepp & Gibson, 2003), leading their travel decisions, explaining nonparticipation in leisure travel (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007), influencing their travel motivations (Carroll & Alexandris, 1997; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Iso-Ahola, 1989), facilitating or inhibiting their leisure participation (Daniels, Rodgers, & Wiggins, 2005; Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009), affecting their satisfaction, and forming the destination image (Chen et al., 2013).

Daniels et al. (2005) and Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2009) highlight the necessity for tourism marketers to identify the travel and leisure constraints that

potential travel segments face. This identification is necessary in order to overcome these constraints and propose relevant negotiation strategies that can be implemented to increase the participation of these groups in tourism and leisure activities. Similarly, Jackson (2000) suggests that examining travel and leisure constraints is beneficial for both academicians and practitioners in understanding elements that affect travel participation. Thus, in this section, the researcher provides a synthesis of the literature of the travel constraints concept. Additionally, the researcher analyzes previous travel constraints studies and links them to this dissertation's objectives.

2.4.3 Conceptual Models of Travel Constraints

Researchers develop leisure constraints frameworks in order to provide understanding and to explain this phenomenon (e.g., Crawford et al., 1991; Iso-Ahola & Mannell, 1985; Jackson & Dunn, 1988; Jackson & Searle, 1985). Scholars in this field have made some notable contributions to theorizing travel and leisure constraints to date. The leisure constraints literature highlights at least three major contributions to conceptualizing constraints. First, Jackson and Searle (1985) propose a model that considers recreation behavior to be a process of decision-making. In their model, Jackson and Searle (1985) suggested that activities are first strained by blocking barriers. If no blocking barriers exist, activity selections can then be assessed with hindering barriers. Blocking barriers include internal and external barriers, lack of interest, and lack of awareness of an activity. Inhibiting barriers include only internal and external barriers. One of Jackson and Searle's (1985) model's features is the inclusion of

the psychological barrier, lack of interest. Later research interprets the psychological barrier as an intrapersonal constraint (Chen et al., 2014). However, two major limitations of this model include (1) its difficulty to implement (Jackson & Searle, 1985) and (2) its remaining basis on the assumption that nonparticipation must result when a barrier is present in the decision-making process (Kazeminia et al., 2015; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). At the presence of a barrier, this model ignores other potential outcomes.

A few years later, Jackson and Dunn (1988) propose another model, within the complete structure of leisure decision-making that provides a link between participation, nonparticipation, ceasing participation, and demand. This model illustrates the interconnection between participation, nonparticipation, and demand (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). Following Jackson and Searle's (1985) model, the researchers claim that individuals can be interested or uninterested in a leisure activity even if they are nonparticipants. This model groups nonparticipants who are interested but are unable to participate in a leisure activity under the latent demand classification. The model implies that those current nonparticipants may become participants after the removal of the barrier to leisure participation (Jackson & Dunn, 1988; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000).

Crawford and Godbey (1987) suggested the most extensively adopted leisure constraints model, and Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) later refine this model. Crawford and Godbey (1987) theorize that leisure constraints can be classified into three hierarchically organized categories: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, and (3) structural constraints. Intrapersonal constraints are

psychological states comprised of personality, interest, stress, religiosity, and attitude toward leisure. Interpersonal constraints concern the relationship between a potential leisure participant and reference groups, e.g., the unavailability of family and/or friends, as this lack prevents a person from participating in activities that requires partner(s). The structural constraints dimension includes external factors in the environment, such as a lack of facilities, inconvenient transportation, time, money, and bad weather, all of which can disturb and frustrate potential leisure participants. Figure 2.2 describes the hierarchical model of leisure constraints.

Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey's (1991) model also proposes that constraints are hierarchical in nature. At the beginning, a person will encounter intrapersonal constraints that must be negotiated, followed by interpersonal and then by structural constraints (Crawford et al., 1991). According to the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, individuals who are constrained by intrapersonal reasons are prevented from facing higher order constraints. Therefore, Crawford et al. (1991) term intrapersonal constraints as proximal and structural constraints as distant. Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey's hierarchical model makes a significant contribution and has been tested in numerous contexts and cultures. Raymore, Godbey, Crawford & von Eye (1993) first empirically tested the model with 363 twelfth graders. Their study revealed that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints occur in a hierarchical order. However, some later studies (e.g., Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh, & Eklund, 1999) do not support this notion of hierarchical order.

This disagreement about the efficacy of the model implies that the hierarchy might depend on other factors, such as the population studied and the types of leisure activities (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). However, the development of leisure constraints as a multi-dimensional construct has helped many researchers in analyzing and understanding constraints in a more systematic and efficient way.

2.4.4 Constraints to Travel

Leisure and tourism researchers now widely accept the notion that constraints have a significant effect on the decision-making process in general and on travel and leisure participation in particular (Alsawafi, 2013; Jackson, 1988; Wade, 1985). In this regard, Crompton, Jackson, and Witt (2005) state that participation in tourist activities is possibly impeded, prevented, or limited, dependent on the strength of motivation for participation and the level of constraints conveyed by people.

Even though scholars generally develop the leisure constraints model to understand individuals' constraints when participating in leisure activities, some researchers also examine its applicability in travel behavior contexts. For example, Goodale and Witt (1989) employ leisure constraints' study findings to tourism, showing how the leisure constraints model may be relevant to destination marketing. Several subsequent tourism studies also support the leisure constraints model (e.g., Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Kazeminia et al., 2015; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). For example, Fleischer and Pizam (2002) report in their study of Israeli senior

citizens that the constraints to taking vacations are very homogeneous across various age subgroups. In addition, Fleischer and Pizam (2002) state that the major relevant factors to the length of vacations are increased leisure time after retirement, discretionary money, and deteriorating health. They conclude that their study findings support previous leisure constraints literature. Their findings are consistent with other studies (e.g., McGuire, 1984; McGuire, Dottavio, & O'Leary, 1986) dealing with the leisure constraints of American senior citizens.

Gilbert and Hudson's (2000) research constraints include both nonparticipants and participants in skiing. Their study reveals contradictory findings between the qualitative and quantitative results. The quantitative study indicates that nonparticipants report higher levels of all types of constraints. In contrast, in-depth interviews and analysis reveal that non-skiers are mainly constrained by personal fears about the activity, while skiers are more constrained by a lack of time and discretionary money. Most notably, however, their research does show the efficacy of using the leisure constraints model to a particular tourism activity.

More recently, Nyaupane et al. (2004) employ Crawford and Godbey's (1987) three-dimensional model of leisure constraints to discover the factors that hinder nature-based tourism fans from participating in rafting, canoeing, and horseback riding. The sample of their study consists of 354 nature fans from several US states who display an interest in nature tourism but have not participated in the chosen activities during the last two years. The overall findings

of their study support the proposed model, but the authors also conclude that the structural constraints dimension is more complex than expected.

Hudson and Gilbert (2000) argue that despite the growing body of literature related to leisure constraints, non-users and their associated constraints are generally neglected in consumer behavior research. In general, the previous research suggests that the model established by Crawford, et al. (1991) is suitable in examining travel and leisure constraints not only in participation settings for leisure activities, but also in nonparticipation settings. Godbey et al. (2010) argue that the constraints model appears to be appropriate to a range of human behaviors. Zhang (2009) suggests that constraints have a significant impact on whether to travel or participate in leisure activities. He finds that cost, time, and money are the most important perceived travel constraints that inhibit Beijing residents from traveling overseas.

More recently, Chen et al. (2013) assess the relationship between travel constraints and the destination image of Brunei as an Islamic destination, from the perspective of young, Chinese travelers'. Chen et al.'s (2013) study reveals that structural and intrapersonal travel constraints are significant at the early stages of the decision-making process. Their study adds a new dimension to the formal travel constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991): unfamiliar cultural constraints. Scholars also examine the relationship between cultural or racial factors and travel constraints (e.g., Ng, Lee, & Soutar, 2007; Shinew et al., 2004). Shinew et al. (2004) test leisure constraints and the preferences of African-Americans and Caucasians. The study results indicate that African-

Americans have different leisure preferences than Caucasians and that the former group is less constrained than the latter. More specifically, the study found that Caucasians felt more constrained than African-Americans regarding participation in desired activities because they lacked time, felt there was too much planning involved in organizing activities, and were too busy with their family commitments. Although, Shinew et al.'s (2004) study is one example of many other studies that pinpoint that leisure and travel constraints do vary from a group of people to another and from culture to culture, very few studies examined the leisure and travel constraints of Muslims. In addition, there is a noticeable gap in both leisure and travel literature related to religious travel constraints.

Very few studies examine the relationship between religion and participation in leisure and tourism activities (e.g., Koca, Henderson, Asci, & Bulgu, 2009; Tekin, 2010; Walseth & Fasting, 2003). Tekin (2010) examines the influence of Islamic belief on Muslim female students' participation in leisure activities. His study reveals that the gender-based view of the Muslim community toward women is the most important leisure constraint that prevents Turkish female students from participating in leisure activities. Nonetheless, Tekin's (2010) study concludes that religious constraints are less present compared with sociocultural constraints. Similarly, Walseth and Fasting (2003) examine female participation in sports in Egypt. Their study findings indicate that Egyptian women report that Islamic teachings support their participation in leisure activities. They also reveal that leisure constraints, such as the use of the headscarf and gender separation affect Egyptian women's participation in sports activities. These

constraints result from contradictory understandings and interpretations of Islamic teachings. Following Tekin's (2010) study, Koca et al. (2009) study cultural and social factors that influence Turkish women's participation in leisure-time physical activity. The authors reveal that Turkish women encounter several cultural and social leisure constraints, such as family responsibilities, ethics around care, time, social support and approval, and economic constraints.

Previous studies illustrate some gaps in literature and advance conclusions. First, few studies examine travel constraints, when they do, they seem to be directed toward particular leisure activities. Specifically, researchers have not examined the influence of constraints on the intention to travel, especially to a gaming destination. Second, few scholars have concurrently examined travel constraints and the negotiation strategies by which individuals overcome those constraints. Therefore, this dissertation examines the travel constraints that Muslim students experience and the negotiation strategies they use to overcome these constraints. Third, there is a deficiency in research that identifies the travel constraints that Muslim populations encounter. Previous constraints-related studies demonstrate that leisure and travel constraints function contrarily in different cultural contexts. For instance, Chick and Dong (2003) argue that people with different cultural backgrounds perceive constraints differently from North Americans, and their study proposes further development for leisure constraints categories. Similarly, Shinew et al. (2004) indicate that further examination of racial and ethnic populations would provide a better understanding of constraints. Therefore, the researcher of this dissertation adds

travel constraints as a construct, in order to enhance the predictive power of the model examining the travel intention of Muslim students. Based on the evidence from the aforementioned literature, the researcher puts forward the following proposition:

Proposition 8: Travel constraints negatively influence travel intentions. If a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be less likely to intend to travel.

2.5 Travel Constraints Negotiation Strategies

Negotiation of constraints, which Crawford et al. (1991) first discussed, is one of the major concepts in the leisure hierarchical constraints model. The authors argue that “leisure participation is heavily dependent on negotiating through an alignment of multiple factors, arranged sequentially, that must be overcome to maintain an individual's impetus through these systemic levels” (Crawford et al., 1991, p. 314). Inconsistent with prior models, this idea makes one suggest that constraints are negotiable rather than insurmountable, and nonparticipation is no longer interpreted as the sole outcome of constraints (Hsu & Kang, 2009; Scott, 1991). Rather, nonparticipation is only one of many possible outcomes (Scott, 1991). Previous studies empirically support this hypothesis (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Kay & Jackson, 1991; Kazeminia et al., 2015).

In regards to a constraints definition, Jackson and Rucks (1995) understand constraints negotiation to include different strategies and resources that allow people to overcome, neutralize, or minimize the effect of constraints toward participation, depending on the strength of motivation for participation.

Mannell and Kleiber (1997) define constraints negotiation as the strategies that people adopt to solve, avoid, or reduce the influence of constraints and barriers to participation in leisure activities. Consistently with their categorization of negotiation strategies, Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) define leisure constraints negotiation as the effort of a person to apply behavioral or cognitive strategies to participate in leisure activities, despite perceived constraints. Later on, Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (2003) state that participation "is dependent not on the absence of constraints (although this may be true for some people), but on negotiation through them" (p. 4).

Constraints play a major role in determining the type of negotiation strategy that individuals employ (Jackson et al., 1993). Hubbard and Mannell (2001) state that negotiation strategies to overcome travel constraints can be categorized into four types: (1) time management, (2) skill acquisition, (3) interpersonal coordination, and (4) financial resources and strategies. Jackson, et al. (1993) classify constraints negotiation strategies into two groups: (1) cognitive strategies and (2) behavioral strategies.

Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) argues that individuals are regularly successful at discovering strategies to overcome the constraints that they face. According to Hubbard and Mannell (2001), negotiation strategies involve time management, skills acquisition, interpersonal coordination, and financial resources management and strategies. For example, if the travel constraint for an individual is time, a time management negotiation strategy might be to reduce travel time and change times. Furthermore, the results of the negotiation process

depend on the relative strengths of the constraints, interaction between constraints, and motivation for participation (Crawford et al. 1991; Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). Jackson and Rucks (1995) study constraints negotiation strategies used by junior high and high school students. Their study reveals that behavioral strategies adopted by students include strategies such as time management, skills acquisition, changing interpersonal relations, improving finances, physical therapy, changing leisure aspirations, and a miscellaneous group of other strategies.

In a similar context of this dissertation, Hung and Petrick (2012) categorize their study participants into two groups, high and low self-efficacy, in order to find the influence of travel constraints on constraints negotiation. The results of their examination reveal a significant influence. The authors state that “while travel constraints stimulated the use of constraint negotiation strategies in the low efficacy group, the reverse was found to be true for high efficacy people” (p. 864). In addition, Hung and Petrick’s (2012) findings reveal that constraints negotiation has significant influence on travel intention. This indicates that potential travelers who put more effort into negotiating their constraints are more likely to travel than those who devote less effort to constraints negotiation. Hence, this dissertation further investigates the influence of travel constraints negotiation on Muslim students’ travel intention and their actual travel behavior to gaming destinations. In addition, the study examines if individuals’ experience of travel constraints stimulates the use of constraints negotiation strategies. Therefore, the researcher advances the following three propositions:

Proposition 7: The presence of travel constraints initiates the adoption of travel constraints negotiation strategies. If a person has more travel constraints, then this person will be more likely to use travel constraints negotiation strategies.

Proposition 8: Constraints negotiation positively influences travel intentions to gaming destinations. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person will be more likely to intend to travel.

Proposition 9: Constraints negotiation positively influences actual travel behavior to gaming destinations. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person has travelled to gaming destinations.

2.6 Self-Efficacy Theory and Its Link to Travel Behavior

Effectance links closely with self-efficacy, and White (1959) defines the former term through individuals' perceptions of their own success and their ability to deal with the environment. Effectance thus affects individuals' actions and responses, serving as a motivating factor for future actions. Bandura in his social learning theory (1986), defines self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391). This definition reinforces this link between perceived efficacy and subsequent actions or behaviors, seeing as beliefs often determine actions (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997). This definition implies that individuals who are confident in certain behaviors are more likely to engage in such behaviors more often (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Jerusalem Schwarzer & Schwarzer, 1992). Perceived self-efficacy is context specific, and depends on the type of behavior, as individuals' level of confidence vary with

each skillset (Bandura, 1997; Lenz & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). Since this perceived self-efficacy is dynamic and defined situationally, it is thus not a personality trait, but rather a temporary characteristic (Bandura, 1997; Lenz & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002).

While individuals may wish to change their behaviors or alter certain actions, these individuals typically understand that this desire does not necessarily mean that such change will occur or take place successfully. Perceived self-efficacy, however, often allows individuals to begin making these changes. External verbal praise establishes a more positive self-efficacy by diminishing individuals' levels of insecurity. Those who are able to absorb this praise and a more positive attitude, instead of focusing on self-doubt, are in turn able to achieve a higher level of self-efficacy and lower their negative emotional arousal (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2008).

While those with high levels of self-efficacy are typically eager to engage in their correlating efficacy activities, they're also more generally willing to tackle difficult tasks and find solutions to challenges. These individuals also tend to be more driven, ambitious, and goal-oriented and are able to handle setbacks and face difficulties with more ease. On the other hand, individuals with lower levels of self-efficacy "avoid difficult tasks, such as making an effort to travel alone and save money to travel" (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2008). These individuals do not maintain confidence in their own abilities, are often preoccupied with self-doubt, and are thus less likely to take

action or actively work toward their goals (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2008).

In his seminal piece Bandura (1977) explained that perceived self-efficacy is the most powerful predictor of behavioral change and is the determining factor in the initial decision to perform behaviors and participate in activities. Scholars and researchers from a variety of fields have adopted self-efficacy theory, and most research including the concept focuses on self-efficacy in a specific environment, in reference to a specific task, as opposed to in a larger, more general context (Abusabha & Achterberg, 1997; Bandura, 1980; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Scholars have studied self-efficacy in reference to specific tasks, including physical activity self-efficacy (Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006), exercise self-efficacy (Giacobbi, Hausenblas, & Penfield, 2005; McAuley, 1992), leisure self-efficacy (Hoff & Ellis, 1992), computer self-efficacy (Hill, Smith, & Mann, 1987), physical self-efficacy (Ryckman, Robbins, Thornton, & Cantrell, 1982), and recently, examining the relationship between self-efficacy and purchasing travel online (Amaro & Duarte, 2015).

Armitage and Conner's (2001) meta-analysis study on the TPB observes "that self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control are strongly correlated with intention and behavior." Armitage and Conner (2001) ultimately favor self-efficacy as their gauge for perceived control, as the study observes that self-efficacy has a clearer effect on intention. Although perceived behavior control and self-efficacy are certainly linked and often defined in the same way, many researchers believe that they must draw clearer distinctions between the two

(Terry, 1993; Amaro & Duarte, 2015). Armitage and Conner's (2001) research distinguishes self-efficacy as "related to cognitive perceptions of control based [only] on internal factors, while perceived behavioral control reflects both internal and external factors" (p. 476).

Just as research has refused to distinguish between self-efficacy and perceived behavior control, researchers have also refused to pay attention to the relationship between self-efficacy and constraints. While much research (Jackson et al., 1993) implies that self-efficacy plays a part in constraints negotiation, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) have only recently explicitly tested the connection. Prior to this, Jackson et al., (1993) hypothesized that perceived self-ability plays a part in dealing with constraints and that "anticipation consists not simply of the anticipation of the presence or intensity of a constraint but also of anticipation of the ability to negotiate it" (p. 8). Applying this to the field of tourism research, perceived self-ability, specifically in terms of constraints, can indicate how individuals will respond to constraints connected to travel intention.

Tourism research largely lacks studies in this area, deficient in those that trace the potential connections between self-efficacy, constraints, and intention (e.g., Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Hung & Petrick, 2012). Amaro and Duarte (2015) have conceptualized the perceived behavioral control of TPB as a second-order construct that consists of two distinct dimensions: self-efficacy and controllability. Amaro and Duarte's (2015) study findings indicate that self-efficacy positively influence intention to purchase travel online. Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell's (2007) term "negotiation efficacy" applies self-efficacy concepts to constraints

negotiation and individuals' capabilities "to use negotiation resources effectively" (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Adopting similar ideas, Hung and Petrick's (2012) study analyzes self-efficacy's influence on travel constraints and subsequent constraints negotiation. For those with high self-efficacy, travel constraints negatively influence constraints negotiation . . . while the effect is positive in the low efficacy group (Hung & Petrick, 2012). Given this general survey of self-efficacy theory, the following propositions are developed:

Proposition 9: Self-efficacy positively influences travel intentions. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to overcome constraints, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

Proposition 10: Self-efficacy positively influences negotiation strategies. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them.

Proposition 11: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

2.7 Religiosity

There is a substantial body of research focused on culture and its impact on different areas of consumer behavior literature. Nonetheless, among this existing literature, there are scant examples of studies that examine the role of religion as an important component of culture when studying consumer behavior (Mokhlis, 2009). Alternatively, scholars have primarily focused on other

subcultural and demographic factors such as gender, nationality, ethnicity, status, race, nationality, and values as main influencers of consumer behavior. Religion is a vital cultural element to study because it has the most worldwide and influential social foundations that has major influence on individual's attitudes, values and behaviors at both the individual and societal levels (Mokhlis, 2009; Vukonic & Matesic, 1996). According to Vukonic and Matesic (1996), religion is often one of the critical components of civilization, and as such, it has shaped and affected much of history. Similarly, Kotler (2000) argues that religion is part of culture and it can shape people's behavior.

Religious beliefs and principles are recognized to directly influence human behavior in both cases of working directly through taboos and obligation or through its influence on the culture and society (Mokhlis, 2009; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Mokhlis (2009) argue that any religion and its related practices often play an essential role in affecting numerous important life transitions people may experience (e.g., births, marriages, and funeral rites), in values that come to be important to them (e.g., moral values of right and wrong), in shaping public opinion on social issues (e.g., abortion, premarital sex, organ donation, family planning, gay marriage, and the like), in what is allowed and forbidden for consumption (e.g., restriction on eating and drinking some types of food and beverages) and in several other matters that concern people's everyday life. These norms and percepts however differ between different religious faiths and the degree of adherence, determine to what extent these norms and rules are reserved. This degree to which a person adheres to his or her religious values,

beliefs, and practices and uses them in daily living is called religiosity (Worthington et al., 2003).

Sociologists define religion as a system of ideas by means of which people represent themselves to the society whose members they are, and the obscure but close relationships that they have with it (Durkheim, 1915; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Religious precepts dictate views on and guidelines for life, and these belief systems are evident in societies' outlooks and priorities (Fam, Waller, & Erdogan, 2004). Such values and attitudes guide and determine the ways that societies and individuals in these societies act. Religion infiltrates behavior in everyday habits and practices but also in more infrequent customs.

Religious belief affects behavior in two primary ways, through (1) restrictions and requirements for devotees and (2) cultural outlooks and priorities (McClain, 1979; McDaniel & Burnett, 1990; Wilkes, Burnett, & Howell, 1986). Religious adherents must follow certain rules, for example, the Jewish and Muslim ban on pork consumption and the Hindu ban on cow consumption. These more general effects tend to include everyday practices that are not necessarily connected to explicit religious tenets or requirements. Some research illustrates that attitudes and priorities vary with varying religious beliefs and the strength of these beliefs (e.g., Rokeach, 1969). Religion is one of the most complicated and sensitive subject areas in research. The four main religions in the world are known as Islam, Christianity, Judaism, and Buddhism. Each of these religions has its own set of regulations and guidelines, and within each religion there are ranges of adherence to those commandments or guidelines. While there is

noticeable dedication to the study of religion in many disciplines, especially in sociology, research addressing religion in relation to tourism is still scant at best.

While belief systems vary from religion to religion, this dissertation focuses specifically on Islamic belief system. Research shows that Islamic religiosity may pose a potential influence to general consumer actions and, specifically holiday destination choices of Muslims (Alsawafi, 2013; Fam et al., 2004; Morgan, 1987; Shakon et al. 2015). Since prior research overlooks this topic, the next subsections contain reviews of the relevant literature in the following subjects: religiosity's definition, religiosity in tourism literature, the religion of Islam, tourism in Islam, and Islamic religiosity's influence on travel destination decisions.

2.7.1 Defining Religiosity

Many researchers use the terms “religion” and “religiosity” interchangeably. For example, Mokhlis (2009) devoted one section of his paper to define religiosity, but all quoted definitions provided in that section pertain to religion. Mokhlis (2009) concluded that religion may not be definable in general terms, it must be defined for each research setting” (p.76). “Religion” and “religiosity” are two distinct, albeit similar, terms that the author must distinguish from each other within this dissertation. Dollahite (1998) defines religion as "a covenant faith community with teachings and narratives that enhance the search for the sacred and encourage morality" (p. 5). Likewise, Delener (1990) outlines religion as a combined set of attitudes and actions or system governed by holy principles. Differently, McDaniel and Burnett (1990), defined religion as “a belief in God accompanied by a commitment to follow principles believed to be set forth

by God” (P.110). Similarly, Sheth and Mittal (2004) defined religion as “a system of beliefs about the supernatural and spiritual world, about God, and about how humans, as God’s creature, are supposed to behave on this earth” (p.65). God in Qur'an states that "indeed, the religion in the sight of Allah (God) is Islam" (Qur'an 3:19).

Worthington et al. (2003), on the other hand, define religiosity as “the degree to which a person adheres to his or her religious values, beliefs, and practices and uses them in daily living” (p. 85). Similarly, Johnson, Jang, Larson, and Li, (2001) defined religiosity as “the extent to which an individual’s committed to the religion he or she professes and its teachings, such as the individual’s attitudes and behaviors reflect this commitment”(p.25). Verbit’s (1970) subjective religiosity focuses on individuals’ relationships with religion, governed by (1) beliefs they adopt and (2) the role that the religion plays in their lives. Cukur, DeGuzman and Carlo (2004) stated that some researchers examined religiosity as it internally impacts an individual and how it can have an effect on whether an individual belongs to a specific religious group or follows a specific set of rules. On the other hand, some researchers define religiosity through individuals’ actions, such as rates of attending religious services (Davidson, Moore, & Ullstrup, 2004). Yet this frequency might not provide an accurate assessment due to the complex nature of the activity (Rostosky, Wilcox, Wright, & Randall, 2004). In this dissertation Islamic religiosity is defined as Muslim students’ levels of belief in God accompanied by the degree of commitment to follow principles

believed to be set forth by God and Prophet Mohammed following Johnson et al. (2001).

2.7.2 The Religion of Islam

Of mankind's major religions, Islam is currently spreading the most quickly, as 25 million each year convert to or adopt the religion (Essoo & Dibb, 2004). 2013 data shows that 2.1 billion people are Muslims (Muslim Population Worldwide, 2013). 23.2% and roughly one in five out of the global population self-identify as Muslim (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Experts expect that the population will continue to grow, expanding by 35% between 2010 and 2030 and ultimately reaching 2.2 billion. Muslims are primarily located in the Asia-Pacific region (more than 61%) and next in the Middle East and North Africa (20%) (Pew Research Centre, 2012). 2010 data shows that the largest Muslim populations are primarily found in Asian countries: Indonesia (209 million), India (176 million), Pakistan (167 million), Bangladesh (133 million), and Iran (74 million). Of the top ten countries in terms of Muslim population, the other five are in North Africa (Egypt, Algeria, and Morocco), Europe (Turkey), and Sub-Saharan Africa (Nigeria). Muslim populations also center in Russia, China, and the United States. However, statistics and data cannot explain religiosity, specifically in terms of either the strength of belief or frequency of practice (Jafari & Scott, 2014).

The term Islam has Arabic roots and, with regard to etymology, originates from peace, submission, and obedience (Wamy, 2010). Muslims see Islam as not only the belief system set forth by the Prophet Mohammed, but also a way of

living. Given this, Muslims strive to live by the Islamic law (Shari'ah), which finds its roots in the Qur'an, among other prophetic sources. While Muslims also venerate Adam, Moses, and Jesus as Prophets with similar revelations, they understand the Qur'an as the literal word of God, as revealed to God's Prophet, Mohammed. The Qur'an thus plays a vital role in Muslims' lives, and any potential actions (such as tourism) necessarily come into contact with the holy book. Islam teaches virtue and righteousness and the religion emphasizes the importance of balancing the fulfillment of material and spiritual needs (Rice & Al-Mossawi, 2002). Islamic rules govern everyday life but ultimately allow devotees "to gain merits and access to divine reality" (Jafari & Scott, 2014, p.6). Shari'ah also stems from (2) the Sunnah (the written sayings and activities of Prophet Mohammed), (3) Qiyas (reasoning that allows followers to infer general rules from specific situations), and (4) Ijma (a scholarly consensus on specific subjects) (Arfaj, 2007; Henderson, 2007; Ibrahim, 1997; Muhamad, 2008). The five pillars of Islam (Al-utheimeen, 2010; Essoo & Dibb, 2004) include declaration of faith (Shahada), prayers (Salat), fasting in the month of Ramadan (Saum), purifying tax (Zakat), and pilgrimage to Mecca (Hajj). While religions generally consist of certain attitudes, holy objects, convictions, customs, prayers, standards, duties, and prohibitions (Fam et al., 2004), Islamic law (Shari'ah) dictates many of these elements (Fam et al., 2004).

2.7.3 The Concepts of Halal (Lawful) and Haram (Unlawful) in Islam

Muslims, in appreciation for God's mercy and compassion, seek to follow the straight path of His teachings: the shari'a (Islamic precepts), derived from the

Qur'an and the hadith, the documented collections of the sayings and practices of the Prophet Mohammed (Esposito & Donner, 1999; Jafari & Scott, 2014). To a Muslim, there is a moral quality in every action, characterized by beauty (suitability) versus ugliness (unsuitability). This moral quality is not such as can be perceived by human reason; instead, is dependent on divine revelation (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Hence, all Muslim actions are categorized under five categories: as commanded, recommended (Halal), left legally indifferent, reprehended, or else prohibited (Haram). It is only the middle category (things that are legally indifferent) for which there is any possibility for human legislation. Yet, because Shari'a deals with the entire human conduct, it includes matters that non-Muslim people would not consider law at all. For example, Islamic shari'a determines what foods and drinks are halal (lawful/permitted) and may be consumed by Muslims, the way to dress, entertainments to enjoy, and ways to live or behave (Alsawafi, 2013).

A majority of Muslims worldwide believe that the holy Quran and the Sunnah of Prophet Mohammed are the main sources for what is Halal and Haram. In other words, nothing is prohibited in Islam except what is specifically forbidden in the Holy Qur'an or in clearly authenticated, explicit Sunnah of the Prophet Mohammed (Alsawafi, 2013). After the death of Prophet Mohammed and after the spread of Islam in many communities worldwide, new social, cultural, behavioral, and political situations raised. To address these new situations, Islamic scholars started to provide a body of work called fiqh (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Fiqh covers all matters of law, including religious, civil, political,

constitutional, and procedural law. According to Schacht (1959), a number of different traditions of thought regarding fiqh have developed and today there may be various interpretations held by modernists, traditionalists, fundamentalists, and adherents to different schools of Islamic teaching and scholarship.

Therefore, while shari'a provides guidance for all matters of life (Hodge, 2002), the manner in which it is interpreted and practiced depends on a number of factors. Important among them is the status of shari'a with respect to a country's legal system. In some Muslim-majority countries, shari'a is limited to personal and family matters (e.g., Turkey), some have mixed systems (e.g., Indonesia, Morocco, Oman, Pakistan), and some use shari'a only (e.g., Saudi Arabia).

On an individual level, the degree to which one adheres to the five pillars of Islam or shari'a may signify the salience of religion in their lives. However, some general values are widely espoused; the family is highly esteemed, the concept of lifelong singleness is foreign to Islam, and divorce (although permitted) is strongly discouraged. In addition, community is strongly related to family and to the ummah (Hodge, 2002). According to Islamic thought, virtue and morality provide the foundation for human happiness and modesty, particularly around members of the opposite sex, is a widely affirmed value. The manner in which modesty is expressed varies by the culture of origin, local Islamic norms, the interpretation of the shari'a, and personal preferences. Muslim women express their modesty through the practice of hijab (head, face, or body covering ranging from wearing a head scarf to veiling to covering the whole body). Muslim women are not traditionally allowed to travel outside their neighborhood without

having a companion drawn from their male relatives such as husband, son, brother, father, or uncle, although in practice females today are permitted to travel overseas for purposes of education, although preferably accompanied at least by a female friend. However, in some Islamic societies Muslim women are still not allowed to travel without a male companion from immediate male relatives. Similarly, both Muslim men and women are prohibited from drinking alcohol or eating pork and its related products, and are commanded by God to refrain from gambling (Muhamad, 2008). Thus, Muslims are required to believe and behave in the way that God has stated (Alsawafi, 2013; Fam et al., 2004). However, Muslims differ from other religious members in following Islamic principles (Shariah teachings). As aforementioned, a typical Muslim prays five times a day (Shia groups pray three times), fasts the month of Ramadan, pays zakat (the amount of money that every mentally stable and financially able adult has to pay to support specific categories of needy people), and performs the pilgrimage ritual (Hajj) at least once in a lifetime. In addition, Muslims are forbidden from lying, consuming or selling alcohol, gambling, prostitution, and profligate consumption and indulgence and also must adhere to many other teachings. Muslim women are further required to follow an Islamic dress code (covering the whole body except the hands and face) when dealing with men except first class family members (father, brothers, husband, children, uncles, and grandparents) (Zamani-Farhani & Henderson, 2010). However, not all Muslims strictly follow these teachings. For example, some Muslims do not perform the five prayers daily, do not pay zakat, do consume alcohol, and/or

refuse to follow the Islamic dress code. These variations among Muslims are the determinants of their religiosity levels.

According to Shari'a law, Muslims must adhere to Shari'a even when traveling, and the behaviors dictated by Shari'a include performing ablution daily before praying, performing their daily prayers, fast during the holy month of Ramadan, adhere to Islamic dress code and consuming only permitted foods (e.g., given pork and alcohol taboos and the specifications of slaughtering halal meat) (Hodge, 2002). Given these Shari'a laws, scholars continue to deliberate on how businesses can best accommodate Muslim tourists (Henderson, 2010; Ozdemir & Met, 2012; Zulkharnain & Jamal, 2012).

In this vein, destination management organizations and hotels have begun to cater their websites to the growing number of Muslim tourists and include prayer times, mosques, and locations for halal food (Timothy & Iverson, 2006). Tourism operators also train staff in cross-cultural communication, detailing cultural differences in respectful behaviors (Timothy & Iverson, 2006). Since Muslims typically segregate by gender and adhere to specific dress standards, some hotels in Turkey have already segregated recreational accommodations, including swimming pools (Ozdemir & Met, 2012). Muslims may feel pressured or constrained by different cultural norms in other countries (Livengood & Stodolska, 2004; Moufakkir & Kelly, 2010). Cohen and Neal (2012) observe the haram (forbidden) activities that single Muslim men participate in on vacations in Bangkok, Thailand. Countries are beginning to take note of the growing Muslim tourist sector, and some countries, namely Malaysia and New Zealand, are

altering their promotional practices to draw Muslim tourists and accommodate their needs (Al-Hamarneh & Steiner, 2004).

2.7.4 Tourism in Islam

Since Islam influences Muslims' behaviors on a daily basis, regardless of their location, Islam clearly shall guide decisions about destination choices and planned activities. Muslims consider travel to be normal and appropriate. Muslims are thus often very enthusiastic tourists. At times, the Qur'an discusses travel and whether or not it is acceptable or "lawful" (Sanad, Kassem, & Scott, 2010). In the Qur'an, Surat AlAnkabout (literally, The Spider) expresses that tourism is often useful for thought and meditation. The following verse from Holy Quran asks followers to travel in order to observe and meditate on the creation of God: "Travel through the earth and see how Allah did originate creation; so will Allah produce a later creation: for Allah has power over all things" (God, Surat AlAnkabout, p.398).

Likewise, Surat Al-An'am (literally, The Cattle) encourages Muslims to travel in the name of contemplating the fate of their ancestors, especially those who denied God's Word: "Travel through the earth and see what was the end of those who rejected Truth" (God, Surat Al-An'am, 11, p.129). Surat Yusuf (Joseph) emphasizes the same subject and purpose: "So have they not traveled through the earth and observed how was the end of those before them?" (God, Surat Yusuf, p.248). The Qur'an thus promotes travel "for historical, social, and cultural encounters, to gain knowledge, to associate with others, to spread God's word, and to enjoy and appreciate God's creations" (Falk, Ballantyne, Packer, &

Benckendorff, 2012; Timothy & Iverson, 2006). Others, regardless of their religion, concur with this emphasis on the educational value of tourism.

Islam's focus on virtue and righteousness guides its attitude toward travel and its subsequent support for advocating travel. First, Muslims must take a pilgrimage (Hajj) to Makkah at least once in their lifetime. Second, Islam advocates travel for the purpose of education and for seeing Allah's (God) creations. These two reasons for travel influence decisions about destination choices and planned activities (Jafari & Scott, 2014). The following section discusses halal tourism in relation to this proposition.

2.7.5 Religiosity and Its Link to Destination Choice Decision

Even though human behaviors and attitudes are directly influenced by religion-rooted cultural aspects of their living environment, religiosity impact on travel behavior have been limitedly studied in the tourism literature. Din called attention in 1980 to the fact that tourism research rarely considers religious factors. Hirschman (1983) offered three possible reasons to explain why religiosity has not been adequately examined in the consumer behavior literature. The researcher of this dissertation argue that the same three reasons are currently applicable to why religiosity research in tourism literature is scant. The first reason for the slow development of literature in this area is the possibility that tourism consumer behavior researchers are unaware of the possible links between religion and travel behaviors. The second reason is a perceived prejudice against religion within the research community; once being a taboo subject and too sensitive to be submitted for investigation (e.g., the potential for

unintended offence and the legal protection afforded freedom of religion). Finally, the claim that religion is everywhere in people's life and hence may have been overlooked by researchers as an obvious variable for study in the area of travel behavior.

Jafari and Scot (2014) hypothesize that religion may have provided the original motivation for tourism and that older religious travel represents a precursor to modern travel. Religion clearly correlates and connects to subjects in tourism research. Yet most of the research to date typically focuses only on speculative or logistical issues, such as pilgrimage preparation (Cohen, 1998; Din, 1989; Hitrec, 1990; Rinschede, 1992), the management and understanding of sacred sites (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2003; Raj & Morpeth, 2007), tourism's effects on religious sites (Cohen, 1998; Gupta, 1999; Joseph & Kavoori, 2001; Matina & Dimitrios, 2006; Shindea, 2007), religious tourism's economic impacts (Raj & Morpeth, 2007; Vukonic, 2002), religious tourists' (pilgrims) motivation and travel patterns (Fleischer, 2000; Smith, 1992; Timothy & Iverson, 2006; Turner, 1973; Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008), religious ceremonies (Dunbar-Hall, 2001; Rinschede, 1992), and tourists' religious needs in the hospitality industry (e.g., Dugan, 1994; Mansfeld, Ron, & Gev, 2000; Shackley, 2004; Weidenfeld, 2006; Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008), residents perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of tourism (Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012), and customer perceived value and satisfaction (Eid & El-Gohary, 2015). Researchers have not studied religiosity in general or, Islamic religiosity effect on destination choice decisions in particular. Table 2.2 provides an evaluation of relevant religiosity studies.

