Holiday Destinations:

Understanding the Perceptions of

Omani Outbound Tourists

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Abstract

It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the growing numbers of Islamic tourists from countries such as the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) zone and Indonesia. This thesis aims to understand Omani outbound pleasure travellers by identifying their travel motivations, the main travel and leisure constraints they experience, and how they overcome these constraints. It also investigates the influence of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure destination and their participation in leisure activities.

The main data collection methods involved in-depth interviews (n = 27) (the qualitative phase), and the distribution of a self-completion questionnaire (n = 298) (a quantitative phase) to both actual travellers and non-travellers. A mixed method approach allowed further insight into the research phenomenon as well as enhancing the trustworthiness of the research findings. Content analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data using CatPac (CATegory PACkage) and Leximancer software, while the quantitative data were analysed by utilising analysis techniques including T-tests, ANOVA, factor analysis, cluster analysis, regression, and MANOVA in SPSS.

The study identifies: (a) the most important push and pull travel motivations for Omani outbound tourists; (b) the main travel and leisure constraints that inhibit Omanis from travelling overseas and participating in leisure activities; and, (c) the most frequent travel and leisure negotiation strategies that are adopted to overcome these constraints. The results of the study also determine the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on Omani tourists' perceptions and behaviours. In terms of the impact of Islamic teachings, this study finds that the Islamic teachings have an indirect influence on the choice of a pleasure travel destination and a direct influence on participation in leisure activities. In relation to market segmentation, the study finds that it is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations. Further, this study suggests that participation, or nonparticipation, in overseas travel is an outcome of the joint action of travel motivations and constraints.

Other useful findings relate to the three-dimensional leisure constraints model as well as the influence of travel motivations and constraints on the use of negotiation strategies are reported.

The current study provides information that will aid the travel and leisure industry in targeting the Muslim travel market to formulate effective marketing strategies and develop appropriate product plans. Finally, both the managerial implications of the study's results, and possible future research directions, are discussed.

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Table of Contents

xi

	Page
List of Tables	
Table 2.1 Inbound Tourists by Nationality (2005-2009)	19
Table 2.2 General Indicators of Hotels Activity (2006-2008)	20
Table 2.3 Omani Outbound Market Development (2005-2009)	21
Table 3.1 Assumptions of the Four Alternative Paradigms	96
Table 3.2 Interview Questions and Research Objectives	100
Table 4.1 The Demographic Profiles of Participants in Interviews	111
Table 4.2 Encountered Travel Constraints and the Adopted Negotiation Strategies	144
Table 4.3 Encountered Leisure Constraints and the Adopted Negotiation Strategies	148
Table 5.1 The Demographic Profile of Respondents	166
Table 5.2 Potential and Current Omani Outbound Tourists	167
Table 5.3 Respondents' Travel Destinations	168
Table 5.4 Travel Satisfaction of the Respondents	168
Table 5.5 The Influence of Travel Constraints on Respondents' Holiday Plans	169
Table 5.6 Respondents' Length of Stay in Destination	169
Table 5.7 Respondents' Overseas Travel Frequency	170
Table 5.8 Likelihood Ratio Tests of Travel Frequency and Socio-demographics	171
Table 5.9 The Respondents' Future Travel Destinations	171
Table 5.10 The Main Travel Constraints that Inhibit the Non-travellers from Travelling Abroad	172
Table 5.11 The Main Leisure Constraints that Inhibit the Nonparticipants from Participating in Leisure Activities	173
Table 6.1 Reliability Statistics of Push Motivations	176
Table 6.2 Reliability Statistics of Pull Motivations	177
Table 6.3 Importance Rankings of Push Motivations	178
Table 6.4 A Comparison between the Findings of the Quantitative Phase and the Qualitative Phase Regarding Push Travel Motivations	180
Table 6.5 Importance Rankings of Pull Motivations	181
Table 6.6 A Comparison between the Findings of the Quantitative Phase and the Qualitative Phase Regarding Pull Travel Motivations	184
Table 6.7 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Push Motivations	187
Table 6.8 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Pull Motivations	191
Table 6.9 Correlation Analysis of Push and Pull Factors	195
Table 6.10 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Genders	198
Table 6.11 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Marital Status	200
Table 6.12 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Age Groups	201
Table 6.13 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Education Groups	202
Table 6.14 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Income Groups	202
Table 6.15 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Occupation Groups	203
Table 6.16 The Demographic Difference between Travellers and Non-travellers	206

xviii

	Page
List of Figures	

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to travel motivations, destination choice, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies. It then goes on to present the study's research objectives, the importance of further research in this area, and the expected outcomes of the study. Finally, the structure of the thesis is outlined.