Religion concept has been related to a multiple subjects in travel and tourism literature; however, it is most widely examined in relation to pilgrimage and how tourism and pilgrimage are related (Butler, Airey and Poria, 2004; Cohen, 1992a, 1992b, 1998; Din, 1989; Shakona et al. 2015). Butler et al. (2004) ventured that in tourism research, religion is associated with three main research areas: (1) research related to the supply of tourism; (2) research related to the link between religion and tourism from a more theoretical prospective; (3) research exploring the tourists' behavior.

In the field of tourism research, researchers understand religion as a factor that not only affects, but also clarifies behavior. Religion makes itself evident in behavior as a motivating force, a constraint, or a determinant of frequency and location. Fleischer and Pizam (2002) examined the constraints affecting the participation of seniors in vacation activities, and concluded that religion is one of the factors constraining the elderly from vacation. Jewish holidays, for example, constrain elderly Jewish tourists' travel dates (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002). Religion also serves as a determinant in terms of location, especially given pilgrimages (Constable, 1976; Smith, 1992). Jackson and Hudman's (1995) study focuses on religious sites, specifically cathedrals in England. Although the authors discover that religion, in these instances, does not inspire the larger trip more generally, they find that religion does stimulate the cathedral visit. Mansfeld's (1995) research on one of London's Jewish communities concludes that religious belonging involves a social reference group (the religious community) that may sway or shape behavior. Fleischer's (2000)

study on pilgrims in Israel claims that self-identified pilgrims and general visitors touring the country have different personality traits as well as visitation patterns. To Fleischer, Protestant and Catholic tourists also prove different in their views on the spiritual nature of the visit. Poulson et al. (1998), observing university students in the rural, southwestern United States, discover that women with higher levels of religiosity drink less alcohol and are less prone to premarital sex. Yet for men in this study, religion does not significantly correlate with alcohol consumption or promiscuous sexual behaviors (Poulson et al., 1998).

As aforementioned, the field lacks in research focusing specifically on the connection between religiosity and destination choice. As an exception, the study by Mattila et al. (2001), focuses on university students during spring break and explores the effects of gender and religion on destination-related anticipations and behaviors that pose possible harms to health. In this study, they discover that gender and religion have a direct effect on both destination choice and expectations for hospitality service quality and location attributes. Given these results, Mattila et al. (2001) advise that marketers additionally account for students' religiosity. Other studies hypothesize that religiosity affects university students' attitudes toward risk-health behaviors (Engs, Diebold, & Hanson, 1996; Matilla et al., 2001). These two factors, religiosity and health-risk behavior attitude, might also influence travel motivations, behavior, and destination choices.

Personal, social, market, economic, religious and cultural factors all potentially shape and sway the decision-making process (Xu et al., 2009). While

religion clearly affects behavior, this relationship means that religion also influences everyday decision-making. Research shows that religion has direct effects on behavioral intention formation and on the actual behavior (Delener, 1990; Eid, 2013; Mattila et al., 2001; Mokhlis, 2009; Wilkes et al., 1986; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Although scholars seem to concur that religion critically affects behavior, secular cultures often overlook how religion affects consumer behavior. Yet research shows that religious belonging plays a vital role in consumption patterns (Cleveland, Laroche, & Hallab, 2013; Weaver & Agle, 2002), family decision-making (Sim & Bujang, 2012), selected store patronage behavior, and consumers' decision-making and purchase intention (Alam et al., 2011; Battour et al., 2011; Mokhlis, 2009).

Scholars from other disciplines, such as marketing, have recently shed light on religion's role in consumer decision-making and purchase intentions. For example, Alam, Mohd and Hisham's (2011) research examines the effect of religiosity on Muslims' consumption behavior and purchasing decisions. The authors argue that religiosity plays a full mediating role in the relationship between contextual variables (such as the price of the product, brand name, quality, and image) and the purchase behavior of Muslim consumers. Their study found that religiosity acts as a mediator in the relationship between relative or contextual variables and the purchase behavior of Muslim consumers. Alam et al. (2011) sheds light on the importance of examining religiosity as an important factor when studying consumers' buying behaviors. According to Ateeq-ur-

Rehman (2010), religiosity affects new product adoption among Muslim consumers by influencing their beliefs on how and what products they should purchase. Most recently, Jafari and Scott (2014) emphasize that religion has “an influence on the day to day activities of Muslims, whether at home or traveling, and thus it shapes the choice of a destination for discretionary purposes and what is done at the destination” (p. 7). Therefore, based on the evidences in the literature discussed under the above sections, the following propositions are put forward:

Proposition 12: Religiosity is a significant predictor of behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's intention to choose a gaming destination will be lower.

Proposition 13: Religiosity is a significant predictor of actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower.

Proposition 14: Religiosity is a predictor for attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then this person will have a less favorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination.

Proposition 15: Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and travel intention to gaming destinations. If a person is highly religious, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be lesser.

2.8 Past Behavior

Researchers from social psychology, sociology, and tourism claim that past behavior is the best predictor of future behavioral intention and actual behavior (Bagozzi, 1981; Lam & Hsu, 2005; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). The role of past behavior in the context of the TRA and TPB has been tested in a few previous studies (Bagozzi, 1981; Lam & Hsu, 2005; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2007). These studies indicate that the TRA and TPB models' ability to predict intentions and/or actual behaviors could be enhanced by adding past behavior as a predictor. Bagozzi (1981) finds that the effects of past behavior on intentions are not mediated by attitudes and/or subjective norms, and that prior behavior has direct effects on actual behavior that is not mediated by intentions.

A meta-analysis by Ouellette and Wood (1998) examines 64 studies and finds robust evidence for the effect of the past behavior structure on both behavioral intentions and future behavior. Kim and Chalip (2004) argue that past travel experiences also affect tourists' risk and safety concerns, in addition to their intention to revisit. Ryu and Jang (2007) examine the validity of an extended TRA model within the context of tourist intentions to try local cuisine on vacation. Their study reveals a positive causal relationship from past behavior to behavioral intention, indicating that past experience could make tourists' intentions to try local cuisine significantly stronger. Both studies of Lam and Hsu (2004; 2006) result in a significant influence of past behavior on the behavioral intention to travel. Based on the findings of previous studies, past behavior is

expected to directly influence behavioral intentions in this study. Therefore, the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 16: Past behavior is a significant predictor of behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If an individual has positive past experiences, then the individual's travel intention will be stronger.

Table 2.1 Travel Motivation Theories

Researcher & Year	Theory	Proposition	Major Limitations
Plog, 1974	Tourist Motivation Model Allocentric-Psychocentric	The model distributes travelers' personality types along a scale that estimates a normally distributed curve. Plog divides the scale into five segments/types.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It may not be possible to place travelers in a single simple category. • The model proves ineffective as a predictor of motivation and travel behavior (Litvin, 2006)
Dann, 1977	Push and Pull Theory	The theory demonstrates that people travel because they are pushed by internal motivations and pulled by external influences regarding their destinations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Although much research has been done on the degree to which pull attributes are related to specific push factors, how push and pull factors are related is not clear. more research is needed to examine this relationship (Klenosky, 2002)
Iso-Ahola, 1982	The Theory of Escaping and Seeking	The theory asserts that personal escape, personal seeking, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking motivate tourism and recreation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The escaping/seeking theory is based mainly on leisure motivation. The theorist assumes that tourism is one form of leisure activity. Whereas, tourism and leisure overlap in general. Tourist motivation has novel features that only partly shared with leisure (Hsu & Huang, 2007). • Another limitation pertain to the theory disability in clarifying why people escape from their personal and interpersonal social worlds.
Pearce (1988; 1991; 1993)	Travel Career Ladder (TCL)	The model postulates a career goal in tourism behavior, and as tourists become more experienced they increasingly seek satisfaction of higher needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidences do not support the notion that holiday experiences enable people to psychologically Mature (Ryan, 1998).

Table 2.2 Evaluation of Relevant Religiosity Studies

Author	Year	Study purpose	Study sample	findings	Major contribution(s)	Limitation(s)
El-Bassiouny	2014	To assemble the theoretical foundations of Islamic marketing thought in relation to the modern marketing paradigm.	-	The paper provides a comprehensive conceptualization for Islamic marketing and its foundational principles within the context of the Islamic faith.	13 propositions.	Conceptual paper. No empirical findings.
Zamani-Farahani & Musa	2012	To explore the influence of Islamic religiosity (measured on dimensions of 'Islamic Belief', 'Islamic Practice', and 'Islamic Piety') on the perceived socio cultural impacts of tourism among residents in two tourist areas in Iran.	500 adults from Sare'in and Masooleh in Iran	The results support Social Exchange Theory (Ap, 1992) and Social Distance Theory (Thyne et al., 2006), and positioned Masooleh and Sare'in at the earlier stage of tourism development (Butler, 1980; Doxey, 1975). The results to a certain extent could indicate that Islamic religiosity does not, in principle, play a role in instilling negative perceptions towards tourism development. The current positive impacts experienced by local people are evidence that the residents are in favour of the development and are likely to also	provide some insights into the interactions between the Islamic religion and tourism	Not generalizable

				support a further expansion of the tourism industry.		
Stephenson	2014	To examine the principles and practices of Islamic hospitality, outlining the diverse ways in which Islam intersects with 'hospitality' and the 'hospitality industry'.	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Islamic hospitality has evolved with formal characteristics and institutional properties. - Islamic hotels and Shari'a-compliant products and services have significant scope for further development. - Halal food consumption is a central feature of Islamic hospitality, despite a climate of 'halal hysteria' in the West. - Latent demand for Islamic hospitality exists in Muslim and Non-Muslim markets in the West. - Stakeholders must assure Muslim consumers of the legitimacy of halal-friendly products and services. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study adopts a global perspective, examining Islamic hospitality with reference to both OIC (Organization of Islamic Cooperation) countries and non-OIC countries - Manifests a range of ethical challenges concerning product and service delivery issues. - It recommended the exploration of development opportunities for niche forms of Islamic hospitality, including alternative forms of holiday lodging. The study suggests Islamic cruises, Muslim camps and campsites, and Islamic motels and hostels. 	Conceptual paper. No empirical findings.
Alam & Hisham	2011	To examine the effect of religiosity on Muslim consumer behavior	232 Muslim Malaysian from (middle and upper income level)	Muslims in Shah Alam and Bangi area consider Islam as their source of reference and they spend moderately, as	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Religion is an important element in purchase behavior of Muslims. 	-Religiosity scale is questionable

		and on purchasing decision	who work in Shah Alam	commanded by Allah in the Quran. The study confirms that religiosity acts as a full mediating role in the relationship between relative and contextual variables, and purchase behavior of Muslim consumers.	- Recommended marketers to take consideration religion in their marketing activities and particularly during products development.	- not generalizable sample - Not specifically for travel behavior
Ateeq-ur-Rehman & Shabbir	2010	To investigate the relationship between religiosity and new product adoption (NPA) among Muslim consumers	300 students (not specified from where)	Religiosity affects NPA among Muslim consumers; their beliefs influence how and what products they adopt.	- First attempt to examine the relationship between religiosity and NPA, in the Islamic market.	- Sample is questionable - Not related to travel behavior
Mattila, Apostolopoulous, Sonmez, Yu, & Sasidharan	2001	To investigate the influence of gender and religion on health-risk behavior potentials and destination related expectations of college students on spring break vacation.	534 students from two U.S. universities.	Gender and religion has a significant impact on students' potential to engage in health risk behaviors during spring break as well as their choice of spring break destinations.	The implication is limited to to substance abuse and risky sexual behavior among college students during spring break	The student population surveyed in this study does not represent the general college student population.
Shakona et al.	2015	To explore the influence of religion and religiosity on leisure and travel activities of Muslim in the United States.	12 Muslims from Clemson, SC	At least seven Islamic beliefs and behavioral practices play an important role in determining where, when, and how Muslims in the United States would like to travel and use their leisure time.	- More of practical implications related to halal tourism and how to accommodate Muslim travelers in non-Muslim countries.	Qualitative study cannot be generalized beyond the 12 participants.
Jafari & Scott	2014	Review article introduces selected aspects of Islam to	Review paper	- Provided a platform to understand Muslim tourism.	-	Literature review

		non-Muslims and review the tourism literature to identify themes and areas for further research.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - highlighted themes and areas for future research. 		
Eid	2013	To identify the Muslim customer perceived value (MCPV) dimensions, to examine the interrelationships between MCPV, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and Muslim customer retention, and to develop and test a conceptual model of the consequences of MCPV in the tourism industry.	221 Muslim tourists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The proposed conceptual model is supported. - Muslim customers assess products not just in functional terms but also in terms of providing tangible attributes that result on the delivery of Shari'a Compliant tourism products such as Halal food and the availability of shari'a compatible art, fun, and entertainment tools. - Customer satisfaction directly affect loyalty - 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study provided a theoretical grounds for studying MCPV. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The model does not include religiosity construct.
Din	1989	To describe the pattern of tourist arrival in Muslim countries and examines the extent to which the religious factor has bearing on policy and development strategy affecting tourism.	Review paper		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 	Literature Review

Eid & El-Gohary	2015	To investigate the moderating effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between Muslim customer perceived value and Muslim customer satisfaction.	537 Muslim tourists	- Consumer behavior is not only affected by the consumer's religion, but also affected by the customer's level of religiosity and culture.	- Provided more comprehensive model of the effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between Muslim customer perceived value and Muslim customer satisfaction. - Reinforced the importance of religiosity in understanding Muslim customers satisfaction.	Religiosity is measured with a limited number of items.
Cohen	1998	To investigate the manner in which different religions influence touristic choices and decisions, the impact of religions on destinations and attractions, and on tourist establishments	-	- Religions also experience a contradiction between an often critical attitude to tourism and practical interests in the industry: many religious establishments and holy places flourish on income derived from tourist visits.	- Provided good conceptual background to the dynamics of the relationship between tourism and religion in different contexts.	Literature Review
Eid & El-Gohary	2014	To develop a scale of measurement of Muslim tourist perceived value	537 Muslim tourists	- Six factors constituting the Muslim tourist perceived value in the hospitality and tourism (quality, price, emotional, social, Islamic physical attributes, and Islamic	- Shed light on the importance of Islamic attributes and how these components play a role in Muslims purchasing decisions.	Religiosity role is ignored.

				nonphysical attributes).		
Rahman	2014	To measure the effect of tourist's motivation on Islamic tourist's satisfaction and destination loyalty.	198	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Islamic attributes, destination attributes and quality of service, tourists' satisfaction are major predictors for Islamic tourists' destination loyalty. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provided some understanding to what motivates influence tourists regarding destination loyalty. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - not generalizable sample - Not specifically for travel behavior
Battour, Ismail, & Battor	2011	To explore which Islamic attributes of destinations could be used as a base for tailoring Halal tourist packages.	53 Muslim students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There are differences between the attitudes of female and male respondents in terms of Islamic attributes of destinations within the Muslim world. - Two major aspects are identified as Islamic attributes of destinations and classified as; tangible attributes and intangible attributes - 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides good understanding of the Islamic tourism and Halal tourism that can assist destinations marketers to meet the needs of Muslim travelers. - 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Qualitative study cannot be generalized beyond the 53 participants - Some Islamic attributes were ignored.
Weidenfeld & Ron	2008	To explore the relationship between tourism and religion, which can be characterized by competition, mutual influence, being complementary and co-habitualness.	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More studies should be conducted within hotels, where hospitality environments and their religious tourists of various religions can be identified and separately examined in light of the need to personify the hotel product. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shed light on the importance to study the tourism and religion relationship. - Shed light on the importance to cater for Muslim tourists needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The literature review is very limited to a few articles. - No empirical examination.

				- The relationship between tourism and religion constitutes a valid and important area of research.		
--	--	--	--	---	--	--

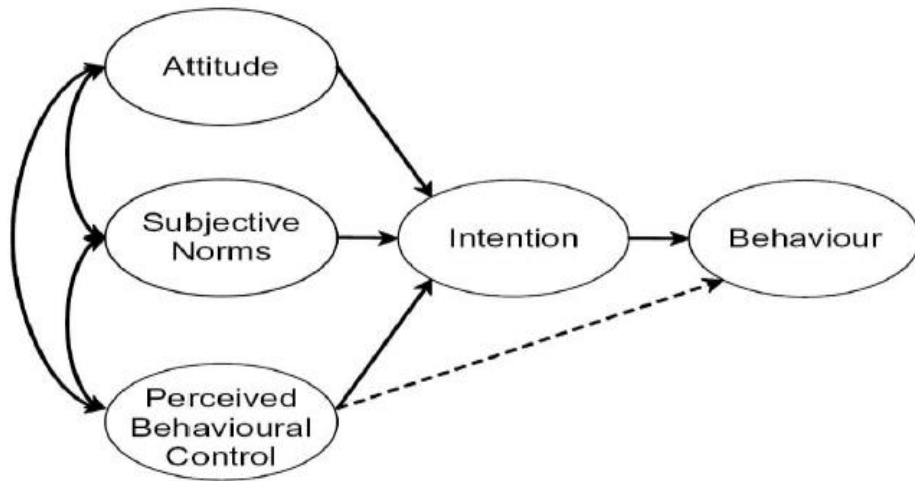


Figure 2.1 The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)

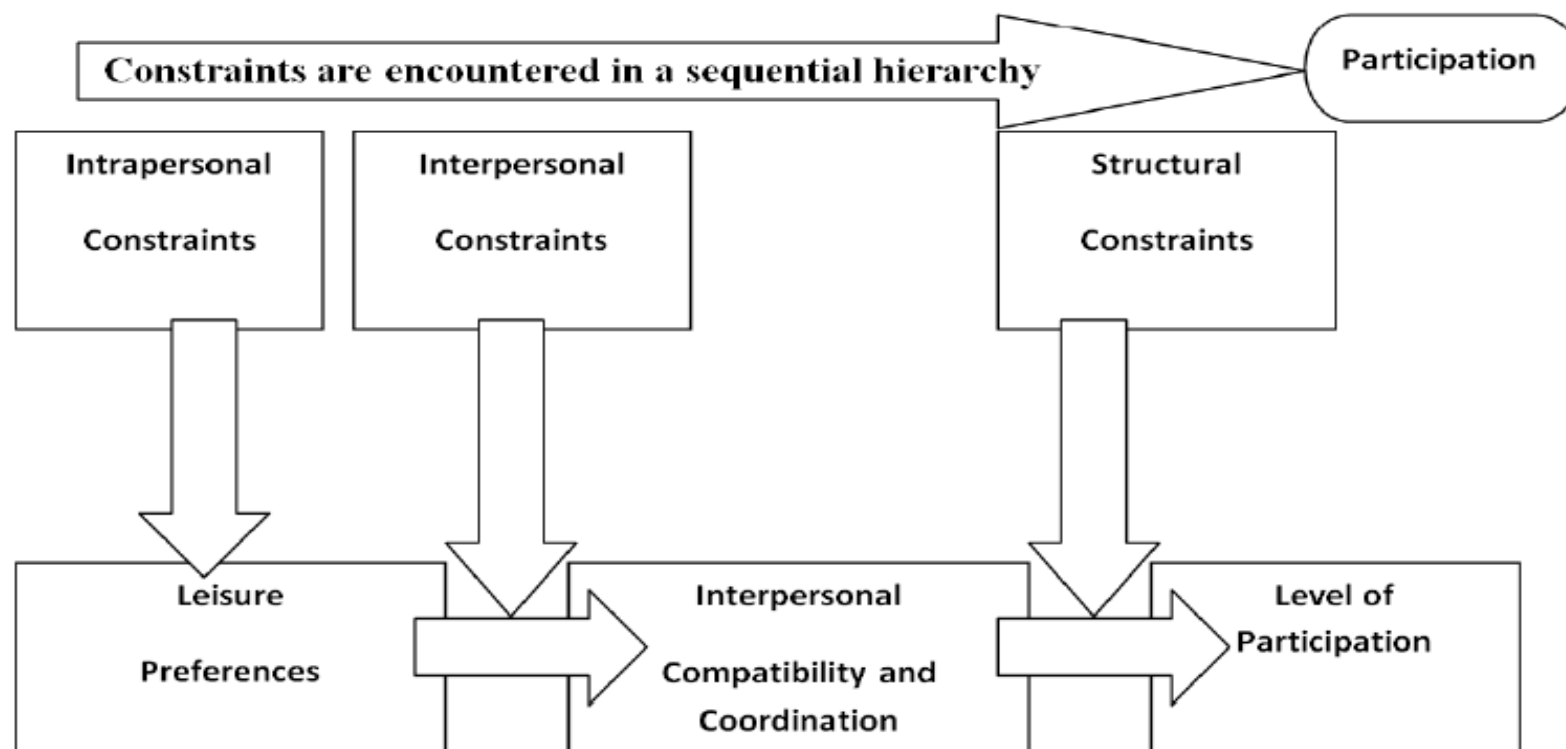


Figure 2.2 A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints (Source: Adopted from Crawford et al., 1991)

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the study's research methodology and the conceptual research framework that drives the dissertation are presented and discussed. The researcher starts by illustrating the research process. In the second section of the chapter, the researcher then presents the research objectives, hypothesis, and conceptual model proposed in the first chapter. The researcher next, in the third and fourth sections of the chapter, discusses the development of the survey instrument: the procedure of pretesting the questionnaire. In the fifth section, a discussion of the sampling and data collection procedures is provided. In the last sections of the chapter, the researcher describes the study's statistical methods (descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, and partial least square structural equation modeling, or PLS-SEM) and related validity and reliability issues of the measurement scales. In Figure 3.1, a visual illustration of the process of this study is provided.

3.2 Study Objectives, Hypotheses, and Model

Figure 3.2 presents the conceptual model guided dissertation. As explained in detail in the chapter on the literature review, the model's development is based on a combination of theories (Ajzen's TPB) and associated constructs. As presented in Figure 3.2, an individual's intention to visit a gaming destination is a function of travel motivation, religiosity, attitudes, subjective

norms, travel constraints, constraints negotiation, self-efficacy, and past behavior. The intent to visit a gaming destination precedes actual visitation. Intention thus reflects future behavior. The model consists of eight independent variables: (1) attitude, (2) motivations to travel (push and pull), (3) subjective norms, (4) travel constraints, (5) constraints negotiation strategies, (6) past behavior, (7) self-efficacy, and (8) religiosity, as significant factors in destination choice. Travel behavior cannot be studied in isolation when other motives can explain much of the error variation in the model. To account for much of the variation in the proposed model, these eight variables are included. The researcher attempts to explain the relationships between these constructs as well as their effect on travel behavior. The researcher further hypothesizes that Islamic religiosity and travel motivation, apart from influencing travel intention, directly influence Muslims' attitudes toward gaming destinations. Furthermore, Islamic religiosity, as a moderating construct, influences the relationship between attitude of Muslim travelers and their intention to travel to a gaming destination. The objectives of this dissertation are the following:

- (1) To explain choice behavior using multitude of variables that are considered antecedent.
- (2) To enhance the predictive power of destination choices using a multitude of theories simultaneously.
- (3) To examine the moderating effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between attitude and intention to travel.

- (4) To examine the travel motivations of Muslim student tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations.
- (5) To develop new measurement items of religiosity, in the context of Muslims' travel decision-making, that can be used by researchers.
- (6) To determine which travel constraints impede Muslim students from traveling to gaming destinations.
- (7) To identify travel constraints negotiation strategies that Muslim students may apply in order to overcome their perceived travel constraints.

In the conceptual framework presented in Figure 3.2, the study's hypotheses are drawn from the literature review. These hypotheses are clearly related to the study's objectives and are illustrated in Table 3.1.

3.3 Operationalization of Variables

Dependent and independent variables are operationalized based on the objectives of the study, the literature review, and the responses from the pretest procedure.

3.3.1 Operationalization of Dependent Variables

Operationalization of Actual Travel Behavior

Based on the appendix in Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), the actual behavior is measured by asking participants whether they have visited a gaming destination before or not, with "yes" or "no" questions.

Operationalization of Travel Intention

The researcher adopts the items for travel intention from Lam and Hsu (2006) and Gardiner, King, and Grace (2013). The respondents are asked to

indicate their level of agreement with each of the four behavioral intention statements on a 5-point scale where 1 means strongly disagree and 5 means strongly agree. These items are “I would recommend a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) to others,” “I intend to go on a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) in the near future,” “I am likely to go on a holiday in a gaming destination in the next three years,” and “I want to visit Las Vegas.”

3.3.2 Operationalization of Independent Variables

Operationalization of Religiosity (also moderator variable)

The religiosity scale is developed in several stages following the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979). The items in this scale are developed based on a comprehensive review of religious studies, the Holy Quran, Islamic teachings, and tourism literature. A total of 40 items are generated from these sources. For example, participants are provided with several statements: “I perform all my prayers on time,” “I read the Quran regularly,” and “it’s ok to gamble sometimes.” Participants are then asked to assess each item using a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 means strongly disagree and 5 means strongly agree. In Appendix A, the researcher provides a list of religiosity’s scale items.

Operationalization of Attitude

The researcher have adopted the items that measure the attitude variable based on previous research (Ajzen, 1991; Lam & Hsu, 2006). The participants are asked to rate their attitude toward traveling to a gaming destination on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*unpleasant*) to 5 (*pleasant*), 1 (*unfavorable*) to 5

(*favorable*), 1 (*unenjoyable*) to 5 (*enjoyable*), 1 (*boring*) to 5 (*fun*), 1 (*negative*) to 5 (*positive*), 1 (*gloomy*) to 5 (*exciting*), and 1 (*sinful*) to 5 (*virtuous, or not sinful*). The last item (*sinful- virtuous, or not sinful*) is added to the scale by this study researcher.

Operationalization of Subjective Norms

The researcher adopted the items that measure the subjective norms variable based on previous research (Ajzen, 1991; Lam & Hsu, 2006). The researcher asks respondents to assess the influence of significant others on their decision to choose a gaming destination through seven statements. Each statement is measured with a 5-point Likert scale where 1 means *strongly disagree* and 5 means *strongly agree*. Such statements include the following: “most people I know would choose a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) as a travel destination,” “my parents would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas),” and “friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas).” In Appendix A, the researcher provides a list of the subjective norms’ scale items.

Operationalization of Travel Motivation

The fourth independent variable is about push (reasons to travel) and pull (destination attributes) travel motivations. The push travel motivations construct is based on the notion that tourists go on vacation because they need to satisfy physical and social needs that are not met by staying at home (internal motivations) (Correia, Valle, & Moco, 2007; Mehmetoglu, Dann, & Larsen, 2001). The items in both scales measure variables that have been adapted from

Crompton (1979), Baloglu and Uysal (1996), Zhang and Lam (1999), Yoon and Uysal (2005), and Lam and Hsu (2006). Respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the 32 push travel motivation statements and the 35 pull travel motivations on a 5-point scale where 1 means *strongly disagree* and 5 means *strongly agree* (see Appendix A for a complete list of push and pull motivation items).

Operationalization of Travel Constraints

The travel constraints scale is designed to obtain data about potential reasons for not traveling to a gaming destination. The items for this construct are obtained from Crawford et al. (1991); Chen et al. (2013); Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007); and Hung and Petrick (2012). Respondents are asked to assess, on a 5-point scale where 1 means strongly disagree and 5 means strongly agree, their levels of agreement with the main barriers or problems that they encounter when deciding to travel in the United States. The scale contains 23 travel constraints statements. Examples of these statements include “lack of interest in traveling,” “lack of time and opportunities to travel,” and “lack of money to travel.” (See Appendix A for a complete list of travel constraints items).

Operationalization of Negotiation Strategies

In the constraints negotiation variable, the researcher aims to assess respondents’ strategies for overcoming the travel constraints. The items for these constructs are also obtained from Crawford et al. (1991); Chen et al. (2013); Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007); and Hung and Petrick (2012). The researcher asks respondents to assess their use of negotiation strategies in

overcoming travel constraints, using a 5-point scale where 1 means *strongly disagree* and 5 means *strongly agree*. The respondents are provided with 24 negotiation strategy items, such as “save up money to travel,” “find a destination that best fits within my budget,” and “try to find people with similar interests to accompany me in travel” (see Appendix A for a complete list of constraints negotiation items).

Operationalization of Self-Efficacy (Also Moderating Variable)

Scholars often assess self-efficacy by asking participants about their levels of confidence in performing certain behaviors (e.g., Bandura, 2006; Hung & Petrick, 2012). Following Hung and Petrick (2012), the researcher measures negotiation efficacy by asking study participants to rate their levels of confidence in performing each constraints negotiation strategy. The questionnaire uses a confidence scale (0 - 100%) in which 0% means “*cannot do at all*,” 50% means “*moderately can do*,” and 100% means “*highly certain can do*.” Examples of self-efficacy scale items include “I can save up money to travel,” “I can find people to accompany me in travel,” and “I can set aside time for traveling” (see Appendix A for a complete list of self-efficacy items).

Operationalization of Past Behavior

Past behavior is measured with a single statement based on Lam and Hsu (2006): “How many times have you visited a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)?” Four frequency categories are provided: “only once, 2-3 times, 4-5 times, and more than 5 times.”

3.4. Survey Instrument

The survey questionnaire's development is based on a comprehensive review of the relevant literature. In the questionnaire, the researcher starts with an introduction and follows this with eleven sections. A cover letter prefaces each questionnaire. In this cover letter, the researcher presents participants with (1) the researcher's name and contact information, (2) the researcher's advisor's name and contact information, (3) the dissertation's topic and aim, (4) an invitation to participate in the study, (5) the estimated time required to complete the survey, (6) an assurance that no known risk is associated with taking the survey, (7) an assurance of confidentiality, (8) a request that participants provide honest responses to all questions, and (9) appreciation for their participation. In sections two through eleven, participants respond to questions related to the scale items (indicators) that measure each construct based on existing measures or adaptations from similar scales.

In section one of the survey, participants are asked to respond to two screening questions and one question related to their frequency of travel in the United States. The screening questions ask respondents about their enrollment status in United States colleges and universities and about their academic level. In section two, the researcher inquires about their actual behavior and past behaviors of travel to gaming destinations. Section three of the questionnaire is designed to measure travel intention to a gaming destination. In section four of the survey, the researcher asks respondents to evaluate their religiosity levels. In section five of the survey, the researcher measures participants' attitudes toward

traveling to a gaming destination. In the sixth section of the questionnaire, the researcher asks respondents to assess the influence of significant others on their decision to choose a gaming destination. The seventh sections of the questionnaire are about push (reasons to travel) and pull (destination attributes) travel motivations. Sections eight and nine of the questionnaire are about travel constraints and constraints negotiation strategies. The ninth section of the questionnaire is about self-efficacy.

In section ten of the questionnaire, the questions pertain to measuring social desirability bias. This dissertation uses a shorter version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, or MCSDS, (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) recommended by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972). The short version of the MCSDS is a 10-item scale that uses a forced choice, “true” or “false,” format for responding to items. Total scores range from zero (low) to 10 (high social desirability). The MCSDS includes two factors: attribution and denial. Five items make up the attribution factor, which addresses an individual’s propensity to endorse items depicting socially approved, but uncommon, behaviors. A sample attribution item is “I’m always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.” Five items make up the denial factor, which addresses the tendency to deny socially disapproved, but common, behaviors. A sample denial item is “I like to gossip at times.”

In section eleven of the questionnaire, the researcher includes questions related to respondents' demographic characteristics, namely age, gender, academic level, major, nationality, socioeconomic status, and religious affiliation.

In this section, respondents are asked to leave their contact e-mail if they want to receive the reward (which is offered in order to increase the response rate).

3.5 Pretesting the Questionnaire

The first draft of the questionnaire is reviewed by three fellow graduate students enrolled in the Department of Hotel, Restaurants, and Tourism Management at the University of South Carolina. The researcher asks them to evaluate the questionnaire to (1) see if respondents have any difficulties understanding the wording and meaning of the questions, (2) ensure that appropriate and clear instructions are given, and (3) determine the average time needed to complete the questionnaire. In this process, the graduate students provide the researcher with some suggestions with regard to the wording of certain items and the clarification of instructions for certain questions. Based on these comments, the researcher is able to revise the questionnaire. Next, the researcher presents the questionnaire to the dissertation committee chair. The chair provides further comments related to rewording items, clarifying instructions, and modifying the invitation letter. All additional suggestions are included in the questionnaire before the pretesting stage.

In pretesting the questionnaire, eight Muslim students from different nationalities review the survey. The researcher uses the students' notes to revise the instrument. The revised questionnaire is then reviewed again by the dissertation committee chair. The final revision of the questionnaire is produced by taking into account all of the aforementioned recommendations.

3.6 Sampling and Data Collection

3.6.1 Sample Size

Sample size determination is a crucial issue for any statistical analysis. In addition, sample size is an important factor to assume the reliability and validity of any proposed model. This dissertation employs exploratory factor analysis and partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to test the proposed structural model and hypotheses. A critical question in factor analysis and PLS-SEM involves how large is the needed sample. Even though individual observations are not needed, as with all other multivariate methods, the sample size plays an important role in the estimation and interpretation of PLS-SEM results (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013).

Many researchers have addressed the sample size issue for the PLS-SEM technique (e.g., Hair et al., 2013). Although there is no one standard on the correct sample size, there are some rule of thumbs that helps in determining the sample size. Hair et al (2013) suggested a 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure a single construct. In addition, the ratio of respondents to items should increase with a ratio of 15 respondents for each item if the data violated the multivariate normality assumption. In this dissertation, the religiosity has the highest number of items (40 items). In addition, the researcher expect the violation of the multivariate normality assumption as it happen in most of the behavioral research. Therefore, the researcher intends to obtain the targeted usable sample size of a 600 or greater.

3.6.2 Data Collection

The target population of this dissertation is defined as adult Muslim students (eighteen years old and above) currently enrolled in undergraduate and graduate programs in one of the United States' private or public universities or colleges. Muslim students in various colleges and universities around the United States come from many countries around the world. Most if not all of the colleges and universities in the United States have some Muslim students. The exact Muslim student population in the United States is not known. Hence, no list of sampling frame exists. In addition, United States' universities and colleges are not allowed by law to provide the contact information of their international students. Therefore, based on the objectives of this research, its exploratory foundation, and the statistical assumptions, the researcher seeks a sample size of 600 Muslim students ($n=600$) and collects the data for this study through the following procedures:

Procedure 1: In the study, multistage sampling is modus operandi for creating a representative sampling scheme. This method is chosen because (1) the population is too large and scattered to make a comprehensive list from which to draw a systematic random sample, (2) the method is beneficial for the cost and speed with which the survey can be administered, (3) the method is beneficial for the convenience of finding the survey sample, (4) the method is normally more accurate than cluster sampling for the same size sample, and (5) the method allows the researcher to have closer supervision over data collection. Since the target population encompasses both undergraduate and graduate

Muslim students in the United States, the researcher first samples certain states, universities and colleges, and, finally, students within each selected university or college. Microsoft Excel is used to generate a randomized sample of the states. The random sampling of the states yields a sample of twenty states. These states are Alabama, California, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Iowa Kansas, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin. In the second stage, the researcher makes a list of 2 to 7 universities and colleges in each of these twenty states. The inclusion criteria for these universities and colleges include the following: (1) the university or college has an international students' office and (2) a large number of students come from Islamic countries. In the third stage, the researcher contacts the international students' offices (ISO) of the selected universities and colleges through e-mail. An individual e-mail is sent to the director of each ISO. In the message, the researcher greets the director, introduces himself, explains the purpose of the study, and provides an invitation to participate. In the message, the researcher also provides some suggestions as to how the study populations might be contacted. Of the twenty states, universities and colleges from sixteen states accept the invitation to participate in the study. Universities and colleges from California, Iowa, Virginia, and Wisconsin either reject the invitation or do not respond at all. In terms of universities, the researcher has contacted 87 universities and colleges. Of this number, 32 universities (36.8%) have accepted to participate in the study, 7 universities (8%) have disagree to participate, and

48 universities (55%) did not respond at all. Based on state sampling, the effective response rate is 80%. In the last stage, respondents are contacted by their respective ISO through e-mail.

Procedure 2: The Fulbright Foreign Student Program is a valuable resource in gaining access to Muslim students in the United States. The Fulbright Program is the international educational exchange program sponsored by the United States government and is designed to increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries. The Fulbright Program enables graduate students and young professionals from abroad to research and study for one year or longer at United States' universities or other appropriate institutions. The Fulbright Program awards students approximately 4,000 foreign grants annually. A large portion of these grants is allocated to students from Islamic countries. America-Mideast Educational and Training Services (AMIDEAST), which is one of the Fulbright exchange students' program organizations, agrees to distribute the questionnaire to its currently enrolled students. In assisting this research, AMIDEAST sends the survey link along with the invitation letter to students.

Using a web-based survey tool sent to each potential respondent, the researcher tests the hypotheses and corresponding conceptual model in Figure 3.2. In a single-page invitation to participate in the online version of the survey, the researcher includes an explanation of the survey, the website address, an assurance of confidentiality, and a thank you from the researcher. An online method of distribution is appropriate for this study because (1) it facilitates

national geographic dispersal of the survey (Aaker, Kumar, & Day, 2007; Gardiner, King, & Wilkins, 2013), (2) technology-based interaction is most suitable for younger generations who may be difficult to contact via postal mail or fixed-line telephone surveys (Gardiner et al., 2013) and is especially fitting given that this study targets college students, and (3) the online survey provides more anonymity, increasing the likelihood that participants will admit socially undesirable behavior (Aaker et al., 2007). To avoid receiving duplicate responses from each subject, the online survey company (Qualtrics) performs an Internet Protocol (IP) address check to match respondents' declared locations with their actual locations. As an appreciation for participants' time and to enhance the response rate, the researcher offers a \$10 Amazon gift card for the first 50 participants and a \$5 Amazon gift card for each following participant. Some researchers do not support the notion of giving incentives because such incentives may encourage those outside the study's target population to participate in the study. However, this problem is avoided, as the researcher only sends the survey link to the study's target populations as described in the data collection procedure. The study questionnaire is lengthy and requires more thought, and so offering the respondents some incentive shows that the researcher values their time and appreciates their willingness to spend it on completing the survey.

3.7 Data Analysis Methods

In this study, the researcher conducts a sample profile, factor analysis, and partial least square of structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). The

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) is used to clean the data, obtain descriptive statistics and the correlations of items, conduct exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and obtain the reliability of the scales. The hypotheses are tested via PLS-SEM using SmartPLS 3 software (Ringle et al., 2005).

The data is examined first for normality (by inspecting skewness and kurtosis), linearity (by inspecting scattering plots), and the presence of outliers. Histogram graphs provide a visual inspection. Then, the researcher conducts exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with maximum likelihood as an extraction method and varimax as a rotation method, in order to examine the links between the observed and latent variables. EFA is conducted to help in determining how many factors are measuring religiosity, push and pull motivations, travel constraints, and constraints negotiations. Although most of the measurement scales (except Islamic religiosity) have been used in previous literature, EFA will still be conducted because new items related to Muslim students' population are added to the scales. EFA will be used to discover the factor structure of every measure separately and to examine its internal reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is then performed to test the measurement structure of each latent construct in SmartPLS 3. The assessment of the adequacy of measurement models considers the reliability of indicators and constructs and the validity of constructs (e.g., convergent validity and discriminant validity). After the measurement model is validated, the researcher tests the conceptual model and hypothesized relationships using PLS-SEM with SmartPLS 3, in order to determine the overall fit of the proposed model with the data. This fit analysis

includes the causal relationships between major variables measured and the influences of constructs on behavioral intentions to travel. PLS-SEM is used rather than the traditional covariance-based structural equation model (CB-SEM) technique. PLS-SEM is an alternative analytical technique to CB-SEM, which as a trending approach generates reliable and valid results when the traditional SEM assumptions cannot be met (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Song van der Veen, Li, & Chen, 2012).

The researcher uses PLS-SEM through SmartPLS3 software because it has the ability to process larger, more complex models with multiple latent variables and indicators. PLS-SEM analysis also accommodates non-normally distributed data, which often turns up in behavioral studies (Chin, 1998; Gardiner et al., 2012). Although, the non-normal data could be handled in CB-SEM software by using the Bollen-Stine p-value rather than the usual maximum likelihood-based p-value to assess overall model fit, PLS analysis is more appropriate for this study, due to the theoretical model's multiple relationships and manifestation variables and the expected non-normal distribution of some constructs in the model. Additionally, PLS-SEM approach is more robust when the aim is prediction (Hair et al., 2012) as in this study. Hair et al. (2012) provide rules of thumb for when to select PLS-SEM for analysis. In Table 3.2, the researcher illustrates these rules and their applicability to this dissertation.

3.8 Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)

Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) is applied in this research to test the hypothesis illustrated in Table 3.1. PLS-SEM is used to

statistically examine whether the posited relationships between the observed indicators and their latent constructs, as well as the supposed structural relationships among the various constructs presented in the conceptual model (see Figure 3.2), hold at the population level. The PLS-SEM analysis is conducted in two steps: (1) validating the outer (measurement) model and (2) fitting the inner (structural) model (Chin, 1998). The researcher validates the outer model primarily by testing and checking convergent and discriminant validity and the reliability for all constructs. Fitting the inner model as the second step is accomplished primarily through path analysis with latent variables. In Table 3.3, the researcher illustrates the criteria and rules of thumb followed and used in applying the PLS-SEM analysis.

3.9 Validity

A commonly accepted definition of validity is the degree to which a scale measures the construct it intends to measure (Sirakaya-Turk, Uysal, Hammit, & Vaske, 2011). Although some disagree on the classification and types of validity that fall under the rules of validity, scholars accept three major validity tests (e.g., face and content validity, construct validity, and predictive validity) as essential to establishing general scale validity (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Oppenheim, 2000). To test and guarantee the validity of the aforementioned travel motivation, travel constraints, and religiosity scales, the researcher references suggested scale development procedure (Churchill, 1979; Hinkin, 1995; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003) and previous scale validation studies (Sirakaya-Turk, Ekinici, & Kaya, 2008; Yu, Chancellor, & Cole, 2009). In the

dissertation's next sections, the researcher illustrates the different validity tests that this study uses to ensure scale validity.

3.9.1 Face and Content Validity

The primary purpose of a face and content validity test is to guarantee that the items in a scale adequately measure the targeted construct. Although no strict procedure exists for testing face and content validity, Tull and Hawkins (1976) argue that content validity is a practical test because it can determine to what extent the scale items are both appropriate and comprehensive in measuring a construct. Face or content validity can best be judged after the scale items have been developed by potential measurement users or by experts who are familiar with the research domains (Kim & Ritchie, 2013). According to Babbie (1999), face or content validation is the essential first step in establishing the “goodness” of measures and is therefore open to criticism, since different judgments on the content validity of the scale may not always be in agreement. This scale's validity is established (1) through an extensive review of the relevant literature for developing scale items, in order to provide sufficient evidence for both the face validity and the content validity of study scales and (2) by conducting a pretest with eight Muslim students in the United States. The pretest study asks participants to report any problems regarding their ability to understand the questions.

3.9.2 Construct Validity

Construct validity is how well a scale instrument truly measures the construct that it intends to measure (Kim & Ritchie, 2013). Haynes, Nelson, and

Blaine (1999) emphasize the importance of construct validity, as it is the ultimate goal in development and encompasses all evidence bearing on a measure. To guarantee construct validity, researchers should ensure that the construct (1) be well defined, (2) be well represented by the scale items, and (3) display a strong relationship with similar constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The first criterion requires a clear definition of a construct. The second requires a strong relationship among the scale items that measure the same constructs to confirm internal consistency of the scale or its unidimensionality. The latter entails testing the relationship between the measured construct and the theoretically related variables. Tull and Hawkins (1976) conclude that this can be tested by two sorts of validity tests: convergent and discriminant. Convergent validity represents the degree to which various measures designed for the same construct are related, whereas discriminant validity represents the degree to which various measures designed for similar but conceptually different constructs are measurably unrelated. Hence, in observing discriminant validity, researchers see the evidence as to whether the scale provides a distinct and better measure. If the scale is multidimensional, a low to moderate intercorrelation is often considered evidence of discriminant validity. A violation of this term would mean that the scale dimensions overlap and that the discriminant validity of the scale is threatened.

Through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the researcher tests the construct validity of the current study scales, using SmartPLS 3. The average variance extracted (AVE) is computed to check whether the items measured are

reliable in evaluating each construct. The researcher also uses the AVE to examine the convergent and discriminant validity of the model. The AVE of each construct should exceed 0.50 to ensure convergent validity and should exceed the respective correlation estimate among factors to ensure discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2013).

3.9.3 Predictive Validity

Predictive validity is the extent to which the scale is able to predict some other external criteria or “a gold standard” (Haynes, Nelson, & Blaine, 1999). Researchers’ explorations of this procedure determine the extent to which a measure fits into a network of relationships or a nomological network (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Therefore, the predictive ability of the measuring instrument to estimate some criteria, which is external to the measuring instrument itself, can establish the nomological network (Kim & Ritchie, 2013). Normally, researchers use structural equation modeling, regression-based methods, and/or experimental methods in investigating both the theoretical relationship between different constructs and the empirical relationship between measures of those constructs (Bollen, 1989; Hoyle, 1995). On the basis of prior tourism research, the researcher expects that religiosity, travel motivation, travel constraints, self-efficacy, past behavior, subjective norms, and attitude affect individuals’ behavioral intentions. Scholars in tourism research have examined the consequences of these constructs. The literature review suggests that the travel motivation, subjective norms, attitude (e.g., Lam & Hsu, 2006), and travel constraints scales (e.g., Hung & Petrick, 2012) are predictors of future intention

to travel. However, scholars have not validated the religiosity construct in terms of its prediction. In this dissertation's second chapter, the researcher provides a comprehensive and thorough justification of the relationships among the dimensions of each scale dimension. Thus, the relation among the dimensions of study scales and the behavioral intention construct confirms the potential predictive validity of these scales (see Figure 3.2). To establish the predictive validity of each of the study scales, the model is tested through path analysis based on the hypothesized model in Figure 3.2. Following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendation, the researcher analyzes the data using a two-step approach, in which (1) the overall quality of measurement is confirmed and (2) the study conducts a test of the structural model.

3.10 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results (Sirakaya-Turk et al., 2011; Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, & Gursoy, 2013). Researchers assess the reliability of a construct by examining the indicator reliability and composite reliability (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Hair et al., 2012). Researchers haven't defined universally accepted cut-off values for indicator and composite reliability (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Nunkoo et al., 2013). However, composite reliability values of between 0.60 and 0.70 in exploratory research and between 0.70 and 0.90 in advanced research are considered desirable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For indicator reliability, researchers recommend that studies consider the removal of indicators with absolute standardized loadings between 0.40 and 0.70, if they

improve the composite reliability of the scale above the recommended values (Hair et al., 2011).

In this study, the researcher assesses the reliability of the measures by examining Cronbach's alpha and by calculating the composite reliability estimates. Specifically, since the study questionnaire includes multiple scales and subscales, reliability analysis is performed separately for these scales and subscales (Field, 2005). After running the exploratory factor analysis for the religiosity scale, motivation scales, travel constraints scale, and constraints negotiation scale, the researcher conducts the reliability test in SPSS to determine the degree to which each measure is free from error.

Table 3.1 Illustration of Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis Statement
H1a: Push motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher push motivations lead to higher intentions.
H1b: Pull motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher pull motivations lead to higher intentions.
H2a: Push motivation have a positive influence on attitudes toward gaming destinations. Individuals with a higher intensity of push travel motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.
H2b: Pull motivation have a positive influence on attitudes toward gaming destinations. The strong pull motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.
H3: Tourists' intention to travel to a gaming destination is positively related to their actual behaviors. If individuals have a stronger intention toward a behavior, then they will be more likely to perform the behavior.
H4: Muslims' attitudes positively influence their intentions to travel to gaming destinations. Positive attitudes toward gaming destinations result in a greater intention to choose gaming destinations.
H5: Subjective norms positively influence intention to travel. If a subjective norm is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.

H6: Travel constraints negatively influence travel intentions. If a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be less likely to intend to travel.

H7: Travel constraints positively influence travel constraints. The presence of travel constraints initiates the adoption of constraints negotiation strategies. If a person has more constraints, then this person will be more likely to use negotiation strategies.

H8: Constraints negotiation positively influences travel intentions. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person will be more likely to intend to travel.

H9: Self-efficacy positively influences travel intentions. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming constraints, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

H10: Self-efficacy positively influences negotiation strategies. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them.

H11: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

H12: Religiosity negatively influences behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist's religiosity is stronger, then this tourist will be less likely to choose a gaming destination.

H13: Religiosity negatively influences actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower.

H14: Religiosity negatively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then this person will have a more unfavorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination.

H15: Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and travel intention for gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be weaker. If a person's religiosity is weaker, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be stronger.

H16: Past behavior positively influences the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If past experiences are positive, then intentions are more likely to be stronger.

Table 3.2. Rules of Thumb for Selecting PLS-SEM Instead of CB-SEM Based on Hair et al. (2012)

Rules of Thumb	Applicability for this Study
<p>Rules Related to the Research Goal</p> <p>If the goal is predicting key target constructs or identifying key “drives” constructs, then PLS-SEM is recommended.</p> <p>If the research is exploratory or an extension of an existing structural theory, then PLS-SEM is recommended.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three of this dissertation’s objectives are related to predicting key target constructs (travel intention, actual behavior, and attitude). • In addition, the goal of this research is to identify the factors that drive Muslims’ intention to choose gaming destinations. • This research is exploratory in nature since no research has examined the effect of Islamic religiosity on Muslims’ travel intention before. • This research will also extend the existing TPB by including more constructs (travel motivation, travel constraints, constraints negotiation, self-efficacy, and religiosity).
<p>Rules Related to Measurement Model Specifications</p> <p>If formative constructs are part of the structural model, then PLS-SEM is preferable.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some of the study’s constructs are formative.
<p>Rules Related to the Structural Model</p> <p>If the structural model is complex (has many constructs and many indicators), then PLS-SEM is recommended.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This research structural model is very complex. The model is constituted of first and second order constructs and approximately 200 indicators.
<p>Rules Related to Data Characteristics and Algorithms</p> <p>PLS-SEM minimum sample size should be equal to ten times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct.</p> <p>If the data are to some extent non-normal, then PLS-SEM is recommended.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The religiosity construct is the biggest construct, since it has 40 indicators. This study sample size is 679 ($n=679$); therefore the PLS-SEM meets this rule of thumb and is appropriate for the analysis. • Some of this study’s scales do not meet the normality assumptions (for example, the religiosity construct). Therefore, PLS-SEM is chosen for the analysis.

Table 3.3. Criteria /Rules of Thumb for Applying PLS-SEM

Criterion	Recommendations/Rules of Thumb	Reference
PLS-SEM Algorithm Settings and Software Used		
Starting values for weights for initial approximation of the latent variable scores	Use a uniform value of 1 as an initial value for each of the outer weights	Henseler, 2010
Weighting scheme	Use the path weighting scheme	Henseler, 2010; Henseler et al., 2009
Maximum number of iterations	300	Ringle et al., 2005
Software used	SmartPLS 3	
Outer Model Evaluation		
Indicator reliability	Standardized indicator loadings ≥ 0.40 ; in exploratory studies, loadings of 0.40 are acceptable	Hulland, 1999; Hair et al., 2011
Internal consistency reliability	Cronbach's alpha; composite reliability ≥ 0.70	Bagozzi & Yi, 1988
Convergent validity	AVE ≥ 0.50	Bagozzi & Yi, 1988
Discriminant validity Fornell-Larcker criterion	Each construct's AVE should be higher than its squared correlation with any other construct	Fornell & Larcker, 1981
Cross loadings	Each indicator should load highest on the construct it intends to measure	Chin, 1998; Grégoire & Fisher, 2006
Indicators' relative contribution to the construct	Report indicator weights	Hair et al., 2011
Significance of weights	Report t-values, p-values, or standard errors	Hair et al., 2011
Multicollinearity	VIF < 5 / tolerance > 0.20 ; condition index < 30	Hair et al., 2011
Inner Model Evaluation		
R ²	Acceptable level depends on research context	Hair et al., 2013
Effect size f ²	0.02, 0.15, 0.35 for weak, moderate, strong effects	Cohen, 2013
Path coefficient estimates	Use bootstrapping to assess significance; provide confidence intervals	Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009
Predictive relevance Q ² and q ²	Use blindfolding; Q ² > 0 is indicative of predictive relevance; q ² : 0.02, 0.15, 0.35 for weak, moderate, strong degrees of predictive relevance	Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009

Source: Hair et al. (2011).

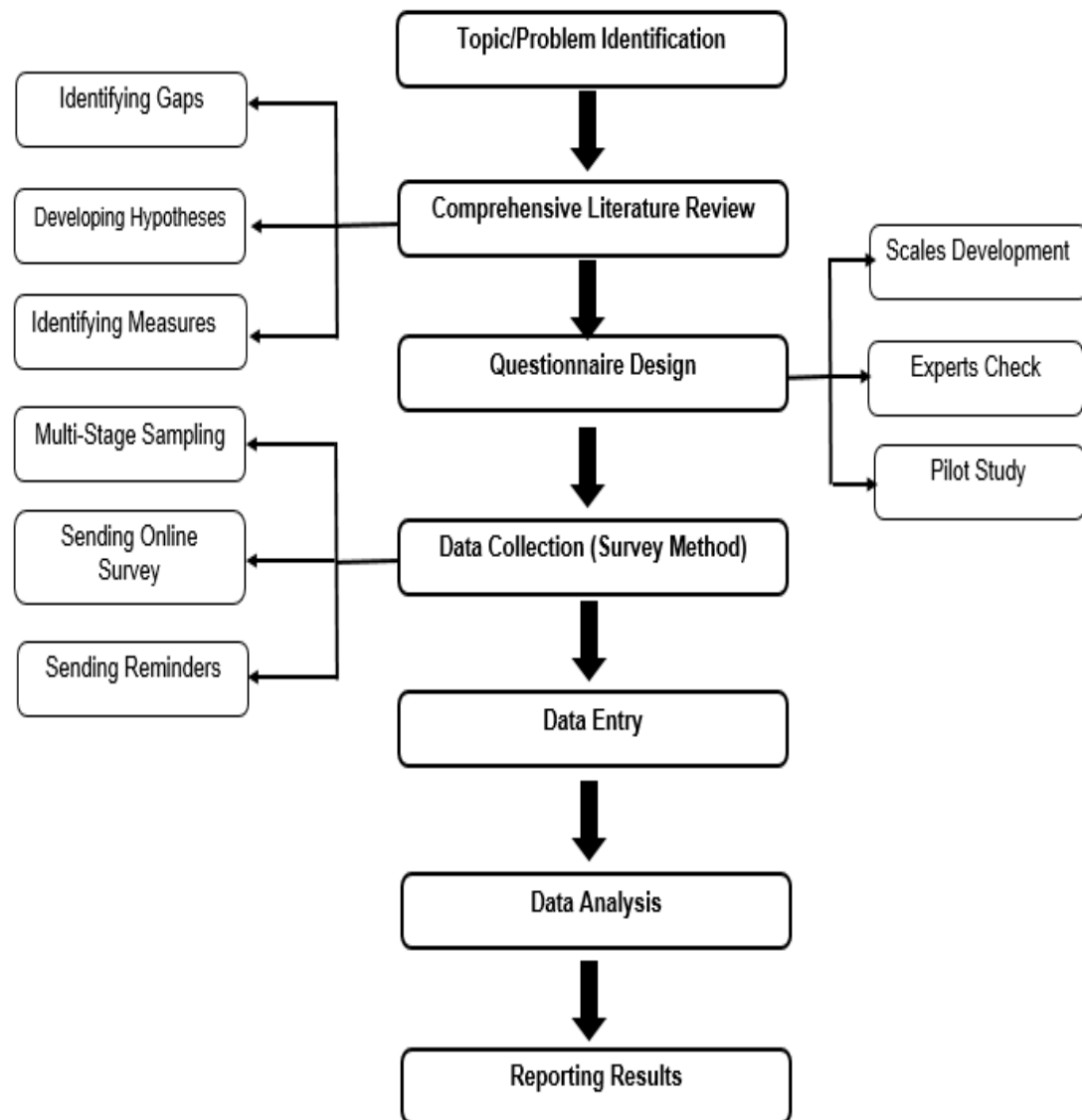


Figure 3.1. The Research Process

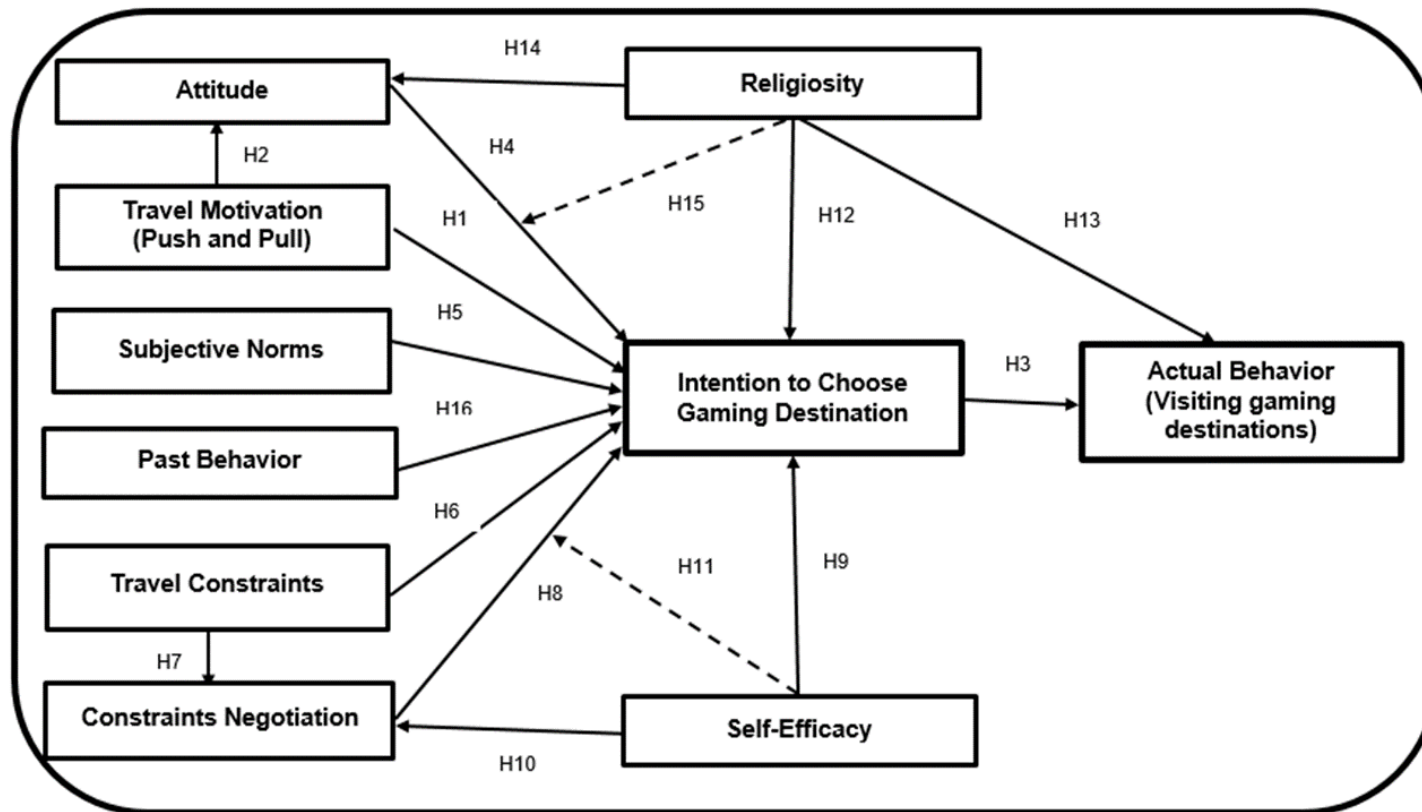


Figure 3.2. The Conceptual Model

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The results of data analyses and hypotheses testing are presented in this chapter. This chapter includes: (a) an overview about the data representativeness (b) the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, (c) general travel information about the respondents, (d) descriptive information about the study variables, (e) exploratory factor analysis results of study constructs, (f) the confirmatory factor analysis results, (g) validity and reliability analyses, and (h) the results of the hypothesis tests.

4.1 Data Collection Result

The target population of this study is defined as adult Muslim students (eighteen years old and above) currently enrolled in undergraduate and graduate programs in one of the United States' private or public universities or colleges. Therefore, 2,724 Muslim students were contacted either through their university international student offices (ISO) or through Department of State's Fulbright Foreign Student Program administered by AMIDEAST. A total of 2,027 students have responded to the questionnaire (preliminary response rate = 74.4%). Every response was carefully checked by the researcher for completeness and accuracy. Responses were dropped from further analyses if they are incomplete or if they are filled out by non-Muslims as the target population was the Muslim students. This procedure has resulted in eliminating 1,316 questionnaires. The remaining usable questionnaires were 711 bringing the effective response rate

down to 50% ($2,724 - 1,316 = 1,408$ respondents. $711 \times 100/1,408 = 50\%$). In order to validate the results of the study, the researcher needs to assess the extent and the nature of the potential bias which may have resulted from the answers of the non-respondents and/or social desirability bias. The following two subsections will include the discussion of these two potential biases and their impact on the data representativeness.

4.1.1 Non-response Bias

In order for the results to have a higher validity and generalizability beyond the sample of Muslim students under examination, potential answers of non-respondents should not differ from the respondents. In such a case, nonresponse bias will not jeopardize the results of the findings (Erdos, 1970). To assess non-response bias, the respondents were categorized into two groups: (1) early responders (participation without reminder) and (2) late responders (participants after the reminder). Then, a series of socio-demographic questions and five of religiosity items were checked and compared through cross tabulation. Chi square results were used to check any differences between the two groups. The results indicated no differences between early and late respondents in all the variables except for two variables; (1) the university academic levels and (2) Islamic affiliation variable. The number of graduate students' were significantly more in later response group than on the early response group (see Tables 4.1a and 4.1b). This was expected since all of the Fulbright students were contacted later by AMIDEAST. With regards to the difference in Islamic affiliation between the early and late groups, in later group the Shi'aa affiliated respondents

significantly increased compared to early group (see Tables 4.2a and 4.2b). This could be attributed to the probability that some Shi'aa participants received the survey later by their respective International Student Offices or there might be more shi'aa participants from the Fulbright students. In overall Muslim population Shi'aa Muslims considered small group in comparison with Sunni Muslims. This study findings are in line with this fact. Shi'aa represents 13% of the study sample. Hence, this dissertation sample is thought to be free from non-response bias.

4.1.2 Social Desirability Bias

The need to examine social desirability as a response tendency with self-report measures has been well documented and continues to be a methodological consideration in research (Maher, 1978). Social desirability bias is the tendency for responses to reflect what is presumed to be desired, rather than the truth. As explained in chapter III, section ten of the questionnaire contains questions pertaining to social desirability bias. This researcher used a shorter version of Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (MCSDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) recommended by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972). The short version of MCSDS is a 10-item measurement that uses a forced choice, "True" or "False" format for responding to items. Total scores range from zero (low) to 10 (high social desirability). The MCSDS has two factors: Attribution and Denial. Five items make up the Attribution factor, which addresses an individual's propensity to endorse items depicting socially approved, but uncommon, behaviors. A sample Attribution item is "I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake."

Five items make up the Denial factor, which addresses the tendency to deny socially disapproved, but common, behaviors. A sample Denial item is “I like to gossip at times.”

To check for the social desirability bias, the researcher follows 2 steps procedures. First, the researcher assigns each respondent a social desirability score based on their answers to the questions. The scores ranged from minimum of 0 to maximum of 6. In the second step, the researcher highlighted respondents with high scores. The response considered biased if the respondents scores more than 6 points. 32 respondents scored more than 6 points and therefore the researcher decided to drop these responses from the study. Hence, the total remaining sample consists of 679 respondents.

4.2 Characteristics of the Respondents

4.2.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

In order to obtain adequate descriptive profile about the study sample, respondents were asked to provide information about their socio-demographic characteristics of gender, age, marital status, academic level, place of origin, Islamic affiliation, source of income, and total personal monthly income. Table 4.3 illustrate the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Of the 678 respondents, 416 (61.3%) were male, whereas 262 (38.3%) were female respondents. The majority of the respondents were middle aged. The largest age group of the respondents was 27-30 years old (27.8%), followed by the group of 22-26 (25.5%) and 31-35 (18.0%), then the age group 36 or above was 89 (13.1%), and lastly the youngest group 18-25 includes 70

respondents (10.3%). Most of the respondents were single (60.1%), whereas 38.0% of the respondents were married and 1.8% were either divorced or separated. In terms of academic level, 58.7% of the respondents were graduate students, 30.9% of the respondents were undergraduate, and 6.5% were in English programs (pre academic). In regards to the respondents place of origin, the majority were from Middle East and North Africa (58.5%), followed by South and Central Asia (21.1%), East Asia (9.6%), Europe (7.5%), and 3% from North America. Of the 677 respondents who reported their Islamic affiliation, 422 (62.2%) were Sunni, whereas 92 (13.5%) respondents identified themselves as Shia'a and 65 (9.6%) as Ibathi. The other 20 (2.9%) respondents preferred not to report their Islamic Affiliation. With regards to monthly personal income, 27.2% of the respondents reported a monthly personal income between \$1251 to \$1500, whereas 25.5% reported income of \$1751 or more. About 18.9% of the respondents had the monthly personal income in the range of \$1501 to \$1750. All other respondents (around 28%) reported a monthly personal income of \$1250 or less. In terms of the source of income, the vast majority of the survey participants reported that they were in assistantship/scholarship (72.2%), followed by self as source of income (32.5%), parents (22.7%), and savings (9.1%). The respondents were allowed to choose more than one option as a source of income.

4.2.2 Travel Behaviors of the Respondents

The respondents travel behaviors consisted of (1) travel frequencies in the United States (2) history of travel to gaming destinations (3) frequency of visiting

gaming destinations, and (4) purpose of visit to gaming destinations. Table 4.4 illustrates the respondents travel behavior. Among the respondents, 33.1% reported that they travel between three to five times in the United States during their program of study, 25.2% traveled one to times, 21.6% traveled 6 to 10 times, 11.2% traveled more than 10 times, and only 8.1% reported never traveled in the United States during their program of study. Of the 679 respondents, 258 (38%) reported that they have visited gaming destination before, whereas 421 respondents (62%) reported that they have never visited a gaming destination in their life. Among those who visited gaming destinations (n=259), the majority (45.6%) have only traveled once to a gaming destination, 32.4% traveled between two to three times to a gaming destination, 19.3% reported more than five times frequency of travel to a gaming destination, and only 2.7% reported four to five times travel to a gaming destination. With regard to the purpose of visit to gaming destinations, the respondents generally travel for leisure purposes (60.5%), both leisure and business (26%), education (5.8%), visiting friends and relatives (5.4%), and for business purposes (2.3%).

4.3 Descriptive Information about the Study Variables

As the data were transferred from Qualtrics to SPSS, frequency distribution for each variable in the study was examined to ensure that the data were clean and ready for the analysis. After reviewing the frequency distribution results, measures of central tendency were run for each of the variables in the study. The mean, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis of each of the variables are presented in Appendix B tables.

Screening continuous variables for normality is an important early step in almost every multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). To evaluate the normality of the data distribution, the skewness and kurtosis of each variable were assessed. Skewness has to do with the symmetry of the distribution; a skewed variable is a variable whose mean is not in the center of the distribution. Kurtosis has to do with the peakedness of a distribution; a distribution is either too peaked (with short, thick tails) or too flat (with long, thin tails) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). When a distribution is normal, the values of skewness and kurtosis are zero. If there is a positive skewness, there is a pileup of cases to the right and the left tail is too long; with negative skewness, there is a pileup of cases to the left and the right tail is too long. Kurtosis value above zero indicate a distribution that is too peaked, and kurtosis values below zero indicate a distribution that is too flat.

SPSS software was used to generate the skewness and kurtosis values for each of the variables in the model. For the calculated skewness and kurtosis values, zero assumes perfect normality in the data distribution which is rarely achieved in behavioral studies. Z value of ± 2.58 indicating the rejection of the normality assumption at the 0.01 probability level, and ± 1.96 signifies a 0.05 error level (Hair et al. 1998). By applying the above criteria to the skewness values for each of the variables listed in Appendix A, it is clear that no variable fell outside the ± 1.96 range for skewness. Therefore, this outcome implies that all of the study variables are acceptably free from skewness, suggesting that the data used in the study do not violate normal distribution assumption. With respect

to kurtosis, Appendix B indicates that some variables (especially under religiosity scale) fell outside ± 2.56 range for kurtosis. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that some variables were leptokurtic or platykurtic. Therefore, the PLS-SEM will be applied for confirmatory factor analysis, model structure analysis and moderation effects. PLS-SEM is able to deal with non-normally distributed data.

4.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results

In order to find the possible underlying dimensions of possible dimensional constructs in this dissertation, exploratory factor analysis is conducted with maximum likelihood as extraction method and varimax rotation as rotation method (promax was used as rotation method for religiosity construct). The main purpose of using factor analysis is to generate a smaller subset of measurement variables from a large set of data. Kaiser (1974) suggested that factors with eigenvalues less than 1, and items with factor loadings and communalities of less than 0.40, should be removed from the final factor structure. For further confirmatory factor analysis, items with communality and factor loadings greater than 0.40 were the only ones kept. This rule of thumb is applied to all of the below EFA procedure. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant for all the constructs ($p < 0.000$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics ranged from 0.79 to 0.91. Therefore, the data were appropriate for the proposed statistical procedure of EFA (Hair et al., 2006).

4.4.1 Push Motivation Exploratory Factor Analysis

The 32 items related to push travel motivation were analyzed. Seven items, "Talk about my vacation when I get home (relive it)", "Go places friends

haven't visited", "Find thrills and excitement", "Visit places recommended by friends", "Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends", "Visit relatives and friends", and "Experience good food" were deleted due to low loadings. EFA resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 51.59% of the total variance (Table 4.5). The Cronbach's alpha within each factor was used in order to check the internal consistency of the factors. Each push factor was labelled according to the common characteristics of the variables it contained. The analysis indicated that the total variance explained is 51.59% which is acceptable (Hair et al. 1998; Streiner, Norman & Cairney, 2014), as are Cronbach's alphas for all factors that emerged, ranging between 0.81 and 0.88 (see Table 4.5). This variance explained percentage is also common in travel motivation research (see e.g., Fodness 1994; Jang et al., 2009; Nyaupane et al., 2011). The first push factor, labelled "Learning and Novelty", comprised seven items. This factor explained 33.40% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.88. The second push factor, labelled "Escape and Relaxation", included five items. This factor explained 8.66% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.83. The third push factor, labelled "Socialization", comprised seven items. This factor explained 5.39% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.81. The fourth push factor, labelled "Prestige and Social Recognition", included five items. This factor explained 4.15% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.82.

4.4.2 Pull Motivation Exploratory Factor Analysis

Of the 35 items related to pull travel motivation were analyzed, 23 items were retained. 12 items, “A variety of shopping places”, “A close proximity to where I live”, “A manageable size to see everything”, “A culture different from my own”, “Wildness and undisturbed nature”, “Outstanding scenery”, “Museums/art galleries/local crafts/handiwork”, “Historical/archeological/military sites”, “opportunities to increase my knowledge”, “A standard of hygiene/cleanliness”, “Personal safety”, and “A variety of short guided excursions/tours” were deleted due to low loadings.

EFA resulted in five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 58.53% of the total variance (Table 4.6). In order to assess the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach’s alpha within each factor was employed separately. Each pull factor was labelled according to the common characteristics of the variables it contained. The first pull factor, labelled “Halal Products and Services”, comprised six items. This factor explained 25.14% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.92. The second pull factor, labelled “Available Information and Activities”, included five items. This factor explained 16.74% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.88. The third pull factor, labelled “Dining and Entertainment”, comprised five items. This factor explained 7.99% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.76. The fourth pull factor, labelled “Beaches and Exotic Atmosphere”, included four items. This factor explained 5.04% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.79. The fifth pull factor, labelled “Amusements and Water Activities”,

comprised three items. This factor explained 3.60% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.71.

4.4.3 Travel Intention Exploratory Factor Analysis

All of the four items related to travel intention to gaming destinations were retained. EFA resulted in one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which explained 65.89% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.88. Table 4.7 illustrates the results of travel intention's EFA.

4.4.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Attitudinal Scale

Table 4.8 illustrates the results of the attitude's EFA. All of the seven items related to attitude were retained (Unpleasant-Pleasant, Unfavorable-Favorable, Unenjoyable-Enjoyable, Boring-Fun, Negative-Positive, Gloomy-Exciting, Sinfull-Virtuous (Not sinful). EFA procedure resulted in one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which explained 74.72% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.95. Accordingly, the attitude scale is suitable for further use in PLS-SEM analyses.

4.4.5 Subjective Norms Exploratory Factor Analysis

All of the eight items related to subjective were retained. EFA procedure resulted in a unidimensional solution to be identified with eigenvalues greater than 1, which explained 62.87% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.93. The result of the subjective norms EFA is presented in Table 4.9.

4.4.5 Travel Constraints Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to determine the underlying domains of travel constraints, EFA is conducted. Of the 24 items related to travel constraints were analyzed, 18 items

were retained. Six items, “Lack of information”, “Gambling is morally wrong”, “Safety concerns”, “Lack of communication skills”, “Travel not being compatible with my family’s lifestyle”, and “Feeling discomfort due to my religion” were deleted due to low loadings.

EFA resulted in five factors with eigenvalues greater than one, which together explained 60.74% of the total variance (Table 4.10). In order to assess the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach’s alpha within each factor was performed separately. Each travel constraint factor was labelled according to the common characteristics of the variables it contained. The first travel constraint factor, labelled “Structural Constraints”, comprised four items. This factor explained 36.33% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.83. The second travel constraint factor, labelled “Religious Constraints”, included three items. This factor explained 10.17% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.85. The third travel constraints factor, labelled “Interpersonal Constraints”, comprised four items. This factor explained 6.55% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.84. The fourth factor, labelled “Intrapersonal Constraints”, included four items. This factor explained 4.09% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.76. The fifth travel constraints factor, labelled “Family Constraints”, comprised three items. This factor explained 3.59% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.73.

4.4.6 Constraints Negotiation Strategies Exploratory Factor Analysis

Of the 24 items related to travel constraints negotiation strategies were analyzed, 20 items were retained. Four items, “Ignore the problem and not think

about it”, “Think about the importance and advantage of travel”, “Ignore the disapproval of others”, and “Travel alone or in a group” were deleted due to low loadings.

EFA resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than one, which together almost explained 52% of the total variance. This percentage is acceptable (Hair et al. 2006; Streiner et al., 2014), as are Cronbach’s alphas for all factors that emerged, ranging between 0.79 and 0.86 (see Table 4.11). This variance explained percentage is also common in constraints research (see e.g., Huang & Hsu, 2009; Priporas & Vassiliadis, 2014). In order to assess the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach’s alpha within each factor was performed separately. Each negotiation strategies factor was labelled according to the common characteristics of the variables it contained. The first negotiation strategies factor, labelled “Finance and Time Management”, comprised five items. This factor explained 31.57% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.86. The second negotiation strategies factor, labelled “Changing Plans & Skills Acquisitions”, included eight items. This factor explained 10.39% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.79. The third negotiation strategies factor, labelled “Selecting Value Destinations”, comprised three items. This factor explained 6.21% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.84. The fourth factor, labelled “Changing Interpersonal Relations”, included four items. This factor explained 3.81% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.82.

4.4.6 Islamic Religiosity Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to determine the underlying domains of Islamic religiosity EFA is conducted. 40 items related to Islamic religiosity were analyzed using Maximum likelihood as extraction method and promax as a rotation method. Promax rotation method is applicable if it can be assumed that factors are correlated between each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Most of the religiosity scale items in this study found to be correlated. Hence, Promax rotation is used. Promax rotation produces both factor pattern and factor structure matrices. The factor structure matrix represents the correlations between the variables and the factors. The factor pattern matrix contains the coefficients for the linear combination of the variables. Factor structure was reached in both pattern and structure matrix. Table 4.12 presents the pattern matrix of factor analysis. Three items, “I perform the obligatory zakat (almsgiving)”, “I always keep myself away from earning a living through haram (forbidden) means/acts”, and “I know the necessary knowledge about my religion”, were deleted due to low loadings.

EFA resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than one, which together explained 59.94% of the total variance (Table 4.12). In order to assess the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach’s alpha within each factor was employed separately. Each Islamic religiosity factor was labelled according to the common characteristics of the variables it contained. The first Islamic religiosity factor, labelled “Islamic Beliefs”, comprised of 13 items. This factor explained 41.68% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.94. The second Islamic religiosity factor, labelled “Islamic Practices and Ritual

Behaviors”, included 11 items. This factor explained 8.55% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.93. The third Islamic religiosity factor, labelled “Forbidden Behaviors”, comprised of seven items. This factor explained 6.41% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.89. The fourth factor, labelled “Avoiding Sinning”, contained five items. This factor explained 3.29% of the total variance and overall reliability alpha of 0.79.

4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results

The purpose of CFA is to statistically test the ability of the hypothesized factor model to reproduce the sampled data. In CFA, the researcher specifies a certain number of factors, which are correlated and observed variables measuring each factor (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Therefore, in this section, a series of CFA are conducted to confirm the measurement scale properties of the eight constructs proposed in the model: Push Motivation, Pull Motivation, Travel Intention, Attitude, Subjective Norms, Travel Constraints, Negotiation Strategies, and Islamic Religiosity. By employing CFA, each measurement model is confirmed in terms of stipulating the relationship between the latent factors and their indicator variables. CFA is conducted on the basis that the observed variables are not perfect indicators for the underlying constructs. Therefore, each construct in the measurement model is tested separately.

In this dissertation analysis, EFA and CFA are conducted with same data set for three reasons: (1) findings in statistical analysis reflect property of the data set. Thus, different data set may/will produce a different result of the test. Thus, performing both EFA and CFA on the same data reduces such a possibility (Hair,

Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006); (2) there is no agreed on cutoff point when comparing the results of EFA and CFA when using split data procedure; (3) the aim of this dissertation is prediction using PLS-SEM analysis approach. Therefore, predictive generalization where the model estimated from the sample provides sufficiently accurate predictions for new records from that population (out-of-sample prediction) is more relevant to this study. Using a model to generate out-of-sample predictions for new observations is both practically useful as well as essential for scientific model development (Sharma, Sarstedt, Shmueli, & Kim, 2015). Accordingly, predictive power is suitable for evaluating the relevance of models, for comparing theories, and for developing new measures, (Sharma et al., 2015). Thus, in this dissertation uses PLS-SEM which trades optimality for flexibility and the capability to predict (Becker, Rai, Ringle, & Völckner, 2013). The ability to predict is one of the most reasons for using PLS-SEM over CB-SEM, which allow the use of predictive metrics Stone-Geisser's Q2 to measure the actual out-of-sample prediction abilities of the study model. The Q2 value is obtained by using the blindfolding procedure. Blindfolding is a sample re-use technique that starts with the first data point and omits every d-th data point in the endogenous construct's indicators. Then, the process estimates the PLS path model parameters by employing the remaining data points. The omitted data points are considered missing values and treated accordingly when running the PLS-SEM algorithm (e.g., by using mean value replacement). The resulting estimates are then used to predict the omitted data points. The difference

between the true (e.g., omitted) data points and the predicted ones is then used as input for the Q^2 measure (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelwieser, 2014).

The analyses were conducted using SmartPLS 3 (Hair et al. 2012). As discussed in chapter III, PLS-SEM is used rather than the traditional covariance-based structural equation model (CB-SEM) technique. PLS-SEM is an alternative analytical technique to CB-SEM, which as a trending approach generates reliable and valid results when the traditional SEM assumptions cannot be met (Hair et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012). In this dissertation, the researcher uses PLS-SEM through Smart PLS3 software because it has the ability to process larger, more complex models with multiple latent variables and indicators. PLS-SEM analysis also accommodates non-normally distributed data (Chin, 1998; Gardiner et al., 2012), which the case in this study as presented in section 4.2. In addition, PLS analysis is appropriate for this study due to the multiple relationships and manifestation variables employed in the theoretical model.

The first step in conducting the CFA is to conduct the outer loading analysis to remove weak indicators from the model. According to Hulland (1999) and Hair et al (2012), in exploratory studies, loadings of 0.40 are acceptable. However, in this dissertation all items loadings are above 0.70 except for three items. As such, more than 50% of the variance in the observed variables could be explained by the underlying construct (Hulland, 1999). The exceptions were items “Pull1” loading is 0.59, item “Pull19” loading is 0.65, and item “NEG19” loading is 0.60. Tables 4.13 illustrates the CFA results for all constructs.

4.6 Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) Analysis

The statistical analysis to test the dissertation hypotheses is developed during the systematic evaluation required for all PLS-SEM models. The researcher first evaluates the outer model (measurement model) for each construct and then the inner model (structural model) by relating the constructs to each other. The two-stage approach was used to analyze first and second order constructs. First, latent variable scores are initially estimated without the second-order construct present, but with all of the first-order constructs within the model. Second, latent scores are saved during analysis and then used as indicants in a separate higher-order structural model analysis. It is typical in PLS-SEM to use factor scores to run path analysis. The concepts, results of the analysis, and the impact for the model are explained in this section of the chapter.

4.6.1 Outer Model Analysis (Measurement Model)

A reflective measurement model presumes that indicators are caused by the underlying construct or latent variable. Evaluation of the reflective measurement model involves examinations of: (1) internal consistency, (2) convergent validity, and (3) discriminant validity. Internal consistency considers two elements for evaluation: Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability. Cronbach's alpha provides an evaluation of reliability based on the intercorrelation of the observed indicators variable and assumes that all indicators are similarly reliable. PLS-SEM prioritizes the indicators according to their individual reliability. PLS-SEM also uses Composite Reliability as a stricter measure of internal consistency since it takes into account the different outer

loadings of the indicators variables. Composite Reliability varies between 0 and 1 and is generally interpreted in a similar way as Cronbach's alpha, where higher values indicate higher levels of reliability. Composite Reliability values between 0.60 and 0.70 are acceptable in exploratory research. However, values below 0.60 indicate a lack of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2013). Considering the exploratory nature of the research, the results indicate robust values for both Composite Reliability (0.79 to 0.96) and Cronbach's alpha (0.71 to 0.96) except for one factor of negotiation strategies construct (Changing Plans and Skills Acquisition, Cronbach's alpha = 0.65). However, this value is still above the threshold value of 0.60 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994 & Hair et al. 2012).

Therefore, the proposed model shows internal consistency reliability. Table 4.13 illustrates the results for both Composite Reliability and Cronbach's alpha.

To evaluate convergent validity, as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) guidelines, each construct's AVE was calculated. The results support convergent validity, since they all exceed 0.50, ranging from 0.53 to 0.78 (see table 4.13).

Discriminate validity was examined based on Fornell and Larcker (1981) guidelines, to assess if a construct is more strongly related to its own measures than with any other construct by examining the overlap in variance by comparing the AVE of each construct with the squared correlations among constructs (Chin, 2010). Table 4.14 shows the correlations between constructs, where the diagonal elements are the square roots of the AVEs. As shown, the square root of each construct's AVE is larger than its correlations with any other construct. Therefore,

each construct shares more variance with its own block of indicators than with another latent variable representing a different block of indicators (Henseler et al., 2009), supporting the adequate discriminant validity of all the scales.

Discriminant validity was additionally checked by extracting the factors and cross loadings of all indicators to their respective constructs. Not only should each indicator be strongly related to the construct it attempts to reflect, but also should not have a stronger connection with another construct (Chin, 2010). The results presented in Table 4.14, show that all indicators loaded on their respective construct more highly than on any other, confirming that the constructs are distinct.

4.6.2 Inner Model Analysis (Structural Model)

Reflective measurement models need to demonstrate reliability and validity to move to the next phase. Adequate outcomes for the measurement model are a prerequisite for evaluating the relationships in the inner model (Hair et al., 2013). This study outer model has been proven to have internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. It is therefore suitable for the inner model evaluation. The inner model proposed in this dissertation is evaluated with several measures, following Henseler et al. (2009, 2012) and Hair et al. (2013) recommendations.

Path coefficients represent the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. They have standardized values between -1 and +1. Estimated path coefficients close to +1 represent strong positive relationships. The closer the estimated coefficients are to 0, the weaker the relationships. The significance of

a coefficient is ultimately determined through the calculation of the empirical t-values obtained by means of bootstrapping. The goal of PLS-SEM is to identify not only significant path coefficients in the structural model but significant and relevant effects. Bootstrapping is used to assess the significance of path coefficient. The minimum number of bootstrap samples must be at least as large as the number of valid observations and ideally is 5,000 (Hair et al. 2012). The commonly used critical value for the two-tailed t-test is 1.96 for significance level of 5% (Hair et al., 2013). Table 4.15 presents the model path coefficients, standard error, t-values, p-values, and lower and upper confidence intervals. In addition, Figure 4.1 depicts graphically all path coefficients. The combined analysis of path coefficients, t-values, and p-values indicates that all path coefficients are significant except four; Islamic Religiosity -> Travel Intention, Negotiation Strategies -> Travel Intention, Push Motivation -> Travel Intention, and Self-Efficacy -> Travel Intention).

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy and represents the amount of variance in an endogenous construct explained by all exogenous constructs linked to it. R^2 values range from 0 to 1 with higher values indicating higher levels of predictive accuracy. The range for acceptable R^2 depends on the type of study. For consumer behavior studies, values of 0.20 are considered high. In marketing studies, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 for the endogenous construct can be described as substantial, moderate, and weak respectively (Hair et al., 2013). Henseler et al. (2009) indicates that 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 are substantial, moderate, and weak

values. Researchers seek models that are good at explaining the data with high R^2 values but also parsimonious with few exogenous constructs. Figure 4.2 shows the R^2 for this dissertation endogenous latent variables. In particular, the R^2 values of 0.17, 0.28, 0.57, and 0.19 for negotiation strategies, attitude, travel behavioral intention, and actual behavior, respectively, reflecting a model with solid predictive accuracy.

Besides R^2 , the strength of inner model is evaluated by calculating predictive relevance (Q^2). The model's predictive relevance is tested with the Stone-Geisser Q^2 value. Q^2 predicts the data points in reflective measurement models of endogenous constructs and endogenous single-item constructs. Q^2 are obtained by running a blindfolding procedure, which is a sample reuse technique that omits select data point in the endogenous construct's indicators and estimates the parameters with the remaining data. Q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 are considered weak, moderate, and strong degree of predictive relevance (Hair et. al., 2012). Tables 4.16 provides a summary of Q^2 . The results of Q^2 ranged from 0.16 to 0.55 and indicates moderate to very strong degree of predictive relevance (see Table 4.16).

4.7 Analysis of Hypotheses

Since the outer model evaluation provided evidence of reliability and validity, the inner model estimates were examined to assess the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the conceptual model (Hair et al. 2013). The standardized path coefficients and significance levels provide evidence of the inner model's quality (Hair et al. 2012) and allows the researcher to test the

proposed hypotheses. If an estimated t-value is greater than a certain critical value ($p < .05$, t-value = 1.96) the null hypothesis that the associated estimated parameter is equal to 0 is rejected (Kline, 2005). Therefore, the hypothesized relationship is supported. The path coefficients and significance levels are presented in Figure 4.1 and 4.2. In this section, a total of 16 hypotheses are tested by using PLS-SEM.

Hypotheses 1b, 2a, 2b, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, and 16 were supported, whereas hypotheses 1a, 6, 8, 9, and 12 were not supported. The relationship relating to hypothesis 1b (pull motivation to travel intention), hypothesis 2a (push motivation to attitude), hypothesis 2b (pull motivation to attitude), hypothesis 3 (travel intention to actual behavior), hypothesis 4 (attitude to travel intention), hypothesis 5 (subjective norms to travel intention), hypothesis 7 (travel constraints to negotiation strategies), hypothesis 9 (self-efficacy to negotiation strategies), hypothesis 11 (Islamic religiosity to actual behavior), hypothesis 12 (Islamic religiosity to attitude), and hypothesis 14 (past behavior to travel intention) report significant (t value greater than 1.96).

In contrast, four hypotheses were not supported. The relationships relating to hypothesis 1a (push motivation to travel intention), hypothesis 8 (negotiation strategies to travel intention), hypothesis 10 (self-efficacy to travel intention), and hypothesis 13 (Islamic religiosity to travel intention) reports a t value of 1.429 or less, and therefore is not significant in the model. In addition, the results show a negative path coefficient between pull motivation and attitude (hypothesis 2b) and positive path coefficient between travel constraints and travel intention

(hypothesis 6). Therefore, although the relationship is significant, hypothesis 2b is not supported because of the negative relationship and hypothesis 6 is not supported because of the positive relationship. Table 4.17 presents a summary of the hypotheses testing results.

H1a: Push motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher push motivations lead to higher intentions (Push Motivation -> Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of push motivation and the construct of travel intention was not significant (t-value = 1.175, $p > .05$). This result does not support that Muslim tourists' internal motivation for travel has a positive relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination.

H1b: Pull motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher pull motivations lead to higher intentions (Pull Motivation -> Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of pull motivation and the construct of travel intention was significant and positive (t-value = 1.967, $p = .05$). This result supported that if Muslim tourists had a high pull (external) motivation for their travel, they would have high intention to travel to a gaming destination. More specifically, the availability of halal products and services, availability of information about the destination, dining and entertainment, beaches and exotic atmosphere amusements and water activities

are factors that influence Muslim tourists' intention to travel to gaming destinations.

H2a: Push motivation positively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. Individuals with a higher intensity of push travel motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination (Push Motivation -> Attitude).

Hypothesis H2a investigated the relationship between Muslim tourists push motivation and their attitude towards gaming destination. The proposed statement was supported by PLS-SEM analysis ($t\text{-value} = 6.475$, $p < .001$). Therefore, push motivation significantly influenced Muslim students' perception toward traveling to gaming destinations. This finding suggests that if Muslim tourists have a high internal motivation to travel, their attitude towards traveling to gaming destination will be more positive.

H2b: Pull motivation positively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. The strong pull motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination (Pull Motivation -> Attitude).

Hypothesis H2b is proposed to investigate the relationship between Muslim tourists pull motivation and their attitude towards traveling to gaming destination. The structural coefficient and t -values associated with these two constructs were positively significant ($t\text{-value} = 2.174$, $p < .05$), indicating the support to this hypothesis. This finding suggests that the stronger pull motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination. Particularly, the availability of halal products and services, availability

of information about the destination, dining and entertainment, beaches and exotic atmosphere amusements and water activities are factors that influence Muslim tourists' attitude toward traveling to gaming destination.

H3: Tourists' intention to travel to a gaming destination is positively related to their actual behaviors. If individuals have a stronger intention toward a behavior, then they will be more likely to perform the behavior (Travel Intention -> Actual Behavior).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of travel intention and the construct of actual behavior was significant and positive (t-value = 6.520, $p < .001$). This result supported that if Muslim tourists have a stronger intention toward traveling to gaming destination, then they will be more likely to actually travel to gaming destinations.

H4: Muslims' attitudes positively influence their intentions to travel to gaming destinations. Positive attitudes toward gaming destinations result in a greater intention to choose gaming destinations (Attitude -> Travel Intention)

As can be seen in Figure 4.1 and 4.2, the estimates of the standardized coefficients and t-values showed that the direct effect of attitude on intention to travel to gaming destination (t-value = 9.764, $p < .001$). The results suggest that attitude toward traveling to gaming destinations influence the travel intention. Specifically, the more positive the attitude of Muslim students toward traveling to gaming destinations, the greater their intention to choose gaming destination.

H5: Subjective norms positively influence intention to travel. If a subjective norm is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater (Subjective Norms -> Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of subjective norms and the construct of travel intention was significant and positive (t-value = 8.524, $p < .001$). The results of structural model demonstrate that respondents' decision to travel to gaming destinations are significantly influenced by their significant others opinion. If a subjective norms approval is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.

H6: Travel constraints negatively influence travel intentions. If a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be less likely to intend to travel (Travel Constraints -> Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of travel constraints and the construct of travel intention was significant and positive (t-value = 3.337, $p < .001$). However, although the relationship is significant, hypothesis 6 is not supported because of the positive relationship. The result of testing this hypothesis indicated that travel constraints influence travel intention. More specifically, the result suggests even if a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be still more likely to intend to travel to gaming destinations.

H7: Travel constraints positively influence negotiation strategies. The presence of travel constraints initiates the adoption of constraints negotiation

strategies. If a person has more constraints, then this person will be more likely to use negotiation strategies (Travel Constraints-> Negotiation Strategies).

Hypothesis 7 tested if the experience of travel constraints stimulated the use of constraint negotiation strategies. The structural coefficient and t-values associated with these two constructs were positively significant (t-value=6.386, $p < .001$), indicating the support to this hypothesis. In other word, travel constraints stimulated the use of constraint negotiation strategies in the Muslim tourists. If a person has more travel constraints (e.g., lack of money to travel), then this person will be more likely to use negotiation strategies (e.g., save up money to travel).

H8: Constraints negotiation positively influences travel intentions. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person will be more likely to intend to travel (Constraints Negotiation -> Travel Intention)

Hypothesis 8 examined the influence constraint negotiation had on travel intentions. The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of negotiation strategies and the construct of travel intention was not significant (t-value = 0.603, $p > .05$). The result does not provide evidence for this relationship, which implied that those people who put more effort on negotiating their constraints were also more likely to travel than those who devoted less effort on constraint negotiation.

H9: Self-efficacy positively influences travel intentions. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming constraints, then they

will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination (Self-Efficacy -> Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of self-efficacy and the construct of travel intention was not significant (t-value = 1.429, $p > .05$). This result does not support that Muslim tourists' self-efficacy for travel has a positive relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In other word, whether individuals have higher or lower levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming travel constraints, this will have no relationship to their intention to travel to a gaming destination.

H10: Self-efficacy positively influences negotiation strategies. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them (Self-Efficacy-> Negotiation Strategies).

Hypothesis 10 tested if the self-efficacy positively influences constraint negotiation strategies. The structural coefficient and t-values associated with these two constructs were positively significant (t-value=7.599, $p < .001$), indicating the support to this hypothesis. Therefore, if individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them.

H12: Religiosity negatively influences behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist's religiosity is stronger, then this tourist will be less likely to choose a gaming destination (Religiosity -> Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of religiosity and the construct of travel intention was not significant ($t\text{-value} = 0.281, p > .05$). This result does not support that the religiosity has a relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In other word, whether a Muslim tourist's religiosity is stronger or weaker, this have no relationship to his/her intention to choose a gaming destination.

H13: Religiosity negatively influences actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower (Religiosity \rightarrow Actual Behavior).

Hypothesis 13 tested if the religiosity predict actual travel to gaming destination. The structural coefficient and t -values associated with these two constructs were negatively significant ($t\text{-value}=7.989, p<.001$), indicating the support to this hypothesis. Therefore, If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower.

H14: Religiosity negatively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then this person will have a more unfavorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination (Religiosity \rightarrow Attitude).

Hypothesis 14 is proposed to investigate the relationship between Muslim tourists' religiosity and their attitude towards traveling to gaming destination. The structural coefficient and t -values associated with these two constructs were

negatively significant ($t\text{-value}=10.238$, $p<.001$), indicating the support to this hypothesis. Specifically, if a person's religiosity is stronger, then this person will have a more unfavorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination.

H16: Past behavior positively influences the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If past experiences are positive, then intentions are more likely to be stronger (Past Behavior \rightarrow Travel Intention).

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicated that the path from the construct of past behavior and the construct of travel intention was significant ($t\text{-value} = 2.128$, $p < .05$). This result does support that past behavior has a relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In other word, if Muslim students past experiences are positive, then intentions to revisit gaming destination are more likely to be stronger.

4.7.2 Testing the Moderation Effect Using PLS-SEM

A moderator is an independent variable that affects the strength and/or direction of the association between another independent variable and outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This section of data analysis deals with the two proposed moderating effect in the model. First, the moderating effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between the attitude of Muslim students toward traveling to gaming destination and their intention to travel to these types of destinations. Second, the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. The researcher uses the PLS-SEM to examine both moderating effects.

4.7.2.1 The Moderating Role of Islamic Religiosity

The effect of the moderator Islamic religiosity, on travel intention is performed by using SPSS and SmartPLS software. First, respondents were divided into two groups: high and low religiosity based on their scores on the Islamic religiosity scale. Two steps were adopted to compute the average strength of Islamic religiosity for each case: (1) the scores for each Islamic religiosity item was summed; then (2) the overall scores were averaged by the number of Islamic religiosity items. The maximum possible score for the strength of Islamic religiosity was 5 and the minimum possible score for the strength of Islamic religiosity was 1. The Islamic religiosity score yielded in the study was 3.7. Hence, respondents with scores lower than 3.7 were classified into the low religiosity group and scores higher than 3.7 were classified into the high religiosity group. The next step was to test the interaction (moderation) effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between the attitude and travel intention. The results suggested that there is a statistical negative significant moderation effect ($\beta = -0.08$, $t \text{ value} = 2.58$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and travel intention to gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be weaker. If a person's religiosity is weaker, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be stronger. Therefore, hypothesis 15 is supported.

4.7.2.2 The Moderating Role of Self-Efficacy

The effect of the self-efficacy, on travel intention is performed by using SPSS and SmartPLS software. First, respondents were divided into three groups: high, moderate and low self-efficacy (Bandura et al. 1980). Following Bandura et al. (1980) and Louks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007), two steps were adopted to compute the strength of self-efficacy for each case: (1) the scores for each self-efficacy item was summed; then (2) the overall scores was averages by the number of self-efficacy items. The maximum possible score for the strength of self-efficacy was 100 and the minimum possible score for the strength of self-efficacy was 0. The respondents were then classified into the three groups (0-33 = low, 34-66 = moderate, and 67-100 = high). The next step was to test the interaction (moderation) effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between the negotiation strategy and travel intention. The results suggested that there is a statistical positive significant moderation effect ($\beta = 0.08$, t value =2.77, $p < 0.01$). Based on these findings, self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination. Therefore, hypothesis 11 is supported.

4.8 Chapter Summary

In Chapter IV the researcher presented the data analysis of the study and tested the proposed hypotheses. The first section provided an overview of the data collection results and the response rate. Under this section, the researcher

also assessed the extent and the nature of the potential biases which may have resulted from the answerers of the non-respondents and/or social desirability bias. The findings indicated that this dissertation sample is free from non-response bias. In addition, respondents who scored high on the social desirability scale were dropped from the analysis. In the second section, the researcher presented the socio-demographic and travel characteristics of the respondents. In the third section, descriptive information about the study variables are provided. In the fourth section, the researcher presented a preliminary data analysis to identify the measurement scale and dimension(s) for each construct proposed in the model. The third section discussed the confirmatory factor analysis results followed by the measurement model testing, and the test of the proposed partial least square structural equation model and hypotheses. In the final section, the researcher tested the moderating effect for two hypotheses using PLS-SEM.

The findings of this dissertation may suggest many practical and theoretical implications at which this dissertation is targeted. The summary of the overall results, the discussion of the findings in relation to the existing literature, the theoretical and practical implications of the findings and the recommendations for applications and future research are presented in Chapter V.

Table 4.1a Non-Response Bias Check Result (academic level? * Dummy)

Crosstab			Dummy		Total
			Early participation	Late Participation	
What is your current academic level?	Graduate	Count	208	189	397
		% within academic level?	52.4%	47.6%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	59.6%	57.3%	58.5%
		% of Total	30.6%	27.8%	58.5%
	Undergraduate	Count	111	99	210
		% within academic level?	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	31.8%	30.0%	30.9%
		% of Total	16.3%	14.6%	30.9%
	English Program	Count	13	31	44
		% within academic level?	29.5%	70.5%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	3.7%	9.4%	6.5%
		% of Total	1.9%	4.6%	6.5%
	Other	Count	17	11	28
		% within academic level?	60.7%	39.3%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	4.9%	3.3%	4.1%
		% of Total	2.5%	1.6%	4.1%
Total	Count		349	330	679
	% within academic level?		51.4%	48.6%	100.0%
	% within Dummy		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		51.4%	48.6%	100.0%

Table 4.1b Chi-Square Tests

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.720 ^a	3	.021
Likelihood Ratio	9.944	3	.019
Linear-by-Linear Association	.658	1	.417
N of Valid Cases	679		

**Table 4.2a Non-Response Bias Check Result (Islamic Affiliation/Math'hab?
* Dummy)**

Crosstab					
			Dummy Early participation	Late Participation	Total
What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	Sunni	Count	215	207	422
		% within What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	50.9%	49.1%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	61.8%	62.9%	62.3%
	Shia'a	% of Total	31.8%	30.6%	62.3%
		Count	35	57	92
		% within What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	38.0%	62.0%	100.0%
	Ibathi	% within Dummy	10.1%	17.3%	13.6%
		% of Total	5.2%	8.4%	13.6%
		Count	40	25	65
	Other	% within What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	61.5%	38.5%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	11.5%	7.6%	9.6%
		% of Total	5.9%	3.7%	9.6%
	I prefer not to say	Count	10	10	20
		% within What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	2.9%	3.0%	3.0%
	Total	% of Total	1.5%	1.5%	3.0%
		Count	48	30	78
		% within What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	61.5%	38.5%	100.0%
		% within Dummy	13.8%	9.1%	11.5%
		% of Total	7.1%	4.4%	11.5%
		Count	348	329	677
	% within What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?	51.4%	48.6%	100.0%	
	% within Dummy	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	51.4%	48.6%	100.0%	

Table 4.2b Chi-Square Tests

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.505 ^a	4	.014
Likelihood Ratio	12.615	4	.013
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.184	1	.074
N of Valid Cases	677		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.72.

Table 4.3 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender (n=678)			Place of Origin (n=666)		
Male	416	61.3	East Asia	64	9.6
Female	262	38.3	Europe	50	7.5
			Middle East and North Africa	390	58.5
Age (n=643)			South and Central Asia	141	21.1
18-25	70	10.3	Sub-Saharan Africa	1	0.1
22-26	173	25.5	North America	20	3
27-30	189	27.8			
31-35	122	18.0	Academic level (n=679)		
36 or above	89	13.1	Graduate	397	58.5
Marital status (n=678)			Undergraduate	210	30.9
Single (Never Married)	408	60.1	English program	44	6.5
Married	258	38.0	Other	28	4.1
Divorced/Separated	12	1.8			
Personal monthly income (n=678)			Islamic Affiliation (n=677)		
Less than \$750	75	11.0	Sunni	422	62.2
\$751 - \$1000	44	6.5	Shia'a	92	13.5
\$1001 - \$1250	73	10.8			
\$1251-\$1500	185	27.2	Ibathi	65	9.6
			Other	20	2.9
\$1501-\$1750	128	18.9	Source of income (participants were allowed to choose more than one choice) (n=678)		
\$1751 or more	173	25.5	Self	221	32.5
			Assistantship/Scholarships	490	72.2
			Parents	154	22.7
			Savings	62	9.1
			Others	28	4.1

Table 4.4 Travel-Related Characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Frequency of travel in the United States (n=674)			Frequency of visiting gaming destinations (n=259)		
Never	55	8.1	Only once	118	45.6
1 to 2 times	171	25.2	2-3 times	84	32.4
3 to 5 times	225	33.1	4-5 times	7	2.7
6 to 10 times	147	21.6	More than 5 times	50	19.3
More than 10 times	76	11.2			
History of travel to gaming destinations (n= 679)			Purpose of visit to gaming destinations (n= 258)		
Yes	258	38.0	Leisure	156	60.5
No	421	62.0	Business	6	2.3
			Both leisure and business	67	26.0
			Visiting friends and relatives	14	5.4
			Education	15	5.8

Table 4.5 Push Motivation Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor 1: Learning & Novelty ($\alpha=0.88$)	4.18				33.40%
Experience different cultures and ways of life		4.18	.88	0.74	
Attend cultural events that I don't have access to at home		3.83	1.03	0.59	
See how other people live		4.18	.87	0.72	
Learn new things/increase knowledge		4.34	.76	0.74	
Travel to historically important places		4.11	.93	0.70	
See as much as possible		4.28	.82	0.55	
Experience the United States		4.34	.78	0.55	
Factor 2: Escape & Relaxation ($\alpha=0.83$)	4.07				8.66%
Physically rest and relax		3.97	.98	0.58	
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home/school		4.16	.92	0.74	
Get a break from a busy study		4.21	.91	0.67	
Be daring and adventuresome		3.89	.97	0.47	
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work		4.12	.89	0.66	
Factor 3: Socializations ($\alpha=0.81$)	3.27				5.39%
Meet people of the opposite sex		2.84	1.31	0.78	
Feel at home away from home		3.10	1.13	0.63	
Do the same things that the people there do		2.82	1.12	0.63	
Participate in sports		3.18	1.07	0.48	
Be free and act the way I feel		3.75	1.10	0.47	
Mix with fellow tourists		3.49	1.05	0.53	
Meet people who are interested in the same things		3.71	1.01	0.47	
Factor 4: Prestige & Social Recognition ($\alpha=0.82$)	3.79				4.15%
Indulge in luxury		3.25	1.11	0.54	
Travel to safe/secure places		3.91	.97	0.67	
Stay in nice accommodations		3.78	1.03	0.59	
Visit a destination which most people value and/or appreciate		3.99	.93	0.61	
Take photos		4.00	.96	0.54	
Total Variance Explained					51.59%

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.90. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
 $p < 0.000$.
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4.6 Pull Motivation Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor 1:Halal Products & Services ($\alpha= 0.92$)	3.39				25.14%
Halal food		3.71	1.19	0.82	
Positive attitudes toward Islamic culture		3.77	1.05	0.77	
Mosques (places of worship)		3.48	1.19	0.86	
Shariah-compatible toilets		3.19	1.23	0.85	
Segregated services		3.17	1.29	0.72	
Islamic dress codes		2.99	1.26	0.85	
Factor 2:Available information & Activities ($\alpha= 0.88$)	4.06				16.74%
Reasonably priced goods and services		4.12	.88	0.68	
Available information about the destination		4.10	.81	0.81	
Ease of communication with local people		3.93	.85	0.71	
Quality accommodation facilities		3.97	.83	0.72	
A variety of activities		4.19	.74	0.77	
Factor 3:Dining & Entertainment ($\alpha= 0.76$)	3.07				7.99%
Nightlife and entertainment		3.10	1.28	0.49	
Fast food restaurants		3.05	1.22	0.71	
High quality restaurants		3.63	1.06	0.57	
Casinos and gambling		2.46	1.37	0.59	
American food		3.13	1.19	0.71	
Factor 4: Beaches & Exotic Atmosphere ($\alpha= 0.79$)	3.84				5.04%
The seaside		4.03	.91	0.55	
Reliable weather		3.82	.85	0.46	
Beaches for swimming and sunning		3.66	1.12	0.85	
Exotic atmosphere		3.83	.97	0.62	

Factor 5: Amusements & Water Activities ($\alpha = 0.71$)	11.29			3.60%
Amusement or theme parks	3.84	.96	0.42	
Outdoor activities such as hiking/climbing	3.79	1.02	0.77	
Water sports	3.66	1.10	0.65	

Total Variance Explained	58.53%
---------------------------------	---------------

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.86. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p < 0.000$.

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4.7 Travel Intention Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor: Travel Intention ($\alpha = 0.88$)	2.89				65.89%
I intend to go on a holiday in a gaming destination in the near future		2.59	1.28	0.92	
I am likely to go on a holiday in a gaming destination in the next three years		2.71	1.31	0.88	
I want to visit Las Vegas		3.59	1.23	0.64	
I would recommend a holiday in a gaming destination to others		2.69	1.32	0.79	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.79. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p < 0.000$.					
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					

Table 4.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Attitudinal Scale

Factor	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Attitude ($\alpha = 0.95$)	2.94				74.72%
Unpleasant-Pleasant		3.01	1.46	0.90	
Unfavorable-Favorable		2.79	1.32	0.89	
Unenjoyable-Enjoyable		3.12	1.38	0.91	
Boring-Fun		3.18	1.42	0.86	
Negative-Positive		2.73	1.32	0.87	
Gloomy-Exciting		3.10	1.40	0.90	
Sinfull-Virtuous (Not sinful)		2.65	1.34	0.71	

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.91. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p < 0.000$.

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4.9 Subjective Norms Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor: Subjective Norms ($\alpha = 0.93$)	2.79				62.87%
Most people I know would choose a gaming destination as a travel destination		2.82	1.11	0.68	
My parents would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		2.65	1.32	0.87	
My relatives who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		2.73	1.25	0.88	
My spouse/partner who is important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		2.78	1.32	0.84	
Friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		3.20	1.24	0.85	
My classmates who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		3.32	1.07	0.68	
My Muslim friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		2.78	1.23	0.87	
The Imam in my local community would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination		2.11	1.16	0.64	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.91. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p < 0.000$.					
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization					

Table 4.10 Travel Constraints Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor 1: Structural Constraints ($\alpha=0.83$)	3.61				36.33%
Lack of time and opportunities to travel		3.44	1.06	0.78	
Lack of money to travel		3.61	1.09	0.79	
Study/work commitments		3.80	.99	0.59	
High travel costs in the United States		3.57	1.11	0.62	
Factor 2: Religious Constraints ($\alpha=0.85$)	2.97				10.17%
Negative attitudes toward Muslims/Arabs		3.02	1.25	0.87	
Discrimination		2.97	1.19	0.86	
Lack of halal food providers		2.92	1.27	0.48	
Factor 3: Interpersonal Constraints ($\alpha=0.84$)	3.22				6.55%
Difficulty of finding friends or family members to accompany me in travel		3.08	1.22	0.58	
Others who do not have the money		3.32	1.06	0.64	
Others who do not have the time		3.33	1.03	0.59	
Reluctance toward traveling alone		3.13	1.21	0.54	
Factor 4: Interpersonal Constraints ($\alpha=0.76$)	2.82				4.09%
Lack of interest in traveling		3.14	1.18	0.58	
Stress and anxiety		3.03	1.17	0.72	
Motion sickness		2.58	1.19	0.63	
Health problems		2.53	1.26	0.45	
Factor 5: Family Constraints ($\alpha=0.73$)	3.09				3.59%
A partner uninterested in travel		3.23	1.19	0.41	
Family commitments		3.21	1.24	0.76	
Dependent children		2.84	1.26	0.53	

Total Variance Explained

60.74%

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.88. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
 $p < 0.000$.

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4.11. Constraints Negotiation Strategies Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor 1: Finance & Time Management ($\alpha = 0.86$)	3.81				31.57%
Save up money to travel		3.72	.98	0.51	
Set aside time for traveling		3.81	.91	0.54	
Plan ahead for things so that I can travel		3.91	.93	0.77	
Be organized so that I can travel		3.87	.92	0.86	
Rank in order what I want to do, at times making travel a priority		3.72	.93	0.69	
Factor 2: Changing Plans & Skills Acquisitions ($\alpha = 0.79$)	3.18				10.39%
Borrow money sometimes to travel		2.41	1.24	0.46	
Travel with people of my own gender		3.24	1.15	0.62	
Change my plans and travel to close destinations		3.35	.94	0.51	
Look for someone to look after my dependents while I am traveling		2.81	1.18	0.56	
Reduce the travel time		3.43	.97	0.54	
Travel with a person who speaks other languages		3.27	.97	0.72	
Learn new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints		3.57	.95	0.49	
Look for alternative things to do instead of traveling		3.34	.95	0.54	
Factor 3: Selecting Value Destinations ($\alpha = 0.84$)	4.00				6.21%
Find a destination that best fits within my budget		4.00	.87	0.69	
Learn to live within my financial means		3.97	.85	0.72	

Find a trip that best fits my time limitations	4.03	.77	0.61	
Factor 4: Changing Interpersonal Relations ($\alpha = 0.82$)	3.82			3.81%
Try to find people with similar interests to accompany me in travel	3.79	.96	0.58	
Find people to accompany me in travel	3.75	.91	0.87	
Organize travel with my own friends/group	3.86	.86	0.66	
Travel with people who have similar interests	3.87	.84	0.41	
Total Variance Explained				51.97%

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.86. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $p < 0.000$.

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4.12 Islamic Religiosity Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Grand Mean	Item Mean	STD	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
Factor 1: Islamic Beliefs ($\alpha = 0.94$)	4.29				41.68%
Prophet Mohammed is Allah's (God's) last Prophet		4.54	.84	0.88	
I believe in the revealed scriptures (Quran/Message, Bible/Injeal, Torah/Tawrat)		4.53	.85	0.95	
I believe in all of Allah's (God's) messengers		4.57	.81	0.93	
I believe in the hereafter (including physical resurrection and life after death)		4.47	.89	0.80	
I perform ablutions before every prayer		4.15	1.17	0.59	
I fast the whole month of Ramadan		4.21	1.19	0.51	
My religion helps me to have a better life		4.20	1.02	0.57	
The Dua'aa (supplication) supports me		4.27	1.03	0.60	
The Prophet Mohammed is the role model for me		4.15	1.06	0.47	
I believe that Allah (God) helps me		4.54	.86	0.69	
Sometimes, I do sit with friends who drink alcohol, but I don't drink it myself		3.28	1.33	0.59	
I am fearful of Allah (God)		4.29	.96	0.46	
Factor 2: Islamic Practices & Ritual Behaviors ($\alpha = 0.93$)	3.30				8.55%
I always perform all of my prayers on time		3.46	1.27	0.65	
Given access, I perform all of my prayers in the mosque regularly		2.87	1.26	0.70	

Performing Hajj is one of my main priorities in my life	3.87	1.27	0.55	
I read the Holy Quran regularly	3.61	1.22	0.64	
I believe the hijab (scarf) is obligatory for all women	3.60	1.36	0.84	
I am a very religious person	3.22	1.06	0.71	
I believe that, where it is allowed, it is fine for a man to marry up to four women	3.01	1.33	0.78	
I believe that a woman should not travel alone on long trips without a male from her immediate family	2.65	1.37	0.84	
I only eat halal meat/chicken (slaughtered in the Islamic way)	3.38	1.39	0.69	
I try to avoid mixing with the other gender	2.56	1.27	0.76	
In my personal life, religion plays a very important role	4.08	1.15	0.53	
Factor 3: Forbidden Behaviors ($\alpha=0.89$)	3.53			6.41%
Its okay to miss Friday prayer sometimes	3.10	1.26	0.52	
It is acceptable to drink alcohol sometimes	3.92	1.39	0.84	
It is okay to eat pork sometimes	4.11	1.31	0.89	
It is acceptable to eat any meat in countries where the main religion is not Islam	3.40	1.31	0.69	
It is okay to gamble sometimes	3.86	1.37	0.83	
I believe it is ok for a man to use a body greeting with any woman other than those from his immediate family	3.20	1.33	0.72	
It is acceptable to swim with mixed genders	3.12	1.36	0.67	
Factor 4: Avoiding Sinning ($\alpha=0.79$)	3.93			3.29%

I never do haram (forbidden) things	3.39	1.25	0.46
I always try to avoid minor sins	3.77	1.05	0.50
I always try to help those who need my help	4.27	.82	0.71
I always avoid lying	4.07	.93	0.83
I regularly contribute to charity/sadaqah	3.91	.88	0.48
I always try to avoid major sins	4.15	1.01	0.59

Total Variance explained

59.94%

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.948. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
p<0.000.

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 4.13 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Construct/indicators	Factor loading	Cronbach's α	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Travel Intention to Gaming		0.88	0.92	0.74
Destinations				
INT1	0.91			
INT2	0.89			
INT3	0.75			
INT4	0.88			
Attitude		0.95	0.96	0.78
Att1	0.92			
Att2	0.91			
Att3	0.91			
Att4	0.87			
Att5	0.90			
Att6	0.91			
Att7	0.77			
Push Motivation				
Learning & Novelty		0.79	0.88	0.71
Push4	0.78			
Push17	0.87			
Push29	0.87			
Escape & Relaxation		0.76	0.86	0.67
Push9	0.80			
Push20	0.84			
Push21	0.82			
Socialization		0.78	0.85	0.53
Push5	0.68			
Push6	0.73			
Push7	0.63			
Push18	0.78			
Push22	0.79			
Prestige & Social Recognition		0.78	0.86	0.61
Push15	0.69			
Push30	0.77			
Push31	0.84			
Push32	0.80			
Pull Motivation				
Halal Products & Services		0.92	0.94	0.73
Pull24	0.87			
Pull25	0.84			
Pull26	0.88			
Pull27	0.88			
Pull28	0.78			
Pull29	0.86			

Available Information & Activities		0.88	0.92	0.73
Pull32	0.85			
Pull33	0.87			
Pull34	0.86			
Pull35	0.85			
Dining & Entertainment		0.75	0.83	0.55
Pull1	0.59			
Pull5	0.84			
Pull19	0.65			
Pull20	0.86			
Beaches & Exotic Atmosphere		0.77	0.87	0.69
Pull18	0.79			
Pull22	0.87			
Pull23	0.83			
Amusements & Water Sports		0.71	0.84	0.63
Pull2	0.77			
Pull3	0.82			
Pull4	0.80			
Subjective Norms		0.93	0.94	0.71
SN1	0.76			
SN2	0.86			
SN3	0.87			
SN4	0.85			
SN5	0.90			
SN6	0.76			
SN7	0.88			
Travel Constraints				
Structural Constraints		0.83	0.89	0.66
CON16	0.82			
CON17	0.85			
CON19	0.78			
CON20	0.79			
Religious Constraints		0.86	0.91	0.78
CON7	0.78			
CON10	0.94			
CON11	0.93			
Interpersonal Constraints		0.84	0.90	0.68
CON12	0.81			
CON14	0.87			
CON15	0.86			
CON23	0.76			
Intrapersonal Constraints		0.75	0.86	0.67
CON3	0.82			
CON8	0.84			
CON24	0.79			
Family Constraints		0.73	0.85	0.65
CON13	0.82			

CON18	0.81			
CON21	0.78			
Negotiation Strategies				
Finance & Time Management		0.86	0.90	0.65
NEG4	0.74			
NEG8	0.77			
NEG9	0.87			
NEG10	0.88			
NEG11	0.75			
Changing Plans & Skills		0.65	0.79	0.56
Acquisitions				
NEG19	0.60			
NEG21	0.74			
NEG24	0.89			
Selecting Value Destinations		0.85	0.91	0.76
NEG5	0.89			
NEG6	0.87			
NEG7	0.87			
Changing Interpersonal Relations		0.82	0.89	0.73
NEG12	0.83			
NEG13	0.88			
NEG14	0.86			
Islamic Religiosity				
Islamic Beliefs		0.96	0.96	0.69
REL1	0.84			
REL2	0.84			
REL3	0.88			
REL4	0.86			
REL5	0.81			
REL8	0.78			
REL10	0.81			
REL13	0.85			
REL14	0.86			
REL15	0.84			
REL16	0.81			
REL29	0.78			
Islamic Practices & Ritual		0.92	0.94	0.65
Behaviors				
REL6	0.84			
REL7	0.75			
REL11	0.86			
REL12	0.84			
REL17	0.79			
REL31	0.85			
REL32	0.75			
REL35	0.73			
Forbidden Behaviors		0.90	0.92	0.67
REL23	0.89			

REL24	0.86			
REL25	0.74			
REL36	0.82			
REL37	0.81			
REL39	0.76			
Avoiding Sinning		0.74	0.85	0.65
REL18	0.79			
REL19	0.87			
REL40	0.77			

Table 4.14 Discriminant Validity of the Constructs

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	.80																								
2	.11	.88																							
3	.16	.06	.86																						
4	.17	.07	.37	.75																					
5	.36	.47	.03	.25	.74																				
6	.49	.13	.28	.13	.16	.82																			
7	.14	.04	.13	.38	.10	.09	.81																		
8	.25	.02	.49	.34	.08	.42	.08	.80																	
9	-.04	-.54	.08	.00	-.42	-.01	-.05	.12	.82																
10	.10	-.26	.20	.19	-.16	.10	.21	.16	.39	.81															
11	.12	-.35	.14	.28	-.04	.10	.33	.12	.44	.47	.85														
12	.06	.14	.06	.39	.24	-.03	.56	.07	-.10	.08	.27	.82													
13	.06	.06	.22	.32	.08	.03	.60	.10	.05	.07	.26	.47	.83												
14	.10	-.30	.25	.13	-.19	.17	.14	.25	.66	.60	.52	-.02	.11	.83											
15	.04	-.32	.18	.23	-.15	-.02	.27	.08	.56	.66	.68	.14	.17	.75	.80										
16	.39	.14	.25	.08	.22	.67	.02	.35	.01	.18	.02	-.08	.01	.24	.01	.84									
17	.36	.17	.28	.27	.32	.56	.11	.45	.06	.23	.24	.11	.15	.31	.15	.59	.78								
18	.36	-.01	.37	.22	.14	.53	.11	.50	.19	.22	.27	.02	.07	.34	.16	.56	.54	.85							
19	.47	.15	.23	.20	.30	.46	-.01	.44	.01	.03	.11	.07	.11	.13	-.04	.37	.43	.47	.83						
20	.06	-.14	.09	.30	.05	.01	.48	.03	.16	.26	.51	.56	.52	.21	.37	-.13	.07	.04	.06	.88					
21	.22	-.02	.50	.32	.01	.43	.21	.68	.17	.28	.19	.05	.24	.33	.18	.43	.44	.47	.31	.12	.87				
22	.39	.46	.17	.29	.57	.45	.10	.26	-.42	-.17	-.13	.16	.09	-.15	-.26	.46	.50	.26	.37	-.07	.15	.73			
23	.13	.16	.30	.35	.07	.21	.48	.33	.02	.18	.15	.37	.64	.17	.11	.21	.18	.29	.24	.36	.38	.15	.81		
24	.12	.68	-.04	-.06	.47	.13	-.03	.06	-.56	-.27	-.34	.03	-.06	-.33	-.35	.21	.10	.06	.13	-.20	.02	.42	.04	.84	
25	.11	.67	.03	.12	.48	.08	.11	.10	-.45	-.18	-.16	.20	.11	-.24	-.17	.11	.17	.04	.13	-.04	.04	.39	.19	.63	.86

Note A: Bold numbers represent the square roots of the AVEs.

Note B: 1=Amusements & Water Activities, 2=Attitude, 3=Changing Interpersonal Relations, 4=Changing Plans & Skills Acquisitions, 5=Dining & Entertainment, 6=Escape & Relaxation, 7=Family Constraints, 8=Finance & Time Management, 9=Forbidden Behaviors, 10=Good Deeds & Avoiding Sinning, 11=Halal Products & Services, 12=Interpersonal Constraints, 13=Interpersonal Constraints, 14=Islamic Beliefs, 15=Islamic Practices & Ritual Behaviors, 16=Learning & Novelty, 17=Prestige & Social Recognition, 18=Reasonable Prices & Activities, 19=Reliable Weather & Beaches, 20=Religious Constraints, 21=Selecting Value Destinations, 22=Socialization, 23=Structural Constraints, 24=Subjective Norms, 25=Travel Intention.

Table 4.15 Outer Model Test Results

Regression paths coefficient	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (O/STERR)	CI Low	CI Up	P Values	Hypotheses Testing Results
Push Motivation -> Travel Intention (H1a)	0.046	1.175	-0.155	0.026	0.241	Rejected
Pull Motivation -> Travel Intention (H1b)	0.038	1.967	0.001	0.149	0.050	Supported
Push Motivation -> Attitude (H2a)	0.053	6.475	0.233	0.435	0.000	Supported
Pull Motivation -> Attitude (H2b)	0.050	2.174	-0.193	-0.007	0.030	Rejected
Travel Intention -> Actual Behavior (H3)	0.037	6.520	0.173	0.319	0.000	Supported
Attitude -> Travel Intention (H4)	0.047	9.764	0.365	0.556	0.000	Supported
Subjective Norms -> Travel Intention (H5)	0.040	8.524	0.269	0.427	0.000	Supported
Travel Constraints -> Travel Intention (H6)	0.028	3.337	0.039	0.154	0.001	Rejected
Travel Constraints -> Negotiation Strategies (H7)	0.049	6.386	0.215	0.404	0.000	Supported
Negotiation Strategies -> Travel Intention (H8)	0.045	0.603	-0.066	0.115	0.547	Rejected
Self-Efficacy -> Negotiation Strategies (H9)	0.037	7.599	0.212	0.365	0.000	Supported
Self-Efficacy -> Travel Intention (H10)	0.028	1.429	-0.015	0.094	0.154	Rejected
Islamic Religiosity -> Actual Behavior (H11)	0.037	7.989	-0.369	-0.227	0.000	Supported
Islamic Religiosity -> Attitude (H12)	0.039	10.238	-0.486	-0.326	0.000	Supported
Islamic Religiosity -> Travel Intention (H13)	0.032	0.281	-0.049	0.066	0.779	Rejected
Past Behavior -> Travel Intention (H14)	0.030	2.128	-0.122	-0.009	0.034	Supported
Interaction Effect: Islamic Religiosity -> Attitude -> Travel Intention (H15)	0.025	2.455	-0.369	-0.227	0.014	Supported
Interaction Self-Efficacy-> Negotiation Strategies -> Travel Intention (H16)	0.028	2.869	-0.486	-0.326	0.004	Supported

Table 4.16 Evaluation of the Predictive Relevance for the Endogenous Constructs

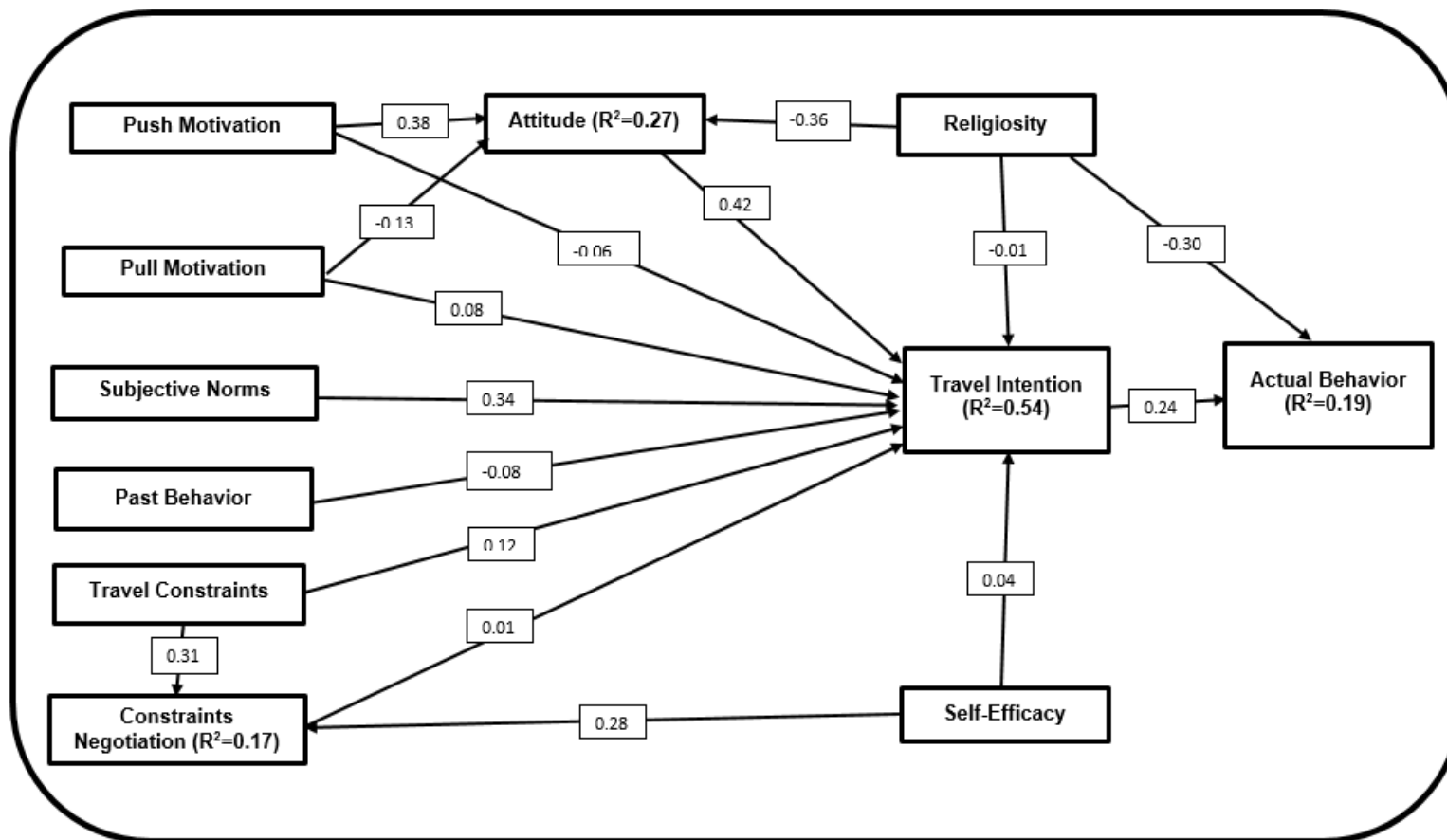
Construct	Q²
Actual Behavior	0.19 (moderate)
Attitude	0.20 (moderate)
Negotiation Strategies	0.16 (moderate)
Travel Intention	0.55 (strong)

Note: Predictive Relevance Q². Q²>0 is indicative of predictive relevance. Q²: 0.02, 0.15, 0.35 for weak, moderate, strong degree of predictive relevance.

Table 4.17 Summary of the Hypothesis Testing Results

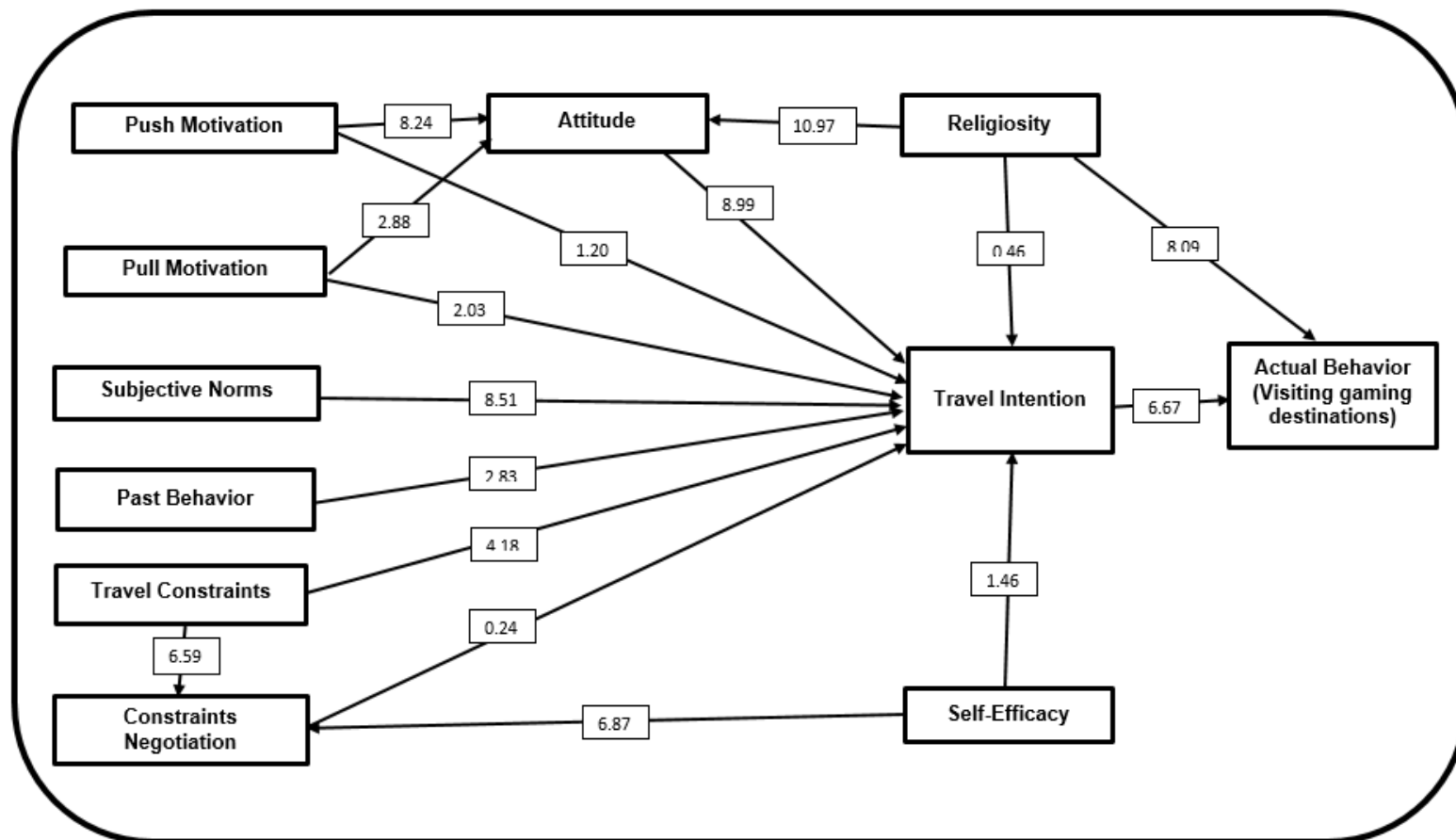
Hypothesis	Results
H1a: Push motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher push motivations lead to higher intentions.	Not Supported
H1b: Pull motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Higher pull motivations lead to higher intentions.	Supported
H2a: Push motivation positively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. Individuals with a higher intensity of push travel motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.	Supported
H2b: Pull motivation positively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. The strong pull motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.	Supported
H3: Tourists' intention to travel to a gaming destination is positively related to their actual behaviors. If individuals have a stronger intention toward a behavior, then they will be more likely to perform the behavior.	Supported
H4: Muslims' attitudes positively influence their intentions to travel to gaming destinations. Positive attitudes toward gaming destinations result in a greater intention to choose gaming destinations.	Supported
H5: Subjective norms positively influence intention to travel. If a subjective norm is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.	Supported
H6: Travel constraints negatively influence travel intentions. If a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be less likely to intend to travel.	Not Supported
H7: Travel constraints positively influence negotiation strategies. The presence of travel constraints initiates the adoption of constraints negotiation strategies. If a person has more constraints, then this person will be more likely to use negotiation strategies.	Supported
H8: Constraints negotiation positively influences travel intentions. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person will be more likely to intend to travel.	Not Supported
H9: Self-efficacy positively influences travel intentions. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming constraints, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.	Not Supported

H10: Self-efficacy positively influences negotiation strategies. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them.	Supported
H11: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.	Supported
H12: Religiosity negatively influences the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist's religiosity is stronger, then this tourist will be less likely to choose a gaming destination.	Not Supported
H13: Religiosity negatively influences actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower.	Supported
H14: Religiosity negatively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then this person will have a more unfavorable attitude toward travel to a gaming destination.	Supported
H15: Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and travel intention for gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be weaker. If a person's religiosity is weaker, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be stronger.	Supported
H16: Past behavior positively influences the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If past experiences are positive, then intentions are more likely to be stronger.	Supported



Note: The values on the arrows represent β coefficients (standardized regression weights).

Figure 4.1. Inner Model (Path Coefficients & R^2)



Note: The values on the arrows represent t-statistics

Figure 4.2. Inner Model (t-statistics)

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE DISSERTATION

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the dissertation, present its practical and theoretical implications, highlight its limitations, and provide recommendations for future research. In the first section, the researcher summarizes the main findings regarding the dissertation's objectives and hypotheses and suggests the practical applications. In the second section, the researcher highlights the practical and theoretical contributions of this dissertation. In the third section, the researcher highlights the dissertation's limitations. Finally, in the fourth section, the researcher offers recommendations for future research.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the role of attitudes, subjective norms, travel motivations, religiosity, self-efficacy, travel constraints, constraints negotiation strategies, and past behavior on Muslim students' intentions to travel to a gaming destination. Throughout the dissertation, the researcher focused on identifying key factors that affect behavioral intention and further added religiosity as a new construct to the proposed model (see Figure 3.2). Additionally, the researcher examined the interactions among these key factors. As explained in detail in previous chapters, the researcher developed a model that integrated several theories. As presented in Figure 3.2, an individual's

intention to visit a gaming destination is a function of travel motivation, religiosity, attitudes, subjective norms, travel constraints, constraints negotiation, self-efficacy, and past behavior. The intent to visit a gaming destination precedes actual visitation. Researchers can thus predict future behavior through intention. The model of significant factors in destination choice consists of eight independent variables: (1) attitudes, (2) motivations to travel (push and pull), (3) subjective norms, (4) travel constraints, (5) constraints negotiation strategies, (6) past behavior, (7) self-efficacy, and (8) religiosity. The researcher wished to explain the relationships between these constructs, as well as their effects on travel behavior. In thus attempting to explain these relationships, the researcher hypothesized that Islamic religiosity and travel motivation, apart from influencing travel intention, directly influence Muslims' attitudes toward gaming destinations. Furthermore, Islamic religiosity, as a moderating construct, influences the relationship between Muslim travelers' attitudes and their intentions to travel to a gaming destination. In the next section, the researcher presents a discussion of the hypotheses testing results.

5.2.1 Discussion of Hypotheses Testing Results

In Table 4.16, the researcher presents a summary of the hypotheses tested and the t-statistics. As shown in Table 4.15, eleven of the proposed sixteen hypotheses are supported. In the rest of this section, the researcher addresses the hypotheses that were empirically tested over the course of the dissertation research.

H1a: Push motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Stronger push motivations lead to stronger intentions.

The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicates that the path from the construct of push motivation and the construct of travel intention is not significant ($t\text{-value} = 1.17, p > .05$). Given this result, the researcher is not able to confirm a positive relationship between Muslim tourists' internal motivations for travel and tourists' intentions to travel to a gaming destination. This result does not replicate or confirm previous studies in which other researchers have indicated that push motivations are related to behavioral intention (e.g., Jang & Cai, 2002). However, the findings of this dissertation are fully consistent with findings by Li et al. (2010) who indicated that push motivation has no relationship with revisit intention. Furthermore, the result of hypothesis 1a testing are partially consistent with findings by Baloglu (2000) who concluded that only two push motivation factors (relaxation/escape and prestige) predict travel intention. One potential explanation is that Muslim travelers may treat gaming destinations as sin destinations. Thus, they may visit gaming destinations for reasons other than gaming. Travelers may visit gaming destinations because of their attitudes toward such destinations and destination attributes (e.g., convenience of the location) rather than on a conscious decision based on push motivation.

H1b: Pull motivations have a positive influence on the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Stronger pull motivations lead to stronger intentions.

In considering the result of PLS-SEM analysis, the researcher indicates that the path from the construct of pull motivation and the construct of travel

intention is significant and positive ($t\text{-value} = 1.97, p = .05$). The researcher confirm that if Muslim tourists have a strong pull (external) motivation for their travel, then they will have a strong intention to travel to a gaming destination. More specifically, factors that influence Muslim tourists' intentions to travel to gaming destinations include the availability of halal products and services, the availability of information about the destination, dining and entertainment, beaches and an exotic atmosphere, and amusements and water activities. The researcher finds this result to be consistent with previous studies that found pull factors to be useful in understanding tourists' choice of destinations (Sirakaya et al., 1996; Goossens, 2000; Jang & Cai, 2002; Klenosky, 2002; Hsu et al., 2009). Thus, through the findings of this dissertation, the researcher determines that Muslims rate destination attributes highly and strive to change their travel behaviors in accordance with destination characteristics. Therefore, destinations and DMOs managers should strive to augment the pull factors (destination attributes) via various means, such as providing halal products and services (e.g., halal food, mosques, segregated services, and so on).

H2: Travel motivation positively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. Individuals with a higher intensity of travel motivations will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination.

Hypothesis 2 investigates the relationship between Muslim tourists' push and pull motivations and their attitudes toward gaming destinations. Through PLS-SEM analysis, the researcher is able to confirm the proposed hypothesis (push motivation: $t\text{-value} = 6.47, p < .001$; pull motivation: $t\text{-value} = 2.17, p < .05$).

Therefore, push and pull motivations significantly influence Muslim students' perceptions of traveling to gaming destinations. The findings suggest similarity between Muslim travelers and general traveling population. Specifically, the results indicate if Muslim tourists have a higher internal motivation to travel, then their attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination will be more positive. Additionally, the researcher further suggests that if Muslim tourists have stronger pull motivations, then they will have more favorable attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination. Particularly, factors that influence Muslim tourists' attitudes toward traveling to a gaming destination include the availability of halal products and services, the availability of information about the destination, dining and entertainment, beaches and an exotic atmosphere, amusements, and water activities.

Although push motivations do not directly influence travel intention, these motivations appear to be strong predictors of Muslims' attitudes toward traveling to gaming destinations. The findings of this dissertation are in line with findings by Sparks (2007) and Hsu et al. (2009). Hsu et al. (2009) argued that although Fishbein and Ajzen did not clearly suggest a causal relationship between motivation and attitudes, in Fishbein and Ajzen's theory, they proposed that attitudes follow motivation and that the latter may influence the former. In this dissertation, the findings strongly indicate a significant positive and causal relationship between the respondents' motivation and attitudes. Yet the strength of the relationship varies, as indicated by the different coefficients associated with the push and pull motivation constructs. The researcher finds the linkage

between push motivation factors to be the strongest, followed by pull motivation factors (push motivation: $t\text{-value} = 6.47$, $p < .001$; pull motivation: $t\text{-value} = 2.17$, $p < .05$).

One of the most profound findings of this dissertation is that attitudes toward visiting a destination are determined by factors that include cognitive processes and socio-psychological motivations (push motivation) and significant attributes of the destination (pull motivation). Accordingly, as Ajzen (1991) proposed with the TPB, particular destination attributes guide intended behavior. Firstly, tourists evaluate a number of destination characteristics (e.g., availability of halal products and services) that influence attitudes and, in turn, influence their intention to engage in travel behavior. Although research on the relationship between motivation and attitudes in tourists' decision-making is recognized by many tourism scholars (e.g., Chon, 1989; Davis, Allen & Cosenza, 1988; Martin & Woodside, 2012; Sirakaya et al., 1996; Um & Crompton, 1989) however, research remains limited specifically in regards to the relationship between attitude and push and pull motivations with very few exceptions (e.g., Hsu et al., 2009; Sparks, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, the few studies that do exist are inadequate as well. For example, Sparks' (2007) limited her study to one factor related to push motivation (personal development) and one factor related to pull motivation (destination experience). Hsu et al. (2009) only examined the effect of push motivation on attitudes. This dissertation findings provide evidence to suggest that push and pull motivation are related to attitude formation and to future intent to travel to gaming destinations.

H3: Tourists' intention to travel to a gaming destination is positively related to their actual behavior. If individuals have a stronger intention toward a behavior, then they will be more likely to perform the behavior.

The test of the TPB model showed that it can serve as a useful theoretical approach for examining actual behavior and that the behavioral intention measure has a strong association with actual behavior. The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicates that the path from the construct of travel intention and the construct of actual behavior is significant and positive (t-value = 6.52, $p < .001$). This finding supports the idea that if Muslim tourists have a stronger intention toward traveling to gaming destination, then they will be more likely to actually travel to gaming destinations. Since many previous tourism studies avoid measuring the actual behavior construct when applying the TPB, this dissertation is unique since the researcher examined the relationship between behavioral intention and actual behavior. The findings of this dissertation are thus in line with Ajzen's (1985) TPB findings. According to the TPB, behavioral intention to act in a certain way is the immediate determinant of behavior (Ajzen, 1985). More precisely, the researcher, through the findings of this dissertation, confirms the notion that behavioral intention is an indication of a person's readiness to perform a particular behavior.

H4: Muslims' attitudes positively influence their intentions to travel to gaming destinations. Positive attitudes toward gaming destinations result in a greater intention to choose gaming destinations.

Attitudes have the greatest direct effect on the behavioral intention of visiting gaming destinations. Through the estimates of the standardized coefficients and t-values, the results show the direct effect of attitudes on intention to travel to a gaming destination (t-value = 9.76, $p < .001$). In the dissertation, intention was consistently associated with the respondents' evaluation of the destinations, whether favorable or unfavorable. Specifically, if Muslim students hold more positive (or favorable) attitudes toward traveling to gaming destinations, then they will have greater intentions to choose a gaming destination.

In general, this dissertation's findings are consistent with findings from prior tourism research, in which researchers examined tourists' attitudes as significant predictors of behavioral intention (e.g., Cheng et al., 2006; Picazo-Vela et al., 2010; Casalo et al., 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Quintal et al., 2010). This dissertation's findings provide further insight into the relationship between potential Muslim tourists' attitudes and their intention to travel to gaming destinations. Through the findings, the researcher also provides destination marketers with a better understanding of potential Muslim tourists' attitudes. Since attitudes toward travel to a gaming destination are the most relevant determinants of intent to travel to a gaming destination, destination marketers need to pay close attention to the factors that contribute to a favorable attitude. The researcher of this dissertation has determined some of those factors, namely push motivation, pull motivation, and religiosity.

H5: Subjective norms positively influence intention to travel. If a subjective norm is stronger, then an individual's intention to choose a gaming destination will be greater.

Subjective norms are the second determinant of behavioral intention in the original TPB. Ajzen (1991) defines subjective norms as “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior” (p. 188). In this dissertation, the researcher believes that the social pressure groups that assert subjective norms, including parents, spouses or partners, relatives, friends, classmates, Muslim friends, and the Imam in the local community, influence the decision-making process of Muslim students. The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicates that the path from the construct of subjective norms and the construct of travel intention is significant and positive (t-value = 8.52, $p < .001$). Given the results of the structural model, the researcher demonstrates that respondents' decisions to travel to gaming destinations are significantly influenced by their significant others' opinions. In other words, Muslim students are more likely to intend to visit the target destination when other people like family, classmates, Muslim friends, or the local Imam think that it is a positive thing to do. Previous research finds that involvement in religious groups can establish stronger social bonds (Regnerus & Elder, 2003). Additionally, most Islamic countries fall under the collectivistic cultural category (whether in the Middle East or Asia, with countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia). Collectivistic cultures emphasize collective identity, emotional dependence, and group solidarity (Triandis, 1989). Therefore, collectivistic cultures view individuals in terms of specific relationships to

significant others, unlike individualistic cultures, which view individuals as autonomous beings with abstract qualities (Cheng & Kwan, 2008). In Islamic societies, the family unit is more important than the individual, and this makes an Islamic society a collective one (Abd Al Hameed & Al Sheikh, 1978). This collectivistic culture might explain this dissertation findings that is related to the strong relationship between Muslims social pressure and their intention to travel. More specifically, Muslims care about their significant others opinion before making their decision to travel.

The findings of this dissertation are consistent with previous tourism research that has found social pressure groups to have a positive impact on travel decisions (Cheng et al., 2006; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Meng & Choi, 2015; Picazo-Vela et al., 2010; Quintal et al., 2010; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009). For example, Lam and Hsu (2006) found that Taiwanese tourists traveling to Hong Kong were influenced by their social pressure groups, including family members and friends. Similarly, Sparks and Pan (2009) found that Chinese individuals were influenced by their social pressure groups during their travel decision-making process. Hence, this dissertation's researcher recommends that destination marketers recognize the power of reference groups and develop marketing strategies and tools to educate them about travel benefits and destination attributes.

H6: Travel constraints negatively influence travel intentions. If a person experiences higher levels of travel constraints, then this person will be less likely to intend to travel.

Travel constraints is defined as those factors that inhibit traveling to a certain destination, inhibit continued use of destination services, cause the inability to participate in a new activity, result in the inability to maintain or increase frequency of participation, and/or lead to negative impacts on the quality of a travel experience. Given the result of PLS-SEM analysis, the researcher indicates that the path from the construct of travel constraints and the construct of travel intention is significant and positive ($t\text{-value} = 3.34, p < .00$). However, although the relationship is significant, the researcher cannot confirm hypothesis 6 because of the positive relationship. From the results of testing this hypothesis, the researcher can determine that travel constraints do influence travel intention. More specifically, the researcher confirms that even if an individual experiences higher levels of travel constraints, this individual will still be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination. This unexpected findings may be attributed to the dissertation sample characteristics. The findings indicates that the majority of Muslim student sample scored high in self-efficacy scale (self-efficacy mean = 67 points on scale of 100 points). This finding implies that most of the dissertation participants have strong confidence in negotiation their constraints. Therefore, despite the travel constraints they may encounter their confidence allows them to negotiate these constraints and find alternative ways to travel.

H7: Travel constraints positively influence negotiation strategies. The presence of travel constraints triggers the adoption of constraints negotiation strategies. If a person has more constraints, then this person will be more likely to use negotiation strategies.

Mannell and Kleiber (1997) define constraints negotiation as the set of strategies that people adopt to solve, avoid, or reduce the influence of constraints and barriers to their participation in leisure activities. Hypothesis 7 tests if the experience of travel constraints stimulates the use of constraints negotiation strategies. The structural coefficient and t-values associated with these two constructs prove to be positively significant (t-value=6.386, $p < .001$), indicating support of this hypothesis. In other words, travel constraints stimulate the use of constraints negotiation strategies in Muslim tourists. If a person has more travel constraints (e.g., lack of money to travel), then this person will be more likely to use constraints negotiation strategies (e.g., save up money to travel). This finding is consistent with previous constraints literature. First, the finding is in line with the initial suggestion of Jackson et al. (1993) that constraints play a major role in determining the type of negotiation strategy that individuals employ. Second, the finding is consistent with the positive relationship between travel constraints and constraints negotiation that Hubbard and Mannell (2001) proposed.

H8: Constraints negotiation positively influences travel intention. If a person adopts more constraints negotiation strategies, then this person will be more likely to intend to travel.

Hypothesis 8 examines the influence that constraints negotiation has on travel intention. The result of PLS-SEM analysis indicates that the path from the construct of negotiation strategies and the construct of travel intention is not significant (t-value = 0.60, $p > .05$). This result does not provide evidence for the hypothesized relationship, which implies that those people who put more effort

into negotiating their constraints are also more likely to travel than those who devote less effort into constraints negotiation. These findings contradict findings from Hung and Petrick's (2012) study in which they found a direct effect between constraints negotiation and travel intention. The researcher of this dissertation originally suspected an indirect relationship between constraints negotiation and travel intention through self-efficacy. In the following discussion, the researcher will highlight the role of self-efficacy in this equation. It is speculated that self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. Muslim students with higher levels of self-efficacy will be more likely to intend to travel to gaming destinations.

H9: Self-efficacy positively influences travel intention. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming constraints, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

H10: Self-efficacy positively influences negotiation strategies. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use constraints negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to use them.

H11: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination.

Bandura (1986) defines self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391). The result of PLS-SEM analysis

indicates that the path from the construct of self-efficacy and the construct of travel intention is not significant ($t\text{-value} = 1.43, p > .05$). This result does not confirm the idea that Muslim tourists' self-efficacy for travel has a positive direct relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In other words, individuals' levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in overcoming travel constraints have no direct relationship with their intention to travel to a gaming destination. The findings of this dissertation contradict Amaro and Duarte's (2015) findings. In Amaro and Duarte's (2015) study of customers' intentions to purchase travel online, they split perceived behavioral control into two components: self-efficacy and controllability. In their study, Amaro and Duarte (2015) recent study indicated that self-efficacy and controllability have a significant positive influence on the intention to purchase travel online.

Although this researcher, in interpreting the findings of the dissertation, determines there to be no direct relationship between self-efficacy and travel intention, the results indicated self-efficacy to have a direct relationship with constraints negotiation. Moreover, the researcher finds that self-efficacy has a moderating effect on the relationship between constraints negotiation and travel intention to gaming destinations. Scholars have applied constraints negotiation efficacy when using self-efficacy in the context of constraints negotiation (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). Constraints negotiation efficacy represents individuals' confidence in their ability to apply negotiation strategies effectually (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Thus, hypothesis 10 tests if self-efficacy positively influences constraints negotiation strategies. The structural coefficient and t -

values associated with these two constructs are positively significant (t -value=7.59, $p<.001$), indicating support of this hypothesis. In other words, if individuals' negotiation efficacy, or confidence in their ability to successfully use negotiation strategies, is stronger, then these individuals will be more motivated to participate and will exert a greater effort in negotiating constraints. This dissertation provides clear results for constraints researchers who expect that self-efficacy could vitally affect the success of negotiation efforts but who have not empirically examined this relationship (e.g., Crawford & Godbey, 1993; Henderson, Bedini, Hecht, & Schuler, 1995; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). In addition, the findings of this dissertation are in line with the findings of the two studies that empirically tested this relationship (e.g., Hung & Petrick, 2012; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007,).

Moreover, the test of the interaction (moderation) effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between the negotiation strategy and travel intention (hypothesis 11) suggests the existence of a statistical positive significant moderation effect ($\beta = 0.08$, t value =2.77, $p<0.01$). Based on these findings, the researcher determines that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention to gaming destinations. If individuals have higher levels of confidence (self-efficacy) to use the negotiation strategies, then they will be more likely to intend to travel to a gaming destination. This intention may be due to the characteristics of gaming destinations, which are commonly known as sin destinations by many. Many factors and constraints influence the decision to travel to such a destination, and this decision thus requires more abilities,

audacity, and confidence. Therefore, since those with strong self-efficacy have more confidence in themselves, they might easily negotiate their constraints and switch to alternatives when encountering constraints to travel.

H12: Religiosity negatively influences the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist's religiosity is stronger, then this tourist will be less likely to choose a gaming destination.

Islamic religiosity is defined as the strength of belief in God, accompanied by a degree of commitment to follow principles that disciples believe that God and Prophet Mohammed set forth. Previous research shows that Islamic religiosity may potentially influence general consumer actions and, specifically, Muslims' holiday destination choices (Alsawafi, 2013; Arahshah et al., 2007; Fam et al., 2004; Mattila et al. 2001; Muhamad, 2008; Shakon et al., 2015). However, the result of partial least square structural equation modeling analysis indicates that the path from the construct of religiosity and the construct of travel intention is not significant ($t\text{-value} = 0.28, p > .05$). This result does not support the idea that religiosity has a direct relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In other words, Muslim tourists' degrees of religiosity have no relationship with their intention to choose a gaming destination. However, the researcher finds Islamic religiosity to have an indirect effect on the intention to travel to a gaming destination in two ways. First, the results indicated that Islamic religiosity predict Muslim attitude towards travelling to gaming destination. Second, Islamic religiosity moderate the relationship between attitude towards travelling to gaming destinations and the intention to travel. In addition, the

findings reveal a direct influence from Islamic religiosity on the actual behavior of visiting a gaming destination as discussed below under H13.

H13: Religiosity negatively influences actual behavior to travel to a gaming destination. If a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, this tourist's possibility to choose a gaming destination will be lower.

Even though the religiously rooted cultural aspects of human living environments directly influence individuals' behaviors and attitudes, scholars in the tourism literature have only studied religiosity's impact on travel behavior to a limited extent. Therefore, this researcher proposed to test the relationship between Islamic religiosity and actual traveling behavior. Hypothesis 13 tests if religiosity predicts actual travel to a gaming destination. The structural coefficient β and t-values associated with these two constructs are negatively significant (t-value = -7.98, $p < .00$), indicating support of this hypothesis. Therefore, if a Muslim tourist scores higher on a religiosity scale, then this tourist's probability of choosing a gaming destination will be lower. These anticipated findings may be linked to Islamic religious teachings. Islam's focus on virtue and righteousness guides its followers' attitudes toward travel and its leaders' subsequent support for advocating travel. Following Islamic teachings, Islam advocates travel for the purpose of education and for seeing Allah's (God) creations. It promotes travel for historical, social, and cultural encounters and for the purpose of gaining knowledge, associating with others, spreading God's word, and enjoying and appreciating God's creations. The following verse from Holy Quran asks followers to travel in order to observe and meditate on the creation of God: "Travel through

the earth and see how Allah did originate creation; so will Allah produce a later creation: for Allah has power over all things” (God, Surat AlAnkabout, p.398). Since a gaming destination mostly likely offers few of these attributes, gaming destinations are considered sin cities for many Muslims. These types of destinations offer many other activities that Islamic teachings prohibit participation such as prostitution and gambling. For example, God said in Quran “O you who believe, intoxicants, and gambling, and the altars of idols, and the games of chance are abominations of the devil; you shall avoid them that you may succeed. The devil wants to provoke animosity and hatred among you through intoxicants and gambling, and to distract you from remembering God, and from observing the Contact Prayers (Salat). Will you then refrain?” (Quran, 5:90-91). Also, God mentioned illegal sex behaviors in Quran ““And come not near to unlawful sexual intercourse. Verily, it is a faahishah (a great sin) and an evil way.” (Quran, 17: 32). Therefore, devout Muslims will avoid travelling to gaming destinations.

These findings are in line with findings by Mattila et al. (2001) in which the scholars reported that religion has a significant impact on students’ potential to engage in health risk behaviors during spring break vacations, as well as in their choice of spring break destinations. Therefore, destination marketers should not target Muslims, as promoting gaming destinations to them might be ineffective.

H14: Religiosity negatively influences attitudes toward gaming destinations. If a person’s level of religiosity is stronger, then this person will more likely have a more unfavorable attitude toward traveling to a gaming destination.

H15: Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and intentions to travel to gaming destinations.

Attitudes toward gaming destinations are the most relevant determinants of intentions to travel to gaming destinations. Thus, researchers must know and understand the factors that contribute to favorable or unfavorable attitudes. Hence, the researcher proposed hypotheses 14 and 15 to examine the relationships between religiosity, attitudes, and intentions. Hypothesis 14 investigates the relationship between Muslim tourists' religiosity and their attitudes toward traveling to gaming destination. The structural coefficient and t-values associated with these two constructs are negatively significant (t-value=10.24, $p < .00$), indicating support of this hypothesis. Specifically, if a person's level of religiosity is stronger, then this person will more likely have a more unfavorable attitude toward traveling to a gaming destination.

Hypothesis 15 tests the interaction (moderation) effect of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between attitudes and travel intention. The results suggest that a statistical negative significant moderation effect exists ($\beta = -0.08$, t value =2.58, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, Islamic religiosity moderates the relationship between attitudes and travel intention to gaming destinations. If a person's religiosity is stronger, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be weaker. If a person's religiosity is weaker, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be stronger.

Destination marketers need to pay close attention to the factors that contribute to whether Muslim tourists have favorable attitudes or unfavorable ones. Some destination marketers (e.g., New Zealand, Malaysia, and Turkey) have already realized the needs of Muslim tourists and have started to provide products and services that cater to this segment's needs. For example, many destination management organizations or hotels have improved their websites by including additional information, such as prayer times and the location of mosques and halal food stores (Timothy & Iverson, 2006). Tourism operators have also provided their staff with training about cross-cultural communication and have informed them how to accommodate or treat Muslim tourists with respect (Timothy & Iverson, 2006). As Muslims typically adhere to a specific dress code and avoid freely mixing with the opposite gender, some hotels in Turkey even offer separate swimming pools and recreational facilities or make different times available for each gender (Ozdemir & Met, 2012).

H16: Past behavior positively influences the behavioral intention to travel to a gaming destination. If past experiences are positive, then intentions are more likely to be stronger.

The result of partial least square structural equation modeling analysis indicates that the path from the construct of past behavior and the construct of travel intention is significant ($t\text{-value} = 2.13, p < .05$). This result does support that past behavior has a relationship with the intention to travel to a gaming destination. In other words, if Muslim students' frequency of visiting gaming destination is more (e.g., visited gaming destination four to five times in the past),

then their intentions to revisit gaming destination are more likely to be stronger than those who have never visited gaming destinations before. These findings support Ajzen's (1991) claim that when individuals deliberately form conscious intent, past behaviors are one of the influencing factors. This finding is also in line with the meta-analysis conducted by Ouellette and Wood (1998) in which they examined 64 studies and found robust evidence for the effect of the past behavior structure on behavioral intention. Moreover, the finding is consistent with prior empirical studies that demonstrated how past behavior has a direct effect on the behavioral intention of different types of behaviors (acts) (e.g., Ajzen & Maden, 1986; Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2007).

5.3 Implications

5.3.1 Practical Implications

In today's increasingly saturated tourism market, market segmentation and an understanding of tourists' behavior have become crucial issues in successful destination management and planning. As tourists and their needs remain the ultimate driving force that influences competition in tourist destinations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003), researchers must examine tourists' destination choice decisions from the tourists' perspectives. Tourists' perceptions of what influences their decisions to choose particular destinations may provide a valuable understanding to destination managers and marketers. Thus, destination managers and marketers can draw several marketing implications from this dissertation. First, traditional decision-making models mostly explain

tourist decision-making as a multi-stage process through which tourists develop their travel decisions rationally and logically. This researcher argues that this dissertation model offers a parsimonious structure that allows for the understanding of decision-making. The dissertation model is comprised of nine components: motivation, attitudes, subjective norms, constraints, constraints negotiation, self-efficacy, past behavior, religiosity, and intention. This methodology is believed to be straightforward and easily understood by practitioners. Practitioners may thus utilize this framework to analyze people's motivations to travel, as well as reasons behind their reluctance to take vacations, and to employ strategies correspondingly to alleviate their concerns.

Second, the demand for travel can be influenced by demographic, socioeconomic, and cultural variables, such as ethnic identity, nationality, age, region, family size, gender, marital status, religion, income, occupation, and educational level (Meng & Uysal, 2008). This dissertation examines Islamic religiosity, via the frequency of attendance of religious services and the importance of Islamic faith in individuals' lives, and the effect that these factors have on destination choice decisions. The findings of this dissertation indicate that religion does shape the choice of a destination for Muslims and what is done at the destination. Therefore, findings from this research may encourage destination marketers to develop products and services that are compatible with Islamic laws. These products and services can pull Muslim travelers to these destinations. Furthermore, this type of destination marketing entails the development of communication channels between tourists and other

stakeholders, in order to enhance awareness and persuade tourists to purchase products (Buhalis, 2000). Promotional activities include advertising on television, radio, the press, and online. Stakeholders must target the right market with the right message at the right time, in order to guarantee a successful marketing campaign with minimal costs. This dissertation's findings indicate that highly religious individuals will be less likely to travel to gaming destinations. Therefore, gaming destination marketers should not target devout Muslims, as this promotion might be ineffective and fail.

Third, the findings of this dissertation indicate that attitudes are the most relevant determinants of the intention to travel. Accordingly, destination marketers need to pay close attention to the factors that contribute to a favorable attitude. This dissertation has detailed some of those factors, namely motivation and religiosity. Thus, in order to increase favorable attitudes toward traveling, marketers should understand the motivational factors that enhance a favorable attitude. Kay (2004) and Kim (2007) suggested that effective promotional programs and travel packages could be created based on the examination of push and pull factors of a targeted travel market. Applying this prior study to the present one, in order to efficiently target the Muslim student travel market, destination marketers must know and consider the major reasons that Muslim students travel, e.g., to "experience different cultures and ways of life," "learn new things," "travel to historically important places," "physically rest and relax," "participate in sports," "meet people who are interested in the same thing," "be

daring and adventuresome,” “travel to safe places,” and “visit a destination which most people value and appreciate.”

Moreover, in order to improve the effectiveness of a destination’s marketing strategies, destination attributes (pull factors) such as “halal food,” “positive attitudes toward Islamic culture,” “availability of mosques (places of worship),” “availability of information,” “beaches for swimming and sunning,” “ease of communication with local people,” “water sports,” and “amusement or theme parks” should be taken into consideration by destination marketers and travel agents when designing particular trip information and inclusive packages to attract Muslim travelers.

Beside motivation, religiosity is another significant predictor of attitudes toward traveling. Additionally, the dissertation results show that religiosity is a predictor of actual traveling behavior. Accordingly, destination marketers should be aware of the religious characteristics of the Muslim student market in the United States, as well as their religious requirements. Much evidence highlights the growth of the Muslim tourist market. This growth has led to the emergence of the halal tourism concept. Consequently, tourism and hospitality companies are faced with the necessity of providing halal tourism products and services in order to meet the needs of this evolving market (Alsawafi, 2013; Halbase, 2012). This new need has significant implications for marketing strategies. For instance, these tourism and hospitality companies and organizations should develop a hospitality and tourism market that represents Shariah-compliant tourism products and services. Such initiatives show that tourism companies have much

potential for growth in creating and developing forms of hospitality and tourism supported in principles and behavioral codes that represent a society and culture. Tourism and hospitality establishments can enhance their chances of selection by recognizing and marketing their competence to meet Muslim tourists' needs.

Fourth, Muslim students report different constraints associated with traveling. These constraints shed some light on why some Muslim students do not go on vacations even though most of them are interested in and motivated to travel. Destination marketers should design and deliver products and services in a way that can reduce perceived travel constraints. For example, some respondents report that they do not travel because of high travel costs in the United States. Airline companies, offline and online travel agents, and marketers may benefit if they expend more effort on designing and promoting cheaper vacations to groups of international students. They could also offer incentives to students who refer or encourage their friends to take vacations through these airlines or travel agents.

Fifth, scholars in the existing literature, especially in leisure (e.g., Crawford et al., 1991), have suggested that people may participate in an activity despite the presence of a constraint because of their negotiation efforts. To attract more people to travel, marketers should invest effort into helping target customers negotiate their constraints. If marketers promote travel as a better way to learn or a way to relieve a stressful study/work life, then this may motivate students to negotiate their constraints. Although, in assisting target markets to overcome their constraints, direct interference from marketers may not be possible, indirect

strategies may be more effective in alleviating constraints. These strategies could include redesigning services or changing negative images of Muslim travel. For example, some dissertation research participants report that negative attitudes toward Muslims are one of their major constraints toward travel in the United States. Thus, educating local people and advertising with positive, Muslim-friendly messages, which may advertise the availability of halal cuisines, might help in building a positive attitude toward traveling to a particular destination.

5.3.2 Theoretical Implications

In general, this dissertation contributes to the literature in that it develops a theoretical model to examine Muslim students' traveling behavior by testing the relationship between many constructs. Specifically, this dissertation has made at least six advances. First, since the researcher examines Muslim students' traveling behavior based on a holistic approach, integrating several theoretical models, this researcher thus validates the integration of these theories in the context of travel to gaming destinations. The researcher confirms attitudes and subjective norms as predictors of intention, as Ajzen (1991) hypothesized in the TPB. Ajzen (1991) argued that the relationship between the three elements of the TPB and the outcome variable (intention) may vary depending on behaviors and situations. Therefore, this dissertation helps in extending and enhancing the TPB, through the application of this theoretical model in predicting Muslim tourists' traveling decisions, along with the addition of the new independent variables, namely religiosity. Second, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued that attitudes alone cannot always definitively predict a behavior. They proposed that the aggregation

of other constructs with attitude could make the prediction of behavior more valid. Thus, in this dissertation, the final model accounts for more variation through the inclusion of subjective norms, motivations (push motives and pull attributes), travel constraints, constraints negotiation, past behavior, and self-efficacy with regard to visiting a gaming destination, along with the religiosity construct. The researcher enhances the model's validity through this combination of constructs.

Third, the findings of this dissertation confirm existing knowledge that motivation effect travel behavior and attitude towards travel. However, unlike existing studies' findings (e.g., Hsu et al., 2009), this dissertation's results indicate that not only push motivation can predict attitudes toward travel, but also pull motivation. Moreover, this dissertation finds that religiosity is a predictor of attitudes toward travel. This dissertation is the first to shed light on these relationships. Fourth, as postulated, the findings indicate that religiosity plays a role in moderating the relationship between attitudes and the intention to travel to a gaming destination. If a person is highly religious, then the influence of attitudes on this person's intention to choose a gaming destination will be lesser. The researcher's exploration of these interrelationships will allow for a better understanding of how and why people make travel decisions. Attitudinal and behavioral researchers should further validate these results.

Fifth, existing literature examines travel intention by including either perceived behavioral control or self-efficacy, along with attitudes and subjective norms, as predictors. In this dissertation, the researcher argues that the perceived behavioral control construct is limited in terms of predicting travel

intention. In a travel behavior context, the resources and opportunities are broader and may include many internal and external factors that may facilitate or inhibit making a travel decision. Thus, this dissertation is the first to use the travel constraint construct alongside travel negotiation strategies and self-efficacy, in order to predict the intention to travel to a gaming destination. The dissertation's findings do indicate that travel constraints are a predictor of intention to travel. In addition, the findings indicate that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between negotiation strategies and intent to travel to gaming destinations. By integrating all these theories and adding other relevant constructs, the researcher obtains a holistic view, providing more information than studies with more fragmented results.

The sixth contribution is methodological. Considering that research with multidimensional constructs using PLS-SEM path modeling is still limited in tourism and hospitality literature (Valle & Assaker, 2015), the researcher of this dissertation fills this gap by using multidimensional constructs to operationalize five constructs. Due to the use of multidimensional constructs, the researcher is able to enhance the general understanding of the overall construct (Amaro & Duarte, 2015; Petter, Straub & Rai, 2007). To be specific, (1) the empirical results show that the push motivation can be conceptualized as a second order construct, formed by four distinct factors: learning and novelty, escape and relaxation, socialization, and prestige and social recognition. (2) The findings indicate that the pull motivation can be conceptualized as a second order construct, formed by five different factors: halal products and services, available

information and activities, dining and entertainment, beaches and an exotic atmosphere, amusements, and water activities. (3) This dissertation shows that perceived travel constraints can be operationalized as a multidimensional construct comprised of structural constraints, religious constraints, interpersonal constraints, intrapersonal constraints, and family constraints. (4) Constraints negotiation also can be operationalized as a multidimensional construct composed of managing finances and time, changing plans and skills acquisition, selecting value destinations, and changing interpersonal relations. (5) Over the course of this dissertation, the researcher developed a measurement scale for Islamic religiosity and traveling by following the rigorous procedures that Churchill (1979) recommended. The researcher's measurement scale is both reliable and valid so that it may reflect the true meanings of the construct of interest. The Islamic religiosity scale consists of four dimensions, namely Islamic beliefs, Islamic practices and ritual behaviors, forbidden behaviors, and abstention from sinning. The final scale is both reliable and valid. Given an increasing travel demand from Muslim markets and the scarcity of research on this topic, the construction of an Islamic religiosity scale in the travel context is a timely contribution to the tourism and hospitality literature, as well as social and psychology literature, and will expectantly act as a stepping stone to further examinations of this topic.

5.4 Limitations

Although the researcher developed the proposed model from a solid theoretical background, as is expected in all research, a few limitations are

associated with this dissertation. The first limitation is related to the results' external validity. The exact Muslim student population in the United States is unknown, as no available list of this population exists. In addition, officials at United States' universities and colleges are prevented by law from providing contact information for their international students. Thus, the data collection in this dissertation was limited to students found from two sources: the universities and colleges identified from multi-stage sampling and Fulbright students. Although based on a strong sample in terms of diversity and size, scholars should only generalize the results with caution in other contexts.

The dissertation's second limitation relates to the dissertation's questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of nine scales and six demographic questions. The participants had to answer a total of 196 items and six demographic questions, which means that participants took approximately twenty minutes to complete the questionnaire. In this situation, participants may have become anxious about time. Respondents' burden (e.g., issues of tiredness, feeling rushed, and anxiety) could be a limitation to the data's accuracy. Furthermore, the researcher of this dissertation collected data using online, self-administered questionnaires. This represents a limitation in that participants could be influenced by social desirability and human memory during self-reporting, which can consequently influence data's accuracy (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001). The questionnaire does include a shorter version of the social desirability scale, in order to tackle the issue of dishonesty in answering sensitive questions, such as those related to religiosity. Yet this social desirability scale

also involves self-reporting behavior, and the sensitive nature of the topic may still affect honest completion of the questionnaire.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Through this dissertation, the researcher provides some insight into the travel behavior of Muslim students to gaming destinations. However, the dissertation is limited in its ability to fully explain and justify the travel decision-making of Muslim students to gaming destinations. Thus, partial of this dissertation should be assessed cautiously for its validity. The researcher did not test the Islamic religiosity construct developed in this dissertation for its validity. In addition, although the researcher obtained travel motivations, travel constraints, and negotiation strategies from the literature, the researcher also added new items to these constructs. Therefore, scholars need to conduct further research to confirm the validity of the constructs in measuring the independent variables.

Moreover, the proposed model for travel decision-making relationships is limited to empirical examinations of the sample of Muslim students in the United States. Future studies should replicate this dissertation with different travel groups from other geographic regions, from various international cultures, or with different demographic characteristics (e.g., a non-student sample). Further studies would improve the general understanding of tourists' travel behaviors and enforce a stronger relationship among the dissertation's constructs. Such replications would allow researchers to find reliable and valid indicators to measure the proposed constructs and obtain a stronger and more established

model. Moreover, comparative studies using samples from a range of religions would also add to the findings, so that the Muslim sample could be compared to samples from other religions (e.g. Christian or Jewish). Such studies would allow scholars to assess whether or not the model holds in other cultures.

Although the researcher of this dissertation examined the influence of travel motivations and constraints negotiation on travel intention, another research line can be oriented toward assessing the relationship between motivation and constraints negotiation strategies. The motivation–opportunity–ability (MOA) model (Hung, Turk, & Ingram, 2011) could be integrated within this dissertation’s proposed model in order to further understand tourists’ travel decision-making. In some leisure literature (see for example, Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007), scholars provide evidence that motivation is an important component in successful negotiation through its direct and positive effect on negotiation. Future research could focus on exploring this process further by identifying additional factors that may influence negotiation efforts and negotiation-efficacy itself. These efforts may further provide an understanding of the insignificant relationship between negotiation strategies and travel intention that the researcher found in this dissertation. The relationship might be fully or partially mediated by motivation.

Future researchers may also need to examine the possibility of adding variables that are more relevant to travel, such as risk, prior knowledge, destination image, satisfaction and stress. These variables may function as independent and/or moderating variables in the model. The researcher of this

dissertation did not add these variables to the model due to the main objectives and nature of the research. However, future research should test the effect of these variables on the intention to travel.

5.6 Conclusions

The tourism industry is continuously looking for new knowledge related to travel behavior, motivations, and the preferences of the main tourist segments. The demand for travel can be influenced by demographic, socioeconomic, and cultural variables, such as ethnic identity, nationality, age, region, family size, gender, marital status, religion, income, occupation, and educational level (Meng et al., 2008). Despite numerous studies on most of the aforementioned demographic and socioeconomic variables, researchers have paid very little attention to religiosity with regard to travel decision-making. Specifically, no scholars have investigated the role of Islamic religiosity in predicting Muslims' destination choice decisions. Given this lack, researchers have been and are faced with the imperative to examine the relationship between Islamic religiosity and destination choice decisions. Using the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) as a guiding framework, this dissertation's researcher explored the role of attitudes, subjective norms, travel motivation, religiosity, self-efficacy, travel constraints, constraints negotiation strategies, and past behavior on Muslim students' intentions to travel to a gaming destination. Through the dissertation's findings, the researcher provides support for the idea that Islamic religiosity negatively influences the Muslim decision to travel to a gaming destination. Through the results, the researcher is also able to indicate that

attitudes, subjective norms, travel motivation, travel constraints, and past behavior influence the intention to travel to a gaming destination. Still relying on the findings, the researcher further indicates that Islamic religiosity has a moderating effect on the relationship between tourists' attitudes and their intention to travel to a gaming destination.

In the dissertation, the researcher aimed to develop a theoretical model to explain the relationships between many constructs in examining Muslim students' traveling behaviors. This dissertation makes several contributions to the understanding of and insights about Muslim traveling behavior. From the results of the full data analyses, the researcher asserts that devout Muslims will not travel to gaming destinations. Moreover, in order to gain Muslim tourists', destination managers and marketers must provide products and services that are compatible with Islamic laws. Finally, although the findings and results of this dissertation are exploratory in nature, tourism planners and destination managers will find both the produced information and the dissertation implications to be helpful, especially in designing more appropriate strategies to offer products and services that match their target market's needs. These strategies may include:

- (1) Providing Halal products and services (e.g., halal food, positive attitudes toward Islamic culture, and mosques (places of worship);
- (2) Promoting travel as a better way to learn or a way to relieve a stressful study/work life. This may motivate Muslim students to negotiate their constraints;
- (3) Redesigning services or changing negative images of Muslim travel by educating local people and advertising with positive, Muslim-friendly messages, which may advertise the

availability of halal cuisines, might help in building a positive attitude toward traveling to a particular destination; and (4) Recognizing the power of Muslims reference groups and develop marketing strategies and tools to educate them about travel benefits and destination attributes.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D., Kumar, V., & Day, G. (2007). *Marketing Research* (Vol. 9): John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 347-356.
- Abd Al Hameed, G., & Al Sheikh, S. (1978). *The Psychology of the Arabic Personality*: Cairo: Book World.
- Abusabha, R., & Achterberg, C. (1997). Review of self-efficacy and locus of control for nutrition-and health-related behavior. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 97(10), 1122-1132.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). *From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior*. Springer.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Ajzen, I. (2011). The theory of planned behavior: reactions and reflections. *Psychology & Health*, 26(9), 1113-1127.
- Ajzen, I. (2014). The theory of planned behavior is alive and well, and not ready to retire: a commentary on Sniehotta, Priesseu, and Araujo-Soares. *Health Psychology Review*, 1-7.

- Ajzen, I. 1988. Attitudes. Personality, and Behavior. Milton-Keynes, England: Open University Press.
- Ajzen, I. and Fishbein, M. 1980. Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior. Englewood-Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Ajzen, I., & Driver, B. L. (1992). Application of the theory of planned behavior to leisure choice. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 24(3), 207-224.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84(5), 888.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (2000). Attitudes and the attitude-behavior relation: Reasoned and automatic processes. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 11(1), 1-33.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (2000). The prediction of behavior from attitudinal and normative variables.
- Ajzen, I., Joyce, N., Sheikh, S., & Cote, N. G. (2011). Knowledge and the prediction of behavior: The role of information accuracy in the theory of planned behavior. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 33(2), 101-117.
- Al-Hamarneh, A., & Steiner, C. (2004). Islamic tourism: Rethinking the strategies of tourism development in the Arab world after September 11, 2001. *Comparative Studies of South Asia, Africa and the Middle East*, 24(1), 173-182.
- Allport, G. W. (1935). Attitudes.

- Alsawafi, A. M. (2013). *Holiday Destinations: Understanding the Perceptions of Omani Outbound Tourists*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Waikato). Retrieved from googlescholar.com.
- Al-utheimeen, M. (2010). Explaining the fundamentals of faith. Islamic Dawah & Guidance Center Dammam: KSA.
- Amaro, S., & Duarte, P. (2015). An integrative model of consumers' intentions to purchase travel online. *Tourism Management*, 46, 64-79.
- Anastasopoulos, P. G. (1992). Tourism and attitude change: Greek tourists visiting Turkey. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 629-642.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411.
- Andreu, L., Kozak, M., Avci, N., & Cifter, N. (2006). Market segmentation by motivations to travel: British tourists visiting Turkey. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 19(1), 1-14.
- Arfaj, I. N. (2007). Have you discovered its real beauty? Hafuf, KSA: Author.
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(4), 471-499.
- Assael, H. (1984). *Consumer behavior and marketing action*: Kent Pub. Co.
- Atkinson, J. W. (1964). *An introduction to motivation*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.

- Awaritefe, O. (2004). Motivation and other considerations in tourist destination choice: a case study of Nigeria. *Tourism Geographies*, 6(3), 303-330.
- Babbie, E. (1999). *Métodos de pesquisas de survey*. Ed. da UFMG.
- Backman, S. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1989). Discriminating between continuers and discontinuers of two public leisure services. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 7(4), 56-71.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1981). Attitudes, intentions, and behavior: A test of some key hypotheses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41(4), 607.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(1), 8-34.
- Baker, E., Al-Gahtani, S., & Hubona, G. (2010). Cultural impacts on acceptance and adoption of information technology in a developing country. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 18(3), 35-58
- Baldwin, J. M. (1901-1905). Dictionary of philosophy and psychology (Vols. 1, 2, & 3). New York: Macmillan
- Baldwin, W. R. (1901). Bedstead attachment: Google Patents.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). US international pleasure travelers' images of four Mediterranean destinations: A comparison of visitors and nonvisitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(2), 144-152.
- Baloglu, S., & Uysal, M. (1996). Market segments of push and pull motivations: A canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 8(3), 32-38.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191.

Bandura, A. (1980). The self and mechanisms of agency. In J. Suls (Ed.), *Social psychological perspectives of the self*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Bandura, A. (1982). The self and mechanisms of agency. *Psychological Perspectives on the Self*, 1, 3-39.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 4(3), 359-373.

Bandura, A. (1994). Social cognitive theory and exercise of control over HIV infection *Preventing AIDS* (pp. 25-59): Springer.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Macmillan.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents*, 5(307-337).

Battour, M., Battor, M., & Bhatti, M. A. (2014). Islamic attributes of destination: Construct development and measurement validation, and their impact on tourist satisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(6), 556-564.

Battour, M., Ismail, M. N., & Battor, M. (2011). The impact of destination attributes on Muslim tourist's choice. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(6), 527-540.

- Becker, J. M., Rai, A., Ringle, C. M., & Völckner, F. (2013). Discovering unobserved heterogeneity in structural equation models to avert validity threats. *Mis Quarterly*, 37(3), 665-694.
- Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 657-681.
- Bell, D. E. (1985). Disappointment in decision making under uncertainty. *Operations Research*, 33(1), 1-27.
- Bentler, P. M., & Speckart, G. (1979). Models of attitude–behavior relations. *Psychological Review*, 86(5), 452.
- Berkman, H.W., Lindquist, J.D. and Sirgy M.J. (1997), Consumer Behavior, NTC Business Book, Lincolnwood, Illinois, Chicago.
- Bettman, J. R. (1979). An information processing theory of consumer choice. *Journal of Marketing*.
- Bieger, T., & Laesser, C. (2002). Market segmentation by motivation: The case of Switzerland. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(1), 68-76.
- Bogari, N. B., Crowther, G., & Marr, N. (2003). Motivation for domestic tourism: A case study of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Tourism Analysis*, 8(2), 137-141.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). A new incremental fit index for general structural equation models. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 17(3), 303-316.
- Bonne, K., Vermeir, I., Bergeaud-Blackler, F., & Verbeke, W. (2007). Determinants of halal meat consumption in France. *British Food Journal*, 109(5), 367-386.

- Boothby, J., Tungatt, M. F., & Townsend, A. R. (1981). Ceasing participation in sports activity: reported reasons and their implications. *Journal of Leisure Research, 13*(1), 1-14.
- Botha, C., Crompton, J. L., & Kim, S.-S. (1999). Developing a revised competitive position for Sun/Lost city, South Africa. *Journal of Travel Research, 37*(4), 341-352.
- Brenes, G. A., Strube, M. J., & Storandt, M. (1998). An application of the theory of planned behavior to exercise among older adults¹. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28*(24), 2274-2290.
- Briñol, P., Petty, R. E., & Barden, J. (2007). Happiness versus sadness as a determinant of thought confidence in persuasion: a self-validation analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social psychology, 93*(5), 711.
- Brown, T. J. (1999). Antecedents of culturally significant tourist behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26*(3), 676-700.
- Buchanan, T., & Allen, L. (1985). Barriers to recreation participation in later life cycle stages. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 19*(3), 39-50.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management, 21*(1), 97-116.
- Cai, L. A., & Combrink, T. E. (2000). Japanese female travelers-a unique outbound market. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 5*(1), 16-24.
- Canally, C., & Timothy, D. J. (2007). Perceived constraints to travel across the US-Mexico border among American university students. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 9*(6), 423-437.

- Carr, N. (2002). Going with the flow: An assessment of the relationship between young people's leisure and holiday behavior. *Tourism Geographies*, 4(2), 115-134.
- Carroll, B., & Alexandris, K. (1997). Perception of constraints and strength of motivation: Their relationship to recreational sport participation in Greece. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 29(3), 279.
- Casaló, L. V., Flavián, C., & Guinalíu, M. (2010). Determinants of the intention to participate in firm-hosted online travel communities and effects on consumer behavioral intentions. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 898-911.
- Chen, A. H., Hung, K.-p., & Peng, N. (2011). Planned leisure behavior and pet attachment. *Annals of tourism research*, 38(4), 1657-1662.
- Chen, A. H., Peng, N., & Hung, K. p. (2014). Developing a pet owners' tourism constraints scale—the constraints to take dogs to tourism activities. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 315-324.
- Chen, A., & Peng, N. (2012). Green hotel knowledge and tourists' staying behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(4), 2211-2216.
- Chen, H.-J., Chen, P.-J., & Okumus, F. (2013). The relationship between travel constraints and destination image: A case study of Brunei. *Tourism Management*, 35, 198-208.
- Chen, P.-J., Hua, N., & Wang, Y. (2013). Mediating Perceived Travel Constraints: The Role of Destination Image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(3), 201-221. doi:10.1080/10548408.2013.774914

- Cheng, S., Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2006). Negative word-of-mouth communication intention: an application of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(1), 95-116.
- Cheng, S.-T., & Kwan, K. W. (2008). Attachment dimensions and contingencies of self-worth: The moderating role of culture. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 45(6), 509-514.
- Chick, G., & Dong, E. (2003). *Possibility of refining the hierarchical model of leisure constraints through cross-cultural research*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 2003 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium.
- Chiou, J.-S. (1998). The effects of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control on consumers' purchase intentions: The moderating effects of product knowledge and attention to social comparison information. *Proc. Natl. Sci. Counc. ROC (C)*, 9(2), 298-308.
- Chiu, Y.-T. H., Lee, W.-I., & Chen, T.-H. (2014). Environmentally responsible behavior in ecotourism: Antecedents and implications. *Tourism Management*, 40, 321-329.
- Chon, K.-S. (1989). Understanding recreational traveler's motivation, attitude and satisfaction. *The Tourist Review*, 44(1), 3-7.
- Chon, K.-S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: A review and discussion. *The Tourist Review*, 45(2), 2-9.
- Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 64-73.

- Cleveland, M., Laroche, M., & Hallab, R. (2013). Globalization, culture, religion, and values: Comparing consumption patterns of Lebanese Muslims and Christians. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(8), 958-967.
- Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(3), 371-386.
- Cohen, E. (1992). Pilgrimage and tourism: Convergence and divergence. *Sacred journeys: The Anthropology of Pilgrimage*, 47-61.
- Cohen, E. (1992). Pilgrimage centers: concentric and excentric. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(1), 33-50.
- Cohen, E. (1998). Tourism and religion: a comparative perspective. *Pacific Tourism Review*, 2(1), 1-10.
- Cohen, E., & Neal, M. (2012). A Middle Eastern Muslim tourist enclave in Bangkok. *Tourism Geographies*, 14(4), 570-598.
- Cohen, J. (2013). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*: Academic press.
- Collins, D., & Tisdell, C. (2002). Gender and differences in travel life cycles. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(2), 133-143.
- Constable, G. (1976). Opposition to pilgrimage in the middle ages. *Studia Gratiana*, 19(1), 123-146.
- Corby, N. H., Schneider Jamner, M., & Wolitski, R. J. (1996). Using the theory of planned behavior to predict intention to use condoms among male and female injecting drug users. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 26(1), 52-75.

- Corley, K. G., & Gioia, D. A. (2011). Building theory about theory building: what constitutes a theoretical contribution? *Academy of Management Review*, 36(1), 12-32.
- Correia, A., & Pimpão, A. (2008). Decision-making processes of Portuguese tourist travelling to South America and Africa. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 2(4), 330-373.
- Correia, A., do Valle, P. O., & Moço, C. (2007). Modeling motivations and perceptions of Portuguese tourists. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(1), 76-80.
- Correia, A., Santos, C. M., & Barros, C. P. (2007). Tourism in Latin America a choice analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(3), 610-629.
- Cotte, J., & Wood, S. L. (2004). Families and innovative consumer behavior: A triadic analysis of sibling and parental influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(1), 78-86.
- Crawford, D. W., & Godbey, G. (1987). Reconceptualizing barriers to family leisure. *Leisure Sciences*, 9(2), 119-127.
- Crawford, D. W., Jackson, E. L., & Godbey, G. (1991). A hierarchical model of leisure constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 13(4), 309-320.
- Crompton, J. (1992). Structure of vacation destination choice sets. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 420-434.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408-424.

- Crompton, J. L., & Ankomah, P. K. (1993). Choice set propositions in destination decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(3), 461-476.
- Crompton, J. L., & McKay, S. L. (1997). Motives of visitors attending festival events. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2), 425-439.
- Crompton, J., Jackson, E., & Witt, P. (2005). Integrating benefits to leisure with constraints to leisure. *Constraints to Leisure*, 245-260.
- Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin*, 52(4), 281.
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 24(4), 349.
- Cukur, C. S., De Guzman, M. R. T., & Carlo, G. (2004). Religiosity, values, and horizontal and vertical individualism—collectivism: a study of Turkey, the United States, and the Philippines. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 144(6), 613-634.
- Daniels, M. J., Rodgers, E. B. D., & Wiggins, B. P. (2005). "Travel Tales": an interpretive analysis of constraints and negotiations to pleasure travel as experienced by persons with physical disabilities. *Tourism Management*, 26(6), 919-930.
- Dann, G. M. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4), 184-194.
- Dann, G. M. (1981). Tourist motivation an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(2), 187-219.

- Dann, G. M. (1981). Tourist motivation an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research, 8*(2), 187-219.
- Dann, G. M. (1983). Comment on Iso-Ahola's "toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation". *Annals of Tourism Research, 10*(2), 273-276.
- Davidson, J. K., Moore, N. B., & Ullstrup, K. M. (2004). Religiosity and sexual responsibility: Relationships of choice. *American Journal of Health Behavior, 28*(4), 335-346.
- Decrop, A. (2010). Destination choice sets: An inductive longitudinal approach. *Annals of Tourism Research, 37*(1), 93-115.
- Decrop, A., & Kozak, M. (2014). Consumer Goals in Vacation Decision Making. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 31*(1), 71-81.
- Delener, N. (1990). The effects of religious factors on perceived risk in durable goods purchase decisions. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 7*(3), 27-38.
- Delener, N. (1990). The effects of religious factors on perceived risk in durable goods purchase decisions. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 7*(3), 27-38.
- Din, K. H. (1989). Islam and tourism: Patterns, issues, and options. *Annals of Tourism Research, 16*(4), 542-563.
- Do Valle, P. O., & Assaker, G. (2015). Using partial least squares structural equation modeling in tourism research a review of past research and recommendations for future applications. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(2), 1-14

- Dollahite, D. C. (1998). Fathering, faith, and spirituality. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 7(1), 3-15.
- Donald, S., & Tull, H. (1993). *Marketing Research-Measurement & Method*.
- Dugan, B. (1994). Religion and food service. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 35(6), 80-85.
- Dunbar-Hall, P. (2001). Culture, tourism and cultural tourism: boundaries and frontiers in performances of Balinese music and dance. *Journal of Intercultural Studies*, 22(2), 173-187.
- Durkheim, E. (1915). *Elementary Forms of the Religious Life*. Translated by Joseph Ward Swain. London: Allen Unwin.
- Durkheim, E. (2014). *The division of labor in society*. Simon and Schuster.
- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- East, R. (2000). Complaining as planned behavior. *Psychology & Marketing*, 17(12), 1077-1095.
- Eid, R. (2013). Integrating Muslim customer perceived value, satisfaction, loyalty and retention in the tourism industry: an empirical study. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 249-260.
- Eid, R., & El-Gohary, H. (2015). The role of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between perceived value and tourist satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 46, 477-488.

- Engs, R. C., Diebold, B. A., & Hanson, D. J. (1996). The drinking patterns and problems of a national sample of college students, 1994. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*, 41, 13-33.
- Esposito, J. L., & Donner, F. M. G. (1999). The Oxford History of Islam. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press
- Essoo, N., & Dibb, S. (2004). Religious influences on shopping behavior: an exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 20(7-8), 683-712.
- Falk, J. H., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Benckendorff, P. (2012). Travel and learning: A neglected tourism research area. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(2), 908-927.
- Fam, K. S., Waller, D. S., & Erdogan, B. Z. (2004). The influence of religion on attitudes towards the advertising of controversial products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38(5-6), 537-555.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2010). Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach. New York: Psychology Press (Taylor [395]
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2011). *Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach*: Taylor & Francis.
- Fisher, R. J., & Grégoire, Y. (2006). Gender differences in decision satisfaction within established dyads: Effects of competitive and cooperative behaviors. *Psychology & Marketing*, 23(4), 313-333.

- Fleischer, A. (2000). The tourist behind the pilgrim in the Holy Land. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 19(3), 311-326.
- Fleischer, A., & Pizam, A. (2002). Tourism constraints among Israeli seniors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 106-123.
- Fodness, D. (1992). The impact of family life cycle on the vacation decision-making process. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(2), 8-13.
- Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 555-581.
- Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1999). A model of tourist information search behavior. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(3), 220-230.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39-50.
- Galani-Moutafi, V. (2000). The self and the other: Traveler, ethnographer, tourist. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), 203-224.
- Gallarza, M. G., & Saura, I. G. (2006). Value dimensions, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty: an investigation of university students' travel behaviour. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 437-452.
- Gardiner, S., King, B., & Wilkins, H. (2013). The travel behaviors of international students Nationality-based constraints and opportunities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 19(4), 287-299.

- Gardiner, S., King, C., & Grace, D. (2013). Travel decision making an empirical examination of generational values, attitudes, and intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(3), 310-324.
- Ghandour, L. A., El Sayed, D. S., & Martins, S. S. (2012). Prevalence and patterns of commonly abused psychoactive prescription drugs in a sample of university students from Lebanon: An opportunity for cross-cultural comparisons. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 121(1), 110-117.
- Ghandour, L. A., Karam, E. G., & Maalouf, W. E. (2009). Lifetime alcohol use, abuse and dependence among university students in Lebanon: Exploring the role of religiosity in different religious faiths. *Addiction*, 104(6), 940-948.
- Giacobbi, J., Peter R, Hausenblas, H. A., & Penfield, R. D. (2005). Further refinements in the measurement of exercise imagery: The exercise imagery inventory. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science*, 9(4), 251-266.
- Gilbert, D., & Hudson, S. (2000). Tourism demand constraints: A skiing participation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(4), 906-925.
- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(2), 183-211.
- Gnoth, J. (1997). Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2), 283-304.

- Godbey, G., Crawford, D. W., & Shen, X. S. (2010). Assessing hierarchical leisure constraints theory after two decades. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 42(1), 111-134.
- Goebel, B. L., & Brown, D. R. (1981). Age differences in motivation related to Maslow's need hierarchy. *Developmental Psychology*, 17(6), 809.
- Goh, E., & Ritchie, B. (2011). Using the theory of planned behavior to understand student attitudes and constraints toward attending field trips. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 11(2), 179-194.
- Goodale, T. L., & Witt, P. A. (1990). Recreation nonparticipation and barriers to leisure. In E. L. Jackson, & T. L. Burton (Eds.), *Understanding leisure and recreation: Mapping the past, charting the future* (pp. 421-449). State College, PA: Venture.
- Goodrich, J. N. (1978). The relationship between preferences for and perceptions of vacation destinations: Application of a choice model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(2), 8-13.
- Goossens, C. (2000). Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), 301-321.
- Grégoire, Y., & Fisher, R. J. (2006). The effects of relationship quality on customer retaliation. *Marketing Letters*, 17(1), 31-46.
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The paradigm dialog*. Sage Publications.
- Gupta, N., & da Costa Leite, I. (1999). Adolescent fertility behavior: trends and determinants in northeastern Brazil. *International Family Planning Perspectives*, 125-130.

- Gupta, V. (1999). Sustainable tourism: learning from Indian religious traditions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11(2/3), 91-95.
- Gursoy, D., & McCleary, K. W. (2004). An integrative model of tourists' information search behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(2), 353-373.
- Hair Jr, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*: Sage Publications.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (Vol. 6). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 19(2), 139-152.
- Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., & Kuppelwieser, G.V. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) An emerging tool in business research. *European Business Review*, 26(2), 106-121.
- Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(3), 414-433.
- Han, H. (2015). Travelers' pro-environmental behavior in a green lodging context: Converging value-belief-norm theory and the theory of planned behavior. *Tourism Management*, 47, 164-177.

- Han, H., & Kim, Y. (2010). An investigation of green hotel customers' decision formation: Developing an extended model of the theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 659-668.
- Han, H., Hsu, L.-T. J., & Sheu, C. (2010). Application of the theory of planned behavior to green hotel choice: Testing the effect of environmental friendly activities. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 325-334.
- Hanqin, Z. Q., & Lam, T. (1999). An analysis of Mainland Chinese visitors' motivations to visit Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, 20(5), 587-594.
- Harahsheh, S., Morgan, M., & Edwards, J. (2007). The influence of religious belief on destination image the case of the Hashemite kingdom of Jordan. *International Journal of Management Cases*, 9(3-4), 63-73.
- Harmon-Jones, E. (2000). An update on cognitive dissonance theory, with a focus on the self.
- Hawkins, B. A., Peng, J., Hsieh, C.-M., & Eklund, S. J. (1999). Leisure constraints: A replication and extension of construct development. *Leisure Sciences*, 21(3), 179-192.
- He, L., Li, X., Harrill, R., & Cardon, P. W. (2014). Examining Japanese tourists' US-bound travel constraints. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17(8), 705-722.
- Heckhausen, H. (1989). *Motivation und Handeln* (2nd ed.). Berlin: Springer.
- Henderson, J. C. (2008). Representations of Islam in official tourism promotion. *Tourism Culture & Communication*, 8(3), 135-145.
- Henderson, J. C. (2010). Sharia-compliant hotels. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 246-254.

- Henseler, J., & Fassott, G. (2010). Testing moderating effects in PLS path models: An illustration of available procedures *Handbook of partial least squares* (pp. 713-735): Springer.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. *Advances in International Marketing (AIM)*, 20, 277-320.
- Hill, T., Smith, N. D., & Mann, M. F. (1987). Role of efficacy expectations in predicting the decision to use advanced technologies: The case of computers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72(2), 307.
- Hinch, T., & Jackson, E. (2000). Leisure constraints research: Its value as a framework for understanding tourism seasonability. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 3(2), 87-106.
- Hinch, T., Jackson, E. L., Hudson, S., & Walker, G. (2005). Leisure constraint theory and sport tourism. *Sport in Society*, 8(2), 142-163.
- Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*, 21(5), 967-988.
- Hirschman, E. C. (1983). Religious affiliation and consumption processes: An initial paradigm. *Research in Marketing*, 6, 131-170.
- Hitrec, T. (1990). Religious tourism: development-characteristics-perspectives. *Acta Turistica*, 2(1), 9-49.
- Ho, S. S., Lee, W., & Hameed, S. S. (2008). Muslim surfers on the internet: Using the theory of planned behavior to examine the factors influencing

- engagement in online religious activities. *New Media & Society*, 10(1), 93-113.
- Hodge, D. R. (2002). Working with Muslim youths: Understanding the values and beliefs of Islamic discourse. *Children & Schools*, 24(1), 6.
- Hoff, A. E., & Ellis, G. D. (1992). Influence of agents of leisure socialization on leisure self-efficacy of university students. *Journal of Leisure Research*.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, leadership, and organization: do American theories apply abroad? *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(1), 42-63.
- Holy Qur'an. King Fahd Complex for the printing of the Holy Qur'an. Medina: Saudi Arabia.
- Homer, P. M. (2006). Relationships among ad-induced affect, beliefs, and attitudes: Another look. *Journal of Advertising*, 35(1), 35-51.
- Howard, J. A. (2000). Social psychology of identities. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 367-393.
- Howard, J. A., & Sheth, J. N. (1969). *The theory of buyer behavior* (Vol. 14): Wiley New York.
- Hoyle, R. H. (1995). *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications*: Sage Publications.
- Hsu, C. H., & Huang, S. (2008). Travel motivation: A critical review of the concept's development. *Tourism Management*, 14-27.
- Hsu, C. H., & Kang, S. K. (2009). Chinese urban mature travelers' motivation and constraints by decision autonomy. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(7), 703-721.

- Hsu, C. H., Cai, L. A., & Li, M. (2009). Expectation, motivation, and attitude: A tourist behavioral model. *Journal of Travel Research*.
- Hsu, C. H., Cai, L. A., & Wong, K. K. (2007). A model of senior tourism motivations—Anecdotes from Beijing and Shanghai. *Tourism Management, 28*(5), 1262-1273.
- Huang, S. S. (2007). *The effects of motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on tourist revisit intention*. The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.
- Huang, S. S., & Hsu, C. H. (2009). Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*(1), 29-44.
- Hubbard, J., & Mannell, R. C. (2001). Testing competing models of the leisure constraint negotiation process in a corporate employee recreation setting. *Leisure Sciences, 23*(3), 145-163.
- Hudson, S., & Gilbert, D. (2000). Tourism constraints: The neglected dimension in consumer behavior research. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 8*(4), 69-78.
- Hull, C. L. (1943). Principles of behavior: an introduction to behavior theory.
- Hull, C. L. (1952). A behavior system. *New Haven*.
- Hulland, J. (1999). Use of partial least squares (PLS) in strategic management research: A review of four recent studies. *Strategic Management Journal, 20*(2), 195-204.

- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2011). Why do you cruise? Exploring the motivations for taking cruise holidays, and the construction of a cruising motivation scale. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 386-393.
- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2012). Comparing constraints to cruising between cruisers and non-cruisers: a test of the constraint-effects-mitigation model. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 29(3), 242-262.
- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2012). Testing the effects of congruity, travel constraints, and self-efficacy on travel intentions: An alternative decision-making model. *Tourism Management*, 33(4), 855-867.
- Hung, K., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Ingram, L. J. (2011). Testing the efficacy of an integrative model for community participation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3), 276-288.
- Huston, T. L., & Ashmore, R. D. (1986). Women and men in personal relationships. *The Social Psychology of Female-Male Relations*, 167-210.
- Hyde, K. F., & Laesser, C. (2009). A structural theory of the vacation. *Tourism Management*, 30(2), 240-248.
- Ibrahim, I. (1997). *A brief illustrated guide to understanding Islam*: IslamKotob.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1980). *Social psychological perspectives on leisure and recreation*: Charles C. Thomas.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2), 256-262.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1989). Motivation for leisure. *Understanding leisure and recreation: Mapping the past, charting the future*, 247-279.

- Iso-Ahola, S. E., Mannell, R. C., & Wade, M. (1985). Social and psychological constraints on leisure. *Constraints on Leisure*, 111-151.
- Jackson, E. L. & Scott, D. (1999). Constraints to leisure. In E. L. Jackson & T. L. Burton (Eds.), *Leisure studies: Prospects for the twenty-first century* (pp. 167–175). State College, PA: Venture Publishing.
- Jackson, E. L. (1988). Leisure constraints*: A survey of past research. *Leisure Sciences*, 10(3), 203-215.
- Jackson, E. L. (2000). Will research on leisure constraints still be relevant in the twenty-first century? *Journal of Leisure Research*, 32(1), 62-68.
- Jackson, E. L., & Dunn, E. (1988). Integrating ceasing participation with other aspects of leisure behavior. *Journal of Leisure Research*.
- Jackson, E. L., & Rucks, V. C. (1995). Negotiation of leisure constraints by junior-high and high-school students: An exploratory study. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 27(1), 85.
- Jackson, E. L., & Searle, M. S. (1985). Recreation non-participation and barriers to participation: Concepts, and models. *Loisir et Societe/Society and Leisure*, 8(2), 693-707.
- Jackson, E. L., Crawford, D. W., & Godbey, G. (1993). Negotiation of leisure constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 15(1), 1-11.
- Jackson, R. H., & Hudman, L. (1995). Pilgrimage tourism and English cathedrals: The role of religion in travel. *The Tourist Review*, 50(4), 40-48.
- Jafari, J., & Scott, N. (2010). *Tourism in the Muslim World*. Bingley: Emerald Book Serials and Monographs.

- Jafari, J., & Scott, N. (2014). Muslim world and its tourisms. *Annals of Tourism Research, 44*, 1-19.
- Jamrozy, U., & Uysal, M. (1994). Travel motivation variations of overseas German visitors. *Global Tourist Behavior, 6*(3-4), 135.
- Jang, S. S., & Wu, C.-M. E. (2006). Seniors' travel motivation and the influential factors: An examination of Taiwanese seniors. *Tourism Management, 27*(2), 306-316.
- Jang, S. S., Bai, B., Hu, C., & Wu, C.-M. E. (2009). Affect, travel motivation, and travel intention: A senior market. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 33*(1), 51-73.
- Jang, S., & Cai, L. A. (2002). Travel motivations and destination choice: A study of British outbound market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 13*(3), 111-133.
- Jeng, J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2002). Conceptualizing the travel decision-making hierarchy: A review of recent developments. *Tourism Analysis, 7*(1), 15-32.
- Jerusalem, M., Schwarzer, R., & Schwarzer, R. (1992). Self-efficacy as a resource factor in stress appraisal processes. *Self-efficacy: Thought control of action*, 195-213.
- Johnson, B. R., Jang, S. J., Larson, D. B., & De Li, S. (2001). Does adolescent religious commitment matter? A reexamination of the effects of religiosity on delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 38*(1), 22-44.

- Jönsson, C., & Devonish, D. (2008). Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation? A case of visitors to the Caribbean island of Barbados. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 25(3-4), 398-408.
- Joseph, C. A., & Kavoori, A. P. (2001). Mediated resistance: Tourism and the host community. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), 998-1009.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1974). Subjective probability: A judgment of representativeness *The Concept of Probability in Psychological Experiments* (pp. 25-48): Springer.
- Kattiyapornpong, U., & Miller, K. E. (2009). Socio-demographic constraints to travel behavior. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(3), 246-258.
- Katz, E. (1957). The two-step flow of communication: An up-to-date report on a hypothesis. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 21(1), 61-78.
- Kay, P. (2004). Cross-cultural research issues in developing international tourist markets for cultural events. *Event Management*, 8(4), 191-202.
- Kay, T., & Jackson, G. (1991). Leisure despite constraint: The impact of leisure constraints on leisure participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*.
- Kazeminia, A., Del Chiappa, G., & Jafari, J. (2015). Seniors' Travel Constraints and Their Coping Strategies. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(1), 80-93.
- Kearney, M. (1995). The local and the global: The anthropology of globalization and transnationalism. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 547-565.

- Kerstetter, D. L., Yen, I.-Y., & Yarnal, C. M. (2005). Plowing uncharted waters: A study of perceived constraints to cruise travel. *Tourism Analysis*, 10(2), 137-150.
- Kim, C., & Lee, S. (2000). Understanding the cultural differences in tourist motivation between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 9(1-2), 153-170.
- Kim, D.-Y., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Gender differences in online travel information search: Implications for marketing communications on the internet. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 423-433.
- Kim, H., Borges, M. C., & Chon, J. (2006). Impacts of environmental values on tourism motivation: The case of FICA, Brazil. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 957-967.
- Kim, J. (2012). How do pleasure travelers manage their travel constraints? *Tourism Review*, 67(3), 30-40.
- Kim, J.-H., & Ritchie, J. B. (2014). Cross-cultural validation of a memorable tourism experience scale (MTES). *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(3), 323-335.
- Kim, K. (2007). Understanding differences in tourist motivation between domestic and international travel: The university student market. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(1-2), 65-75.
- Kim, K.-Y., & Jogaratnam, G. (2003). Travel motivations: A comparative study of Asian international and domestic American college students. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 13(4), 61-82.

- Kim, N.-S., & Chalip, L. (2004). Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, background, interest, and constraints. *Tourism management*, 25(6), 695-707.
- Kim, S. S., & Prideaux, B. (2005). Marketing implications arising from a comparative study of international pleasure tourist motivations and other travel-related characteristics of visitors to Korea. *Tourism Management*, 26(3), 347-357.
- Kim, Y., & Han, H. (2010). Intention to pay conventional-hotel prices at a green hotel—a modification of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(8), 997-1014.
- Klenosky, D. B. (2002). The “pull” of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(4), 396-403.
- Koca, C., Henderson, K., Asci, F., & Bulgu, N. (2009). Constraints to leisure-time physical activity and negotiation strategies in Turkish women. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 42(2), 225-251.
- Kotler, P. (2000). Consumer market and consumer behavior, Principles of Marketing, 8th ed., Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management*, 23(3), 221-232.
- Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2004). Theory of planned behavior: Potential travelers from China. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 28(4), 463-482.
- Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2006). Predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 589-599.

- Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (2001). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(6), 503-520.
- Lawler, E. J., Thye, S. R., & Yoon, J. (2000). Emotion and Group Cohesion in Productive Exchange¹. *American Journal of Sociology*, 106(3), 616-657.
- Laws, E. (1995). *Tourist destination management: issues, analysis and policies*: Routledge.
- Lee, H. Y., Qu, H., & Kim, Y. S. (2007). A study of the impact of personal innovativeness on online travel shopping behavior—A case study of Korean travelers. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 886-897.
- Lee, J.-S., & Back, K.-J. (2009). An examination of attendee brand loyalty: Understanding the moderator of behavioral brand loyalty. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(1), 30-50.
- Lee, M. J. (2005). *Effects of attitude and destination image on association members' meeting participation intentions: development of meeting participation model*. Kansas State University.
- Lee, S.-H., Graefe, A. R., & Li, C.-L. (2007). The effects of specialization and gender on motivations and preferences for site attributes in paddling. *Leisure Sciences*, 29(4), 355-373.
- Lee, T. H. (2009). A structural model to examine how destination image, attitude, and motivation affect the future behavior of tourists. *Leisure Sciences*, 31(3), 215-236.

- Lee, T.-H., & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 732-751.
- Lenz, E. R., & Shortridge-Baggett, L. M. (2002). *Self-efficacy in nursing: research and measurement perspectives*: Springer Publishing Company.
- Lepp, A., & Gibson, H. (2003). Tourist roles, perceived risk and international tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 606-624.
- Lewin, K. (1938). The conceptual representation and the measurement of psychological forces.
- Li, M., & Cai, L. A. (2012). The effects of personal values on travel motivation and behavioral intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(4), 473-487.
- Li, M., Cai, L. A., Lehto, X. Y., & Huang, J. (2010). A missing link in understanding revisit intention—The role of motivation and image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(4), 335-348.
- Litvin, S. W. (2006). Revisiting Plog's model of allocentricity and psychocentricity... one more time. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 47(3), 245-253.
- Livengood, J. S., & Stodolska, M. (2004). The effects of discrimination and constraints negotiation on leisure behavior of American Muslims in the post-September 11 America. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 36(2), 183.
- Loomes, G., & Sugden, R. (1982). Regret theory: An alternative theory of rational choice under uncertainty. *The Economic Journal*, 805-824.

- Loucks-Atkinson, A., & Mannell, R. C. (2007). Role of self-efficacy in the constraints negotiation process: The case of individuals with fibromyalgia syndrome. *Leisure Sciences*, 29(1), 19-36.
- Lowyck, E., & Van Langenhove, L. Bollaert. (1993). Typologies of tourist roles', *Choice and Demand in Tourism*, 13-32.
- MacCannell, D. (1992). *Empty meeting grounds: The tourist papers*: Psychology Press.
- MacCannell, D. 1976. *The Tourist: A Nerz Theory of the Leisure Class*. New York: Schocken
- MacInnis, D. J., & Jaworski, B. J. (1989). Information processing from advertisements: Toward an integrative framework. *The Journal of Marketing*, 1-23.
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 18(1), 3-9.
- Mannell, R. C., & Kleiber, D. A. (1997). *A social psychology of leisure*: Venture Publishing Inc.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 399-419.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1996). The " Value Stretch" model and Its implementation in detecting tourists' class-differentiated destination choice. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 4(3), 71-92.

- Mansfeld, Y., Ron, A., & Gev, D. (2000). Muslim Tourism to Israel—
Characterization, Trends and Potential. *Center for Tourism, Pilgrimage,
and Recreation Research at the University of Haifa*.
- Maser, B., & Weiermair, K. (1998). Travel decision-making: From the vantage
point of perceived risk and information preferences. *Journal of Travel &
Tourism Marketing*, 7(4), 107-121.
- Maslow, A. (1954). Motivation and personality. New York: Harper & Row.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*,
50(4), 370.
- Maslow, A. H., Frager, R., Fadiman, J., McReynolds, C., & Cox, R. (1970).
Motivation and personality (Vol. 2): Harper & Row New York.
- Matina, T., & Dimitrios, S. (2006). Social impacts of tourism on a destination. In
International conference of trends, impacts and policies on tourism
development, Heraklion, Crete.
- Mattila, A. S., Apostolopoulos, Y., Sonmez, S., Yu, L., & Sasidharan, V. (2001).
The impact of gender and religion on college students' spring break
behavior. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(2), 193-200.
- McAuley, E. (1992). The role of efficacy cognitions in the prediction of exercise
behavior in middle-aged adults. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 15(1), 65-
88.
- McClain, E. W. (1979). Religious orientation the key to psychodynamic
differences between feminists and nonfeminists. *Journal for the Scientific
Study of Religion*, 40-45.

- McDaniel, S. W., & Burnett, J. J. (1990). Consumer religiosity and retail store evaluative criteria. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 18(2), 101-112.
- McGuire, F. A. (1984). A Factor Analytic Study of Leisure Constraints in Advanced Adulthood. *Leisure Sciences*, 6, 313–326.
- McGuire, F. A. (1984). A factor analytic study of leisure constraints in advanced adulthood.
- McGuire, F. A., Dottavio, D., & O'Leary, J. T. (1986). Constraints to participation in outdoor recreation across the life span: A nationwide study of limitors and prohibitors. *The Gerontologist*, 26(5), 538-544.
- McGuire, W. J. (1976). Some internal psychological factors influencing consumer choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 302-319.
- Mehmetoglu, M., Dann, G. M., & Larsen, S. (2001). Solitary travelers in the Norwegian Lofoten Islands: why do people travel on their own? *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 1(1), 19-37.
- Meng, B., & Choi, K. (2015). Extending the theory of planned behavior: testing the effects of authentic perception and environmental concerns on the slow-tourist decision-making process. *Current Issues in Tourism* (ahead-of-print), 1-17.
- Meng, F., & Uysal, M. (2008). Effects of gender differences on perceptions of destination attributes, motivations, and travel values: An examination of a nature-based resort destination. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(4), 445-466.

- Meng, F., Tepanon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2008). Measuring tourist satisfaction by attribute and motivation: The case of a nature-based resort. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(1), 41-56.
- Mill, R. C., & Morrison, A. M. (1985). The tourist system.
- Mill, R. C., & Morrison, A. M. (2002). *The tourism system*: Kendall Hunt.
- Mokhlis, S. (2009). Relevancy and measurement of religiosity in consumer behavior research. *International Business Research*, 2(3), p75.
- Moreira-Almeida, A., Lotufo Neto, F., & Koenig, H. G. (2006). Religiousness and mental health: a review. *Revista brasileira de psiquiatria*, 28(3), 242-250.
- Morosan, C., & Jeong, M. (2008). Users' perceptions of two types of hotel reservation Web sites. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(2), 284-292.
- Moscardo, G. M., & Pearce, P. L. (1986). Historic theme parks: An Australian experience in authenticity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(3), 467-479.
- Moufakkir, O. (2011). Diaspora tourism: Using a mixed-mode survey design to document tourism behavior and constraints of people of Turkish extraction resident in Germany. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 17(3), 209-223.
- Moufakkir, O., & Kelly, I. (2010). *Tourism, progress, and peace*: CABI.
- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behavior in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 21(10), 5-44.
- Moutinho, L. (2000). Trends in tourism. *Strategic Management in Tourism*, 3-16.

- Muhamad, N. (2008). *Muslim consumers' motivation towards Islam and their cognitive processing of performing taboo behaviors*. University of Western Australia Perth.
- Murray, E. J. (1964). *Motivation and emotion*: Prentice-Hall Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Nadirova, A., & Jackson, E. L. (2000). Alternative criterion variables against which to assess the impacts of constraints to leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 32(4), 396.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Bearden, W. O., & Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling procedures: Issues and applications*: Sage.
- Ng, S. I., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2007). Tourists' intention to visit a country: The impact of cultural distance. *Tourism Management*, 28(6), 1497-1506.
- Nicosia, F. M. (1966). Consumer decision processes; marketing and advertising implications.
- Norman, W. C., & Carlson, M. N. (1999). *An investigation of the seeking escaping theory as a segmentation tool in tourism marketing*. Paper presented at the 30th Annual Travel and Tourism Research Association Conference Proceedings. Boise, ID: Travel and Tourism Research Association.
- Nunkoo, R., Ramkissoon, H., & Gursoy, D. (2013). Use of Structural Equation Modeling in Tourism Research Past, Present, and Future. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(6), 759-771.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. (1994). *Psychological theory*: New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Nyaupane, G. P., & Andereck, K. L. (2007). Understanding travel constraints: Application and extension of a leisure constraints model. *Journal of Travel Research*.
- Nyaupane, G. P., McCabe, J. T., & Andereck, K. L. (2008). Seniors' travel constraints: Stepwise logistic regression analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 13(4), 341-354.
- Nyaupane, G. P., Morais, D. B., & Graefe, A. R. (2004). Nature tourism constraints: A cross-activity comparison. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 540-555.
- Nyaupane, G. P., Paris, C. M., & Teye, V. (2010). Why do students study abroad? Exploring motivations beyond earning academic credits. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(2), 263-267.
- Nyaupane, G. P., Teye, V., & Paris, C. (2008). Innocents abroad: Attitude change toward hosts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 650-667.
- O'Leary, S., & Deegan, J. (2005). Ireland's image as a tourism destination in France: Attribute importance and performance. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 247-256.
- Oh, H. C., Uysal, M., & Weaver, P. A. (1995). Product bundles and market segments based on travel motivations: A canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 14(2), 123-137.
- Oh, H., & Hsu, C. H. (2001). Volitional degrees of gambling behaviors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 618-637.

- Olson, J. M., & Zanna, M. P. (1993). Attitudes and attitude change. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44(1), 117-154.
- Oppenheim, A. N. (2000). *Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Oppermann, M. (1998). Destination threshold potential and the law of repeat visitation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 131-137.
- Ouellette, J. A., & Wood, W. (1998). Habit and intention in everyday life: the multiple processes by which past behavior predicts future behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124(1), 54.
- Ozdemir, I., & Met, O. (2012). The expectations of Muslim religious customers in the lodging industry: The case of Turkey. *Current Issues in Hospitality and Tourism Research and Innovation*, 323-328.
- Park, D.-B., & Yoon, Y.-S. (2009). Segmentation by motivation in rural tourism: A Korean case study. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 99-108.
- Park, H. S. (2000). Relationships among attitudes and subjective norms: Testing the theory of reasoned action across cultures. *Communication Studies*, 51(2), 162-175.
- Park, J. (2003). Understanding consumer intention to shop online. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia, MO: University of Missouri*.
- Pearce, P. (1991). Dreamworld: A report on public reactions to Dreamworld and proposed developments at Dreamworld. *A report to Ernst and Young on behalf of the IOOF in conjunction with Brian Dermott and Associates*.

- Pearce, P. L. (1982). Perceived changes in holiday destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2), 145-164.
- Pearce, P. L. (1988). *The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings*. New York: Springer Verlag
- Pearce, P. L. (1993). *Fundamentals of tourist motivation*.
- Pearce, P. L., & Caltabiano, M. L. (1983). Inferring travel motivation from travelers' experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 22(2), 16-20.
- Pearce, P. L., & Lee, U.-I. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 226-237.
- Pennington-Gray, L. A., & Kerstetter, D. L. (2002). Testing a constraints model within the context of nature-based tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(4), 416-423.
- Petrack, J. F., Li, X., & Park, S.-Y. (2007). Cruise passengers' decision-making processes. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23(1), 1-14.
- Petter, S., Straub, D., & Rai, A. (2007). Specifying formative constructs in information systems research. *Mis Quarterly*, 623-656.
- Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). *The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion*: Springer.
- Petty, R. E., Unnava, R. H., & Strathman, A. J. (1991). Theories of attitude change. *Handbook of consumer behavior*, 241-280.
- Phetvaroon, K. (2006). *Application of the theory of planned behavior to select a destination after a crisis: A case study of Phuket, Thailand*. Oklahoma State University.

- Phillips, W., & Jang, S. (2007). Destination image and visit intention: Examining the moderating role of motivation. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(4), 319-326.
- Phillips, W., & Jang, S. (2008). Destination image and tourist attitude. *Tourism Analysis*, 13(4), 401-411.
- Picazo-Vela, S., Chou, S. Y., Melcher, A. J., & Pearson, J. M. (2010). Why provide an online review? An extended theory of planned behavior and the role of Big-Five personality traits. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26(4), 685-696.
- Pierce, W. D., Cameron, J., Banko, K. M., & So, S. (2012). Positive effects of rewards and performance standards on intrinsic motivation. *The Psychological Record*, 53(4), 4.
- Pizam, A., & Mansfeld, Y. (2000). *Consumer behavior in travel and tourism*: Routledge.
- Plog, S. (2001). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: An update of a Cornell Quarterly classic. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(3), 13-24.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2003). Tourism, religion and religiosity: A holy mess. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(4), 340-363.
- Poulson, R. L., Eppler, M. A., Satterwhite, T. N., Wuensch, K. L., & Bass, L. A. (1998). Alcohol consumption, strength of religious beliefs, and risky sexual behavior in college students. *Journal of American College Health*, 46(5), 227-232.

- Prentice, R., & Andersen, V. (2000). Evoking Ireland: modeling tourism propensity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), 490-516.
- Priporas, C. V., Vassiliadis, C. A., Bellou, V., & Andronikidis, A. (2014). Exploring the constraint profile of winter sports resort tourist segments. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(5), 659-671.
- Quintal, V. A., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2010). Risk, uncertainty and the theory of planned behavior: A tourism example. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 797-805.
- Ragheb, M. G., & Tate, R. L. (1993). A behavioral model of leisure participation, based on leisure attitude, motivation and satisfaction. *Leisure Studies*, 12(1), 61-70.
- Raj, R., & Morpeth, N. D. (2007). Introduction: establishing linkages between religious travel and tourism. *Religious tourism and pilgrimage festivals management: an international perspective*, 1-14.
- Raymore, L., Godbey, G., Crawford, D., & von Eye, A. (1993). Nature and process of leisure constraints: An empirical test. *Leisure Sciences*, 15(2), 99-113.
- Regnerus, M. D. (2003). Religion and positive adolescent outcomes: A review of research and theory. *Review of Religious Research*, 394-413.
- Regnerus, M. D., & Elder Jr, G. H. (2003). Staying on track in school: Religious influences in high-and low-risk settings. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 633-649.

- Regnerus, M. D., & Elder, G. H. (2003). Religion and vulnerability among low-risk adolescents. *Social Science Research*, 32(4), 633-658.
- Rehman, A.-u.-., & Shahbaz Shabbir, M. (2010). The relationship between religiosity and new product adoption. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 1(1), 63-69.
- Reisinger, Y., & Mavondo, F. (2002). Determinants of youth travel markets' perceptions of tourism destinations. *Tourism Analysis*, 7(1), 55-66.
- Rice, G., & Al-Mossawi, M. (2002). The implications of Islam for advertising messages: The Middle Eastern context. *Journal of Euromarketing*, 11(3), 71-96.
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2005). SmartPLS 2.0 (beta): Hamburg.
- Rinschede, G. (1992). Forms of religious tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(1), 51-67.
- Ritchie, B. W., Tkaczynski, A., & Faulks, P. (2010). Understanding the motivation and travel behavior of cycle tourists using involvement profiles. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(4), 409-425.
- Ritchie, J. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2003). *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective*: Cabi.
- Rittichainuwat, B. N. (2007). Responding to Disaster: Thai and Scandinavian Tourists⇒ Motivation to Visit Phuket, Thailand. *Journal of Travel Research*.
- Rittichainuwat, B. N., Qu, H., & Mongkhonvanit, C. (2008). Understanding the motivation of travelers on repeat visits to Thailand. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(1), 5-21.

- Robie, C., Bateson, A. G., Ellison, P. A., & Figler, M. H. (1993). An analysis of the tourism motivation construct. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 773-776.
- Rokeach, M. (1969). Part I. Value systems in religion. *Review of Religious Research*, 3-23.
- Ross, E. L. D., & Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1991). Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(2), 226-237.
- Rostosky, S. S., Wilcox, B. L., Wright, M. L. C., & Randall, B. A. (2004). The impact of religiosity on adolescent sexual behavior: A review of the evidence. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 19(6), 677-697.
- Ryan, C. (1998). The travel career ladder An Appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(4), 936-957.
- Ryckman, R. M., Robbins, M. A., Thornton, B., & Cantrell, P. (1982). Development and validation of a physical self-efficacy scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(5), 891.
- Ryu, K., & Jang, S. S. (2007). The effect of environmental perceptions on behavioral intentions through emotions: The case of upscale restaurants. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(1), 56-72.
- Samdahl, D. M., & Jekubovich, N. J. (1997). A critique of leisure constraints: Comparative analyses and understandings. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 29(4), 430.

- Samdahl, D. M., & Jekubovich, N. J. (1997). A critique of leisure constraints: Comparative analyses and understandings. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 29(4), 430.
- Sanad, H., Kassem, A. M., & Scott, N. (2010). Tourism and Islamic law.
- Sangpikul, A. (2008). Travel motivations of Japanese senior travelers to Thailand. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(1), 81-94.
- Schacht, J. (1959). Islamic law in contemporary states. *Am. J. Comp. L.*, 8, 133.
- Schwarzer, R., & Luszczynska, A. (2008). How to overcome health-compromising behaviors: The health action process approach. *European Psychologist*, 13(2), 141-151.
- Scott, D. (1991). The problematic nature of participation in contract bridge: A qualitative study of group-related constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 13(4), 321-336.
- Seddighi, H. R., & Theocharous, A. L. (2002). A model of tourism destination choice: a theoretical and empirical analysis. *Tourism Management*, 23(5), 475-487.
- Seddighi, H., Nuttall, M., & Theocharous, A. (2001). Does cultural background of tourists influence the destination choice? An empirical study with special reference to political instability. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 181-191.
- Sellick, M. C. (2004). Discovery, connection, nostalgia: Key travel motives within the senior market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 17(1), 55-71.
- Shackley, M. (2004). Accommodating the spiritual tourist: the case of religious retreat houses.

- Shah Alam, S., Mohd, R., & Hisham, B. (2011). Is religiosity an important determinant on Muslim consumer behaviour in Malaysia? *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 2(1), 83-96.
- Sharma, P.N., Sarstedt, M., Shmueli, G., Kim, K.H. (2015). Predictive model selection in partial least squares path modeling, 2nd International Symposium on Partial Least Squares Path Modeling, Seville (Spain).
- Shaw, S. M., Bonen, A., & McCabe, J. F. (1991). Do more constraints mean less leisure? Examining the relationship between constraints and participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*.
- Sheppard, B. H., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 325-343.
- Sheth, J. N., Mittal, B., & Laroche, M. (2004). *Customer behavior: A managerial perspective*: Thomson/South-Western Mason, OH.
- Shinde, K. n. (2007). Pilgrimage and the environment: challenges in a pilgrimage centre. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(4), 343-365.
- Shinew, K. J., Floyd, M. F., & Parry, D. (2004). Understanding the relationship between race and leisure activities and constraints: Exploring an alternative framework. *Leisure Sciences*, 26(2), 181-199.
- Sim, A. K., & Bujang, S. (2012). Work-family interface of hospitality industry in Malaysia: the moderating effects of religiosity. *Asian Social Science*, 8(8), p139.

- Simon, H. A. (1956). Rational choice and the structure of the environment. *Psychological Review*, 63(2), 129.
- Simonson, I., Carmon, Z., Dhar, R., Drolet, A., & Nowlis, S. M. (2001). Consumer research: In search of identity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 249-275.
- Sirakaya, E., & McLellan, R. W. (1997). Factors affecting vacation destination choices of college students. *Anatolia*, 8(3), 31-44.
- Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. *Tourism Management*, 26(6), 815-832.
- Sirakaya, E., McLellan, R. W., & Uysal, M. (1996). Modeling vacation destination decisions: A behavioral approach. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 5(1-2), 57-75.
- Sirakaya, E., Uysal, M., & Yoshioka, C. F. (2003). Segmenting the Japanese tour market to Turkey. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(3), 293-304.
- Sirakaya-Turk, E., Ekinci, Y., & Kaya, A. G. (2007). An examination of the validity of SUS-TAS in cross-cultures. *Journal of Travel Research*.
- Sirakaya-Turk, E., Uysal, M., Hammitt, W., & Vaske, J. (2011). Survey research: sampling and questionnaire design. *Research methods for leisure, recreation and tourism*, 94-113.
- Smith, S. L. (1990). A test of Plog's allocentric/psychocentric model: Evidence from seven nations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4), 40-43.
- Smith, V. L. (1992). The quest in guest. *Annals of tourism research*, 19(1), 1-17.

- Snepenger, D., King, J., Marshall, E., & Uysal, M. (2006). Modeling Iso-Ahola's motivation theory in the tourism context. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 140-149.
- Song, H., van der Veen, R., Li, G., & Chen, J. L. (2012). The Hong Kong tourist satisfaction index. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 459-479.
- Songshan, H., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2009). Effects of Travel Motivation, Past Experience, Perceived Constraint, and Attitude on Revisit Intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 48(1), 29-44.
- Sönmez, S. F., & Graefe, A. R. (1998). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 171-177.
- Sönmez, S. F., & Graefe, A. R. (1998). Influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 112-144.
- Sparks, B. (2007). Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioral intentions. *Tourism Management*, 28(5), 1180-1192.
- Sparks, B., & Pan, G. W. (2009). Chinese outbound tourists: Understanding their attitudes, constraints and use of information sources. *Tourism Management*, 30(4), 483-494.
- Stephenson, M. L. (2014). Deciphering 'Islamic hospitality': Developments, challenges and opportunities. *Tourism Management*, 40, 155-164.
- Stodolska, M., & Livengood, J. S. (2006). The influence of religion on the leisure behavior of immigrant Muslims in the United States. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 38(3), 293.

- Strahan, R., & Gerbasi, K. C. (1972). Short, homogeneous versions of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of clinical psychology*.
- Streiner, D. L., Norman, G. R., & Cairney, J. (2014). *Health measurement scales: a practical guide to their development and use*. Oxford university press.
- Sutton, R. I., & Staw, B. M. (1995). What theory is not. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 371-384.
- Swan, J. E., & Trawick, I. F. (1981). Disconfirmation of expectations and satisfaction with a retail service. *Journal of Retailing*, 57(3), 49–66.
- Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (1999). *Customer behavior in tourism*: Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (2007). *Consumer behavior in tourism*: Routledge.
- Sylvia-Bobiak, S., & Caldwell, L. L. (2006). Factors related to physically active leisure among college students. *Leisure Sciences*, 28(1), 73-89.
- Tekin, A. (2010). The influence of religious and socio-cultural variables on the participation of female university students in leisure activities. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 9(11), 1286-1293.
- Terry, D. (1993). Self-efficacy expectancies and the theory of reasoned action. *The theory of reasoned action: Its application to AIDS-preventive behaviour. International Series in Experimental Social Psychology*, 28, 135-151.
- Thomas, W. I., & Znaniecki, F. (1918). *The Polish peasant in Europe and America: Monograph of an immigrant group* (Vol. 2): University of Chicago Press.

- Till, B. D., & Baack, D. W. (2005). Recall and Persuasion: does creative advertising matter? *Journal of Advertising*, 34(3), 47-57.
- Timothy, D. J., & Iverson, T. (2006). 13 Tourism and Islam. *Tourism, religion and spiritual journeys*, 186.
- Tolman, E. C. (1957). *Principles of purposive behavior*.
- Tolman, E. C. (1959). "Principles of Purposive Behavior." In *Psychology: A Study of a Science*, vol. 2, edited by S. Koch. New York: McGrawHill, pp. 92-157.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96(3), 506.
- Trochim, W. M., & Donnelly, J. P. (2001). Research methods knowledge base.
- Tull, D. S., & Hawkins, D. I. (1976). *Marketing research: meaning, measurement, and method: a text with cases*: Macmillan.
- Turner, V. (1973). The center out there: Pilgrim's goal. *History of religions*, 191-230.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1973). Availability: A heuristic for judging frequency and probability. *Cognitive Psychology*, 5(2), 207-232.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 432-448.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1992). The roles of perceived inhibitors and facilitators in pleasure travel destination decisions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(3), 18-25.

- Uysal, M., & Hagan, L. A. R. (1993). Motivation of pleasure travel and tourism. *Encyclopedia of hospitality and tourism*, 798, 810.
- Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(4), 844-846.
- Vanucci, C. L., & Kerstetter, D. L. (2001). *Meeting planners' use of the Internet to plan group meetings. Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management.*
- Verbit, M. F. (1970). The components and dimensions of religious behavior: Toward a reconceptualization of religiosity. *American mosaic*, 24, 39.
- Vermeir, I., & Verbeke, W. (2008). Sustainable food consumption among young adults in Belgium: Theory of planned behavior and the role of confidence and values. *Ecological Economics*, 64(3), 542-553.
- Vogt, C. A., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1998). Expanding the functional information search model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(3), 551-578.
- Von Neumann, J., & Morgenstern, O. (1947). Theory of games and economic behavior.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.
- Vukonic, B. (2002). Religion, tourism and economics: A convenient symbiosis. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 27(2), 59-64.
- Vukonic, B., & Matesic, S. (1996). *Tourism and religion*: Pergamon Oxford.
- Wade, M. G. (1985). *Constraints on leisure*: Charles C. Thomas.
- Walseth, K., & Fasting, K. (2003). Islam's view on physical activity and sport Egyptian women interpreting Islam. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 38(1), 45-60.

- WAMY (2010). Understanding Islam and Muslims. Dammam, Saudi Arabia: KSA.
- Ward, A. (2014). Segmenting the senior tourism market in Ireland based on travel motivations. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 20(3), 267-277.
- Weaver, G. R., & Agle, B. R. (2002). Religiosity and ethical behavior in organizations: A symbolic interactionist perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 27(1), 77-97.
- Weidenfeld, A. (2006). Religious needs in the hospitality industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 6(2), 143-159.
- Weidenfeld, A., & Ron, A. S. (2008). Religious needs in the tourism industry. *Anatolia*, 19(2), 357-361.
- White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: the concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66(5), 297.
- Wicker, A. W. (1969). Attitudes versus actions: The relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects. *Journal of Social issues*, 25(4), 41-78.
- Wilkes, R. E., Burnett, J. J., & Howell, R. D. (1986). On the meaning and measurement of religiosity in consumer research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 14(1), 47-56.
- Wilkes, R.E., Burnett, J.J. and Howell, R.D. (1986). On the meaning and measurement of religiosity in consumer research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 14, 47-56
- Witt, C. A., Wright, P. L., Johnson, P., & Thomas, B. (1992). Tourist motivation: life after Maslow. *Choice and Demand in Tourism*, 33-35.

- Worthington Jr, E. L., Wade, N. G., Hight, T. L., Ripley, J. S., McCullough, M. E., Berry, J. W., . . . O'Connor, L. (2003). The Religious Commitment Inventory--10: Development, refinement, and validation of a brief scale for research and counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 50*(1), 84.
- Xu, F., Morgan, M., & Song, P. (2009). Students' travel behavior: a cross-cultural comparison of UK and China. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 11*(3), 255-268.
- Yagi, C., & Pearce, P. L. (2007). The influence of appearance and the number of people viewed on tourists' preferences for seeing other tourists. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15*(1), 28-43.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism management, 26*(1), 45-56.
- You, X., O'leary, J., Morrison, A., & Hong, G.-S. (2000). A cross-cultural comparison of travel push and pull factors: United Kingdom vs. Japan. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 1*(2), 1-26.
- Yousefi, M., & Marzuki, A. (2015). An Analysis of Push and Pull Motivational Factors of International Tourists to Penang, Malaysia. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 16*(1), 40-56.
- Yu, C.-P. S., Chancellor, H. C., & Cole, S. T. (2009). Measuring residents' attitudes toward sustainable tourism: A reexamination of the sustainable tourism attitude scale. *Journal of Travel Research.*

- Yun, J., & Lehto, X. Y. (2009). Motives and patterns of family reunion travel. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(4), 279-300.
- Yvette Reisinger, D. O. M., Dr, Shakona, M., Backman, K., Backman, S., Norman, W., Luo, Y., & Duffy, L. (2015). Understanding the traveling behavior of Muslims in the United States. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 9(1), 22-35.
- Zamani-Farahani, H., & Henderson, J. C. (2010). Islamic tourism and managing tourism development in Islamic societies: the cases of Iran and Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(1), 79-89.
- Zamani-Farahani, H., & Musa, G. (2012). The relationship between Islamic religiosity and residents' perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Iran: Case studies of Sare'in and Masooleh. *Tourism Management*, 33(4), 802-814.
- Zhang, H. Q., Qu, H., & Tang, V. M. Y. (2004). A case study of Hong Kong residents' outbound leisure travel. *Tourism Management*, 25(2), 267-273.
- Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L. A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 40, 213-223.
- Zhang, W. (2009). *The motivations, constraints and decision-making of Beijing outbound tourists*. The University of Waikato.
- Zimbardo, P. G., & Ruch, F. L. (1988). *Psychology and life*: Scott, Foresman Glenview, IL.

Zulkharnain, A., & Jamal, S. A. (2012). Muslim guest perception of value towards Shyariah concept hotel. *Current Issues in Hospitality and Tourism*, 337-340.

APPENDIX A: THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF MUSLIM STUDENTS' TRAVELING BEHAVIOR

Dear Colleague,

My name is Dawood Al Jahwari. I am a doctoral candidate in the Hotel, Restaurants, and Tourism Management Department at the University of South Carolina. I am conducting a research study as part of the requirements of my PhD degree in Hospitality Management. Your completion will help me generalize the findings of this study to a larger population, thus I need your help in completing this survey.

I am studying the traveling behavior of Muslim students to gaming and gambling destinations such as Las Vegas, Atlantic City and Macau/China. The study results will offer new and enhanced tourism products and services that might help you and others like you to meet their future needs. Additionally, the findings will help in identifying strategies that assist in reducing barriers and constraints that you may encounter before and during travel.

The completion of the questionnaire should not take more than 20 minutes. Participation is completely anonymous, which means that no one, including myself, will know your answers. There is no right or wrong answer so follow your own instincts when completing the survey. Your name or anything that reveal your identity is not required. If you would like to participate in the incentive program, you will only be asked to leave your e-mail address at the end of the survey. I will treat that information confidential as well.

Taking part in the study is your voluntary decision. If you wish to receive the results of this study, you may contact me at phone number: +1 (803) 237-3367 or e-mail address: aljahwad@mailbox.sc.edu or my faculty advisor, Professor E. Sirakaya-Turk, phone number: +1(803) 777-3327, or e-mail address: ercan@.sc.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Office of Research Compliance at the

University of South Carolina at 803-777-7095. This study is partly funded by SPARC Graduate Research Grant Program of the University of SC.

As an appreciation for your time, I will offer \$10 amazon gift card for the first 50 participants and \$5 amazon gift card for each following participants. If you choose to receive this incentive, you will be asked to leave your email address at the end of the survey. Thank you in advance for your participation!

With kind regards,

Researcher: Dawood Sulaiman Al Jahwari, PhD Candidate

Phone: +1 (803) 237-3367

Email: aljahwad@mailbox.sc.edu

Q1 Are you currently enrolled in one of the United States higher education institutions?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q2 What is your current academic level?

- ☐ Graduate
- ☐ Undergraduate
- ☐ English Program
- ☐ Other, Please specify _____

Q3 Approximately, how many times have you traveled for a vacation in the United States?

- ☐ Never
- ☐ 1 to 2 times
- ☐ 3 to 5 times
- ☐ 6 to 10 times
- ☐ More than 10 times

Q4 Have you ever visited gaming/gambling destinations (like Las Vegas, Atlantic City, Macau/China) in your life?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To The following statements ask about y...

Q5 How many times have you visited gaming/gambling destination (like Las Vegas or Atlantic city)?

- ☐ Only once
- ☐ 2- 3 times
- ☐ 4-5 times
- ☐ More than 5 times

Q6 What was the purpose of your visit to gaming/gambling destination?

- ☐ Leisure
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Both Lesiure and Business
- ☐ Visiting Friends or Relatives
- ☐ Education (example: attended conference)

Q7 The following statements ask about your future intention to travel to a gaming/gambling destination like Las Vegas. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement of each statement by using the following five point scale:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I intend to go on a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) in the near future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am likely to go on a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) in the next three years	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I want to visit Las Vegas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would recommend a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q8 Below are statements concerning your religious life; please indicate your reaction to each statement by selecting the answer that best describes you.

There is no right or wrong answer. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by clicking anywhere on this scale. Please remember all answers are anonymous (your identity is not known to me).

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I believe there is only one Allah (God)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Prophet Mohammed is Allah's (God's) last Prophet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe in the revealed scriptures (Quran/Message, Bible/Injeal, Torah/Tawrat)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe in all of Allah's (God's) messengers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe in the hereafter (including physical resurrection and life after death)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always perform all of my prayers on time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Given access, I perform all of my prayers in the mosque regularly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I perform ablutions (wash hands, face, arms, head, and feet with water) before every prayer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I perform the obligatory zakat (almsgiving)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I fast the whole month of Ramadan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Performing Hajj is one of my main priorities in my life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In my personal life, religion plays a very important role	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My religion helps me to have a better life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The Dua'aa (supplication) supports me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Prophet Mohammed is the role model for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that Allah (God) helps me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I read the Holy Quran regularly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I never do haram (forbidden) things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always try to avoid minor sins	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Its okay to miss Friday prayer sometimes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always keep myself away from earning a living through haram (forbidden) means/acts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I know the necessary knowledge about my religion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is acceptable to drink alcohol sometimes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is okay to eat pork sometimes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is acceptable to eat any meat in countries where the main religion is not Islam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes, I do sit with friends who drink alcohol, but I don't drink it myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always try to help those who need my help	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always avoid lying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am fearful of Allah (God)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I regularly contribute to charity/sadaqah	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe the hijab (scarf) is obligatory for all women	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a very religious person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I believe that, where it is allowed, it is fine for a man to marry up to four women	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that a woman should not travel alone on long trips without a male from her immediate family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I only eat halal meat/chicken (slaughtered in the Islamic way)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is okay to gamble sometimes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe it is ok for a man to use a body greeting (handshakes, hugs, kissing cheek) with any woman other than those from his immediate family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I try to avoid mixing with the other gender	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is acceptable to swim with mixed genders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always try to avoid major sins	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q9 On a five-point scale below, please tell us how descriptive the following adjectives are to you when describing your feelings toward travelling to any gaming/gambling destination like Las Vegas around the world. You can choose either end of the scale or any box in between that reflects the intensity of your feelings. Please click one box per statement. Please remember all answers are confidential (your name cannot be associated with your answers). To me, traveling to gaming/gambling destinations like Las Vegas is:

	1	2	3	4	5	
Unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Pleasant
Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable
Unenjoyable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Enjoyable
Boring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Fun
Negative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Positive
Gloomy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Exciting
Sinful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Virtuous (not sinful)

Q10 When it comes to traveling to a gaming/gambling destinations like Las Vegas, there might be individuals or groups around you who would think you should or you should not travel to this type of destinations. Please indicate how

much you agree or disagree with the following statements by clicking the best relevant answer.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Most people I know would choose a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) as a travel destination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My parents would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My relatives who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My spouse/partner who is important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My classmates who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My Muslim friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Imam in my local community would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q11 The following indicate some general reasons/motivations as to why people travel. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement to each statement by clicking the answer that best fits you. I travel in the United States because I want to:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Talk about my vacation when I get home (relive it)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Experience different cultures and ways of life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attend cultural events that I don't have access to at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
See how other people live	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meet people of the opposite sex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feel at home away from home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do the same things that the people there do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Physically rest and relax	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home/school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Go places friends haven't visited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate in sports	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be physically active	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Learn new things/increase knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel to historically important places	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Indulge in luxury	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel to safe/secure places	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
See as much as possible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be free and act the way I feel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Find thrills and excitement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get a break from a busy study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be daring and adventuresome	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mix with fellow tourists	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Visit places recommended by friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meet people who are interested in the same things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Visit relatives and friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Experience good food	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Experience the United States	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stay in nice accommodations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Visit a destination which most people value and/or appreciate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take photos	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q12 The following indicate some general reasons/motivations as to why people choose certain destinations. Please indicate your feelings to each statement by choosing the answer that best fits you. I am attracted to specific destinations in the United States because they offer the following:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Nightlife and entertainment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Amusement or theme parks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Outdoor activities such as hiking/climbing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Water sports	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fast food restaurants	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A culture different from my own	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wilderness and undisturbed nature	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Outstanding scenery	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High quality restaurants	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Museums/art galleries/local crafts/handiwork	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Historical/archeological/military sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Opportunities to increase my knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A standard of hygiene/cleanliness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A close proximity to where I live	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A manageable size to see everything	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal safety (even when traveling alone)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A variety of short guided excursions/tours	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The seaside	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Casinos and gambling (19)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
American food	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reliable weather	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Beaches for swimming and sunning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Exotic atmosphere	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Halal food	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Positive attitudes toward Islamic culture	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mosques (places of worship)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shariah-compatible toilets	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Segregated services (e.g., beaches, swimming pools, and gymnasiums for men and women)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Islamic dress codes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A variety of shopping places	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reasonably priced goods and services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Available information about the destination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ease of communication with local people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Quality accommodation facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A variety of activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13 When it comes to travel, some people encounter problems that prohibit them from traveling. Below is a list of reasons for not travelling to gaming/gambling destinations like Las Vegas. Please indicate to what extent you

agree or disagree with each statement by clicking one answer for each statement. The main barriers or problems that I encounter when deciding to travel to gaming/gambling destinations like Las Vegas include the following:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Lack of information	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of interest in traveling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stress and anxiety	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gambling is morally wrong	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Safety concerns (personal safety)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of communication skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of halal food providers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Motion sickness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel not being compatible with my family's lifestyle	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Negative attitudes toward Muslims/Arabs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discrimination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Difficulty of finding friends or family members to accompany me in travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A partner uninterested in travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Others who do not have the money	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Others who do not have the time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lack of money to travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Family commitments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Study/work commitments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High travel costs in the United States	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dependent children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling discomfort due to my religion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reluctance toward traveling alone	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Health problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q14 Below is a list of various strategies and/or resources that assist people to overcome or reduce the effect of travel barriers/ difficulties or constraints. Thinking about the main travel barriers/constraints that you encountered, please rate the following items. Some of things that I used to overcome or reduce the negative effect of travel barriers/constraints were:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Ignore the problem and not think about it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Think about the importance and advantages of travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ignore the disapproval of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Save up money to travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Find a destination that best fits within my budget	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Learn to live within my financial means	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Find a trip that best fits my time limitations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Set aside time for traveling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Plan ahead for things so that I can travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be organized so that I can travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Rank in order what I want to do, at times making travel a priority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Try to find people with similar interests to accompany me in travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Find people to accompany me in travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Organize travel with my own friends/group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Borrow money sometimes to travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel with people of my own gender	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Change my plans and travel to close destinations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel alone or in a group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Look for someone to look after my dependents while I am traveling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reduce the travel time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel with a person who speaks other languages	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Travel with people who have similar interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Look for alternative things to do instead of traveling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Learn new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15 Below are some statements that measure your ability/confidence in using and applying the travel negotiation strategies. Please indicate your level of confidence in applying those strategies using the scale from 0-100%. Rate your degree of confidence by scrolling or clicking on the number from 0 to 100 using the scale given below:

<input type="text"/>	I am confident that I can ignore the problem and not think about it
<input type="text"/>	I can think about the importance and advantages of travel
<input type="text"/>	I can ignore the disapproval of others
<input type="text"/>	I can save up money to travel
<input type="text"/>	I can find a destination that best fits within my budget
<input type="text"/>	I can learn to live within my financial means
<input type="text"/>	I can find a trip that best fits my time limitations
<input type="text"/>	I can set aside time for traveling
<input type="text"/>	I can plan ahead for things so that I can travel
<input type="text"/>	I can be organized so that I can travel
<input type="text"/>	I can rank in order what I want to do, at times making travel a priority
<input type="text"/>	I can try to find people with similar interests to accompany me in travel
<input type="text"/>	I can find people to accompany me in travel
<input type="text"/>	I can organize travel with my own friends/group
<input type="text"/>	I can borrow money sometimes to travel
<input type="text"/>	I can travel with people of my own gender
<input type="text"/>	I can change my plans and travel to close destinations
<input type="text"/>	I can travel alone or in a group
<input type="text"/>	I can look for someone to look after my dependents while I am traveling
<input type="text"/>	I can reduce the travel time
<input type="text"/>	I can travel with a person who speaks other languages
<input type="text"/>	I can travel with people who have similar interests
<input type="text"/>	I can look for alternative things to do instead of traveling
<input type="text"/>	I can learn new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints

Q16 Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Please read each item and click through the “True” if the statement is True for you, or click through the “False” if the statement is False for you.

	True	False
I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always try to practice what I talk.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I never hate being asked to return a favor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to gossip at times.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

In the following section, we would like to know more about you. Please remember, any information you provide will remain confidential. All information will be used in aggregate statistics. At the end of this research, I will destroy all your answers.

Q17 What year were you born?

Q18 How long have you lived in the United States? (Enter numbers)

☐ Years _____

☐ Months _____

Q19 What is your nationality? (For example, Egyptian, Iraqi, Turkish, Omani, Saudi,etc...)

Q20 What is your gender?

☐ Male

☐ Female

Q21 What is your marital status?

☐ Single (Never Married)

☐ Married

☐ Divorced/Separated

Q22 Where do you get your financial resources from? (You can choose/click more than one)

- ☐ Self
- ☐ Assistantship/ Scholarships
- ☐ Parents
- ☐ Savings
- ☐ Others _____

Q23 Which category best represents your net monthly income (personal income not household)? Please mark only one.

- ☐ Less than \$750
- ☐ \$751 - \$1000
- ☐ \$1001 -\$1250
- ☐ \$1251-\$1500
- ☐ \$1501-\$1750
- ☐ \$1751 or more

Q24 What is your religion?

- ☐ Islam
- ☐ Christianity
- ☐ Buddhism
- ☐ Judaism
- ☐ Other _____

If Islam Is Selected, Then Skip To What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Mat...If Buddhism Is Selected, Then Skip To What is your current zip code?If Judaism Is Selected, Then Skip To What is your current zip code?If Christianity Is Selected, Then Skip To What is your current zip code?If Other Is Selected, Then Skip To What is your current zip code?

Q25 What is your Islamic Affiliation/ Math'hab?

- ☐ Sunni
- ☐ Shia'a
- ☐ Ibathi
- ☐ Other _____
- ☐ I prefer not to say

Q26 What is your current zip code?

Q27 If we have not covered things that you consider important, use the space below for additional comments.

Thank you very much for taking this survey.

APPENDIX B: DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDY VARIABLES

Table B.1 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Intention Items

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
N=679						
I intend to go on a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) in the near future	2.59	1.28	.11	.09	-1.30	.18
I am likely to go on a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) in the next three years	2.71	1.31	.09	.09	-1.23	.18
I want to visit Las Vegas	3.59	1.23	-.84	.09	-.20	.18
I would recommend a holiday in a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) to others	2.69	1.32	.20	.09	-1.04	.18

Table B.2 Descriptive Statistics for Religiosity Items

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
N=679						
I believe there is only one Allah (God)	4.63	.74	-2.32	.09	5.45	.18
Prophet Mohammed is Allah's (God's) last Prophet	4.54	.84	-1.79	.09	2.39	.18
I believe in the revealed scriptures (Quran/Message, Bible/Injeal, Torah/Tawrat)	4.53	.84	-1.93	.09	3.36	.18
I believe in all of Allah's (God's) messengers	4.57	.80	-1.90	.09	3.16	.18
I believe in the hereafter (including physical resurrection and life after death)	4.47	.89	-1.86	.09	3.37	.18
I always perform all of my prayers on time	3.46	1.26	-.43	.09	-.89	.18
Given access, I perform all of my prayers in the mosque regularly	2.87	1.25	.16	.09	-.98	.18
I perform ablutions (wash hands, face, arms, head, and feet with water) before every prayer	4.15	1.17	-1.36	.09	.89	.18
I perform the obligatory zakat (almsgiving)	4.03	1.15	-1.04	.09	.20	.18
I fast the whole month of Ramadan	4.21	1.18	-1.46	.09	1.03	.18
Performing Hajj is one of my main priorities in my life	3.87	1.26	-.86	.09	-.40	.18
In my personal life, religion plays a very important role	4.08	1.14	-1.18	.09	.46	.18
My religion helps me to have a better life	4.20	1.01	-1.30	.09	1.30	.18
The Dua'aa (supplication) supports me	4.27	1.02	-1.49	.09	1.80	.18
The Prophet Mohammed is the role model for me	4.15	1.05	-1.21	.09	.90	.18
I believe that Allah (God) helps me	4.54	.85	-1.89	.09	3.07	.18
I read the Holy Quran regularly	3.61	1.21	-.52	.09	-.71	.18
I never do haram (forbidden) things	3.39	1.24	-.22	.09	-1.04	.18
I always try to avoid minor sins	3.77	1.04	-.80	.09	.17	.18
Its okay to miss Friday prayer sometimes	3.10	1.26	-.05	.09	-1.08	.18
I always keep myself away from earning a living through haram (forbidden) means/acts	4.38	.97	-1.89	.09	3.39	.18
I know the necessary knowledge about my religion	4.10	.88	-1.07	.09	1.24	.18

It is acceptable to drink alcohol sometimes	3.92	1.39	-.95	.09	-.51	.18
It is okay to eat pork sometimes	4.11	1.30	-1.21	.09	.05	.18
It is acceptable to eat any meat in countries where the main religion is not Islam	3.40	1.31	-.15	.09	-1.21	.18
Sometimes, I do sit with friends who drink alcohol, but I don't drink it myself	3.28	1.32	-.33	.09	-1.03	.18
I always try to help those who need my help	4.27	.82	-1.27	.09	1.96	.18
I always avoid lying	4.07	.93	-.81	.09	-.08	.18
I am fearful of Allah (God)	4.29	.96	-1.39	.09	1.57	.18
I regularly contribute to charity/sadaqah	3.91	.88	-.63	.09	.17	.18
I believe the hijab (scarf) is obligatory for all women	3.60	1.36	-.65	.09	-.77	.18
I am a very religious person	3.22	1.06	-.21	.09	-.39	.18
I believe that, where it is allowed, it is fine for a man to marry up to four women	3.01	1.33	-.18	.09	-1.10	.18
I believe that a woman should not travel alone on long trips without a male from her immediate family	2.65	1.37	.34	.09	-1.07	.18
I only eat halal meat/chicken (slaughtered in the Islamic way)	3.38	1.38	-.26	.09	-1.26	.18
It is okay to gamble sometimes	3.86	1.37	-.78	.09	-.84	.18
I believe it is ok for a man to use a body greeting (hand shakes, hugs, kissing cheek) with any woman other than those from his immediate family	3.20	1.32	-.02	.09	-1.24	.18
I try to avoid mixing with the other gender	2.56	1.27	.44	.09	-.80	.18
It is acceptable to swim with mixed genders	3.12	1.36	.03	.09	-1.21	.18
I always try to avoid major sins	4.15	1.01	-1.23	.09	1.03	.18

Table B.3 Descriptive Statistics for Attitude Items

N= 679	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Unpleasant-Pleasant	3.01	1.46	-.08	.09	-1.31	.18
Unfavorable-Favorable	2.79	1.32	.11	.09	-1.05	.18
Unenjoyable-Enjoyable	3.12	1.38	-.26	.09	-1.16	.18
Boring-Fun	3.18	1.42	-.25	.09	-1.22	.18
Negative-Positive	2.73	1.32	.05	.09	-1.10	.18
Gloomy-Exciting	3.10	1.40	-.22	.09	-1.19	.18
Sinfull-Virtuous (Not sinful)	2.65	1.34	.33	.09	-.93	.18

Table B.4 Descriptive Statistics for Subjective Norms Items

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
N=679						
Most people I know would choose a gaming destination (like Las Vegas) as a travel destination	2.82	1.11	-.03	.09	-.88	.18
My parents would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	2.65	1.32	.20	.09	-1.15	.18
My relatives who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	2.73	1.25	-.00	.09	-1.13	.18
My spouse/partner who is important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	2.78	1.32	.02	.09	-1.12	.18
Friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	3.20	1.24	-.35	.09	-.88	.18
My classmates who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	3.32	1.07	-.34	.09	-.33	.18
My Muslim friends who are important to me would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	2.78	1.23	-.03	.09	-1.06	.18
The Imam in my local community would approve of me traveling to a gaming destination (like Las Vegas)	2.11	1.16	.73	.09	-.35	.18

Table B.5 Descriptive Statistics for Push Motivation Items

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
N=679						
Talk about my vacation when I get home (relive it)	3.33	1.18	-.52	.09	-.67	.18
Experience different cultures and ways of life	4.18	.88	-1.15	.09	1.44	.18
Attend cultural events that I don't have access to at home	3.83	1.03	-.81	.09	.21	.18
See how other people live	4.18	.87	-1.15	.09	1.37	.18
Meet people of the opposite sex	2.84	1.31	.05	.09	-1.09	.18
Feel at home away from home	3.10	1.13	-.21	.09	-.61	.18
Do the same things that the people there do	2.82	1.12	-.02	.09	-.60	.18
Physically rest and relax	3.97	.98	-1.07	.09	1.08	.18
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home/school	4.16	.92	-1.39	.09	2.19	.18
Go places friends haven't visited	3.68	1.07	-.76	.09	.17	.18
Participate in sports	3.18	1.07	-.38	.09	-.44	.18
Be physically active	3.78	.97	-.81	.09	.49	.18
Learn new things/increase knowledge	4.34	.76	-1.51	.09	3.41	.18
Travel to historically important places	4.11	.93	-1.11	.09	1.09	.18
Indulge in luxury	3.25	1.10	-.20	.09	-.59	.18
Travel to safe/secure places	3.91	.97	-.83	.09	.36	.18
See as much as possible	4.28	.82	-1.50	.09	3.06	.18
Be free and act the way I feel	3.75	1.10	-.69	.09	-.25	.18
Find thrills and excitement	3.95	.88	-.82	.09	.65	.18
Get a break from a busy study	4.21	.90	-1.28	.09	1.72	.18
Be daring and adventuresome	3.89	.97	-.78	.09	.16	.18
Mix with fellow tourists	3.49	1.05	-.37	.09	-.43	.18
Visit places recommended by friends	4.10	.75	-.76	.09	1.28	.18
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	4.12	.89	-1.38	.09	2.48	.18
Meet people who are interested in the same things	3.71	1.00	-.64	.09	-.06	.18
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	3.92	1.00	-1.06	.09	.97	.18

Visit relatives and friends	3.73	1.12	-.82	.09	.00	.18
Experience good food	3.91	.95	-.88	.09	.64	.18
Experience the United States	4.34	.78	-1.60	.09	4.11	.18
Stay in nice accommodations	3.78	1.02	-.57	.09	-.30	.18
Visit a destination which most people value and/or appreciate	3.99	.92	-.93	.09	.82	.18
Take photos	4.00	.96	-.91	.09	.56	.18

Table B.6 Descriptive Statistics for Pull Motivation Items

				Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std.	Statistic	Std.
N=679	Mean	SD		Error		Error	
Nightlife and entertainment	3.10	1.28	-.25	.094	-1.05	.18	
Amusement or theme parks	3.84	.96	-.92	.094	.86	.18	
Outdoor activities such as hiking/climbing	3.79	1.02	-.94	.094	.59	.18	
Water sports	3.66	1.10	-.58	.094	-.33	.18	
Fast food restaurants	3.05	1.21	-.14	.094	-.94	.18	
A culture different from my own	4.07	.91	-1.19	.094	1.63	.18	
Wilderness and undisturbed nature	3.95	.9	-.94	.094	.72	.18	
Outstanding scenery	4.24	.84	-1.14	.094	1.20	.18	
High quality restaurants	3.63	1.06	-.48	.094	-.30	.18	
Museums/art galleries/local crafts/handiwork	3.95	.97	-.97	.094	.72	.18	
Historical/archeological/military sites	3.76	.97	-.67	.094	.16	.18	
Opportunities to increase my knowledge	4.14	.90	-1.01	.094	.68	.18	
A standard of hygiene/cleanliness	3.79	.94	-.64	.094	.12	.18	
A close proximity to where I live	3.18	1.13	-.17	.094	-.75	.18	
A manageable size to see everything	3.66	1.00	-.40	.094	-.44	.18	
Personal safety (even when traveling alone)	3.95	.94	-.79	.094	.16	.18	
A variety of short guided excursions/tours	3.61	1.04	-.57	.094	-.33	.18	
The seaside	4.03	.91	-.88	.094	.49	.18	
Casinos and gambling	2.46	1.36	.33	.094	-1.27	.18	
American food	3.13	1.19	-.22	.094	-.79	.18	
Reliable weather	3.82	.84	-.82	.094	1.03	.18	
Beaches for swimming and sunning	3.66	1.118	-.57	.094	-.37	.18	
Exotic atmosphere	3.83	.97	-.91	.094	.90	.18	
Halal food	3.71	1.19	-.71	.094	-.38	.18	
Positive attitudes toward Islamic culture	3.77	1.04	-.58	.094	-.17	.18	
Mosques (places of worship)	3.48	1.19	-.39	.094	-.63	.18	
Shariah-compatible toilets	3.19	1.22	-.13	.094	-.88	.18	
Segregated services	3.17	1.28	-.15	.094	-1.02	.18	
Islamic dress codes	2.99	1.25	-.02	.094	-.95	.18	
A variety of shopping places	3.77	1.04	-.85	.094	.27	.18	
Reasonably priced goods and services	4.12	.87	-1.17	.094	1.65	.18	
Available information about the destination	4.10	.80	-1.13	.094	2.16	.18	

Ease of communication with local people	3.93	.84	-.67	.094	.68	.18
Quality accommodation facilities	3.97	.83	-.83	.094	1.27	.18
A variety of activities	4.19	.74	-1.16	.094	3.07	.18

Table B.7 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Constraints Items

			Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Std.		Std.
N=679	Mean	SD	Statistic	Error	Statistic	Error
Lack of information	3.13	1.13	-.32	.09	-.83	.18
Lack of interest in traveling	3.14	1.18	-.05	.09	-1.04	.18
Stress and anxiety	3.03	1.17	.01	.09	-.92	.18
Gambling is morally wrong	3.63	1.28	-.57	.09	-.74	.18
Safety concerns (personal safety)	3.53	1.18	-.61	.09	-.47	.18
Lack of communication skills	2.80	1.19	.08	.09	-.99	.18
Lack of halal food providers	2.92	1.26	.08	.09	-1.00	.18
Motion sickness	2.58	1.19	.40	.09	-.71	.18
Travel not being compatible with my family's lifestyle	2.88	1.24	.00	.09	-1.06	.18
Negative attitudes toward Muslims/Arabs	3.02	1.25	-.10	.09	-.98	.18
Discrimination	2.97	1.19	-.05	.09	-.83	.18
Difficulty of finding friends or family members to accompany me in travel	3.08	1.21	-.19	.09	-.99	.18
A partner uninterested in travel	3.23	1.18	-.18	.09	-.93	.18
Others who do not have the money	3.32	1.06	-.61	.09	-.24	.18
Others who do not have the time	3.33	1.03	-.59	.09	-.14	.18
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	3.44	1.06	-.62	.09	-.28	.18
Lack of money to travel	3.61	1.09	-.73	.09	-.11	.18
Family commitments	3.21	1.23	-.33	.09	-.91	.18
Study/work commitments	3.80	.99	-1.08	.09	1.22	.18
High travel costs in the United States	3.57	1.11	-.54	.09	-.33	.18
Dependent children	2.84	1.25	-.02	.09	-1.01	.18
Feeling discomfort due to my religion	2.99	1.31	-.16	.09	-1.18	.18
Reluctance toward traveling alone	3.13	1.21	-.31	.09	-.91	.18
Health problems	2.53	1.25	.42	.09	-.82	.18

Table B.8 Descriptive Statistics for Constraints Negotiation Strategies Items

			Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Std.		Std.
N=679	Mean	SD	Statistic	Error	Statistic	Error
Ignore the problem and not think about it	3.19	1.07	-.43	.09	-.66	.18
Think about the importance and advantages of travel	3.79	.92	-1.10	.09	1.52	.18
Ignore the disapproval of others	3.28	1.05	-.37	.09	-.40	.18
Save up money to travel	3.72	.97	-.80	.09	.29	.18
Find a destination that best fits within my budget	4.00	.86	-1.22	.09	2.16	.18
Learn to live within my financial means	3.97	.85	-1.20	.09	2.19	.18
Find a trip that best fits my time limitations	4.03	.76	-1.22	.09	3.00	.18
Set aside time for traveling	3.81	.90	-.97	.09	1.07	.18
Plan ahead for things so that I can travel	3.91	.92	-.88	.09	.54	.18
Be organized so that I can travel	3.87	.92	-.83	.09	.63	.18
Rank in order what I want to do, at times making travel a priority	3.72	.93	-.78	.09	.41	.18
Try to find people with similar interests to accompany me in travel	3.79	.95	-1.02	.09	1.02	.18
Find people to accompany me in travel	3.75	.91	-.86	.09	.80	.18
Organize travel with my own friends/group	3.86	.86	-.91	.09	1.18	.18
Borrow money sometimes to travel	2.41	1.24	.46	.09	-1.01	.18
Travel with people of my own gender	3.24	1.14	-.22	.09	-.68	.18
Change my plans and travel to close destinations	3.35	.94	-.62	.09	-.08	.18
Travel alone or in a group	3.34	1.01	-.76	.09	.03	.18
Look for someone to look after my dependents while I am traveling	2.81	1.18	-.07	.09	-.94	.18
Reduce the travel time	3.43	.97	-.85	.09	.09	.18
Travel with a person who speaks other languages	3.27	.96	-.50	.09	-.04	.18
Travel with people who have similar interests	3.87	.83	-.92	.09	1.56	.18
Look for alternative things to do instead of traveling	3.34	.95	-.45	.09	-.15	.18

Learn new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints	3.57	.95	-.86	.09	.67	.18
---	------	-----	------	-----	-----	-----

Table B.9 Descriptive Statistics for Self-Efficacy Items

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
N=679						
I am confident that I can ignore the problem and not think about it	59.72	25.10	-.48	.09	-.45	.18
I can think about the importance and advantages of travel	75.58	20.85	-.75	.09	-.19	.18
I can ignore the disapproval of others	65.21	24.77	-.54	.09	-.24	.18
I can save up money to travel	69.85	22.18	-.78	.09	.25	.18
I can find a destination that best fits within my budget	75.54	20.54	-.86	.09	.34	.18
I can learn to live within my financial means	76.35	20.21	-1.01	.09	.94	.18
I can find a trip that best fits my time limitations	75.50	20.17	-1.01	.09	1.06	.18
I can set aside time for traveling	70.08	22.68	-.77	.09	.27	.18
I can plan ahead for things so that I can travel	73.06	21.64	-.92	.09	.63	.18
I can be organized so that I can travel	73.13	22.37	-.94	.09	.58	.18
I can rank in order what I want to do, at times making travel a priority	70.41	24.14	-.86	.09	.09	.18
I can try to find people with similar interests to accompany me in travel	66.72	23.66	-.64	.09	.00	.18
I can find people to accompany me in travel	66.36	24.14	-.69	.09	-.06	.18
I can organize travel with my own friends/group	70.00	23.35	-.83	.09	.21	.18
I can borrow money sometimes to travel	35.08	32.10	.49	.09	-1.16	.18
I can travel with people of my own gender	68.83	27.14	-.74	.09	-.23	.18
I can change my plans and travel to close destinations	69.64	23.51	-.65	.09	-.09	.18
I can travel alone or in a group	69.11	26.74	-.84	.09	-.04	.18
I can look for someone to look after my dependents while I am traveling	45.51	34.40	.00	.09	-1.43	.18
I can reduce the travel time	67.58	24.23	-.68	.09	.04	.18
I can travel with a person who speaks other languages	64.80	28.20	-.64	.09	-.54	.18

I can travel with people who have similar interests	74.84	22.04	-1.04	.09	1.00	.18
I can look for alternative things to do instead of traveling	67.91	24.96	-.70	.09	-.13	.18
I can learn new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints	68.93	24.35	-.77	.09	.05	.18