1.1 Background of the Research

For travel and destination marketers, understanding why people travel (push motivations), what attracts them to choose or visit a specific destination (pull motivations), what influences them to choose a destination, what impedes them from travelling (constraints), and what they did to overcome these constraints (negotiation strategies) are of critical importance in developing appropriate marketing strategies (Chen & Hsu, 2000; McGuiggan, 2004; Swanson & Horridge, 2006; Ayling, 2008; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Hsu, Tsai & Wu, 2009; Alsawafi, 2010).Furthermore, all previous studies in the tourism marketing field have confirmed that, without clear and accurate understanding of these issues regarding a specific market segment, destination marketers will not be able to effectively market their particular destination to people in this market segment or create and develop appropriate marketing strategies to attract targeted groups (Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Kleiber, McGuire & Norman, 2008; Son & Mowen, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Kleiber & Nimrod, 2009; Koca, Henderson, Asci & Bulgu, 2009).In addition, issues such as tourist behaviour and destination choice are considered as fundamental subjects in tourism studies (Yun & Lehto, 2009; Zhang, 2009; Merwe, Slabbert, & Saayman, 2011). These critical issues in developing countries and Islamic culture have, however, received scant attention from researchers (Bogare, Crowther, & Marr, 2004; Awaritefe, 2004; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Hsu et al. 2009). Therefore, any attempt to examine these issues by using different research methods and new research instruments in textual analysis may contribute to a broader and deeper understanding

of tourists' travel behaviour in general, and the travel behaviour of a specific market segment or of a given destination, in particular.

As countries struggle to increase their share of the foreign tourist market, it becomes essential to understand why people travel abroad and why they choose a specific destination for international pleasure travel. Many researchers have argued that motivation is a starting point for studying tourist behaviour and obtaining a better understanding of travel choice (Fodness, 1994; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Kim, Jogaratnam, & Noh, 2006; Kim, 2007; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008). Furthermore, many researchers have also suggested that motivation is the most important variable in explaining and understanding tourist behaviour, and it is considered the driving and compelling force behind all behaviours and actions (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995). Although motivation is considered a significant factor in explaining tourist behaviours, and while it was one the most sparsely researched areas of tourism, both conceptually and empirically (Fodness, 1994; Oh et al., 1995), recent studies have rectified that situation. Nonetheless, that earlier statement on the dearth of research still remains true with regard to the Islamic world (Henderson, 2010). Hence, the current study aims to contribute to the current literature on travel motivations by exploring the push and pull motivations of Omani outbound tourists, and segmenting this group based on their travel motivations.

Collins and Tisdell (2002) have suggested that the demand for travel can be influenced by demographic and socioeconomic variables such as ethnic identity, nationality, age, region, family size, gender, marital status, religion, income, occupation, and educational level. Accordingly, many studies have been conducted to examine the influence of these variables on travel behaviour in general and travel motivations, destination choice, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies, in particular (Frew & Shaw, 1999; Carr, 1999; Mattila, Apostolopoulos, Sonmez, Yu, & Sasidharan, 2001; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Mottiar & Quinn, 2004; Meng, Quanxin, Jinchuan, & Jifu, 2008; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongkhonvanit, 2008; Sangpikul, 2008; Hoye & Lillis, 2008;

Dotson, Clark, & Dave, 2008). These studies aim to provide knowledge that could explain tourists' behaviour in terms of their decision-making process, and to identify the basic and unique wants, needs, characteristics, constraints, negotiation strategies, and travel motivations of each market segment, for example, the senior market segment, the college market segment, and the solo travellers market segment (Fodness, 1994; Oh et al.1995; Sangpikul, 2008; Kim, 2007; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008). This knowledge enables tourism providers and tourism marketers to understand the origins of the psychological differences among these market segments, which, in turn, allows them to satisfy the different market segments by: (1) meeting their unique desires, travel motivations and aspirations; (2) considering the factors that affect the choice of a tourist destination; (3) minimising their leisure and travel constraints; and, (4) strengthening their travel and leisure negotiation strategies (Young, 2003; Chipkin, 2005; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Sangpikul, 2008; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008).

There also exists a stream of literature that examines how consumer choice is affected by cultural norms. Much of the current literature is based upon a North-American-European nexus that is underpinned by a common normative aspect based upon Judeo-Christian traditions and religious beliefs, and on the emergence of more secular beliefs dependent upon forces such as technological change and scientific rationalism. While such a literature is slowly being challenged, not only from postmodernist perspectives on the "other", but also from a growing literature based in Asian traditions of Confucian, Buddhist and Taoist thought, and a contemporary Chinese voice (e.g., Ryan, Zhang, Gu, & Ling, 2009; Huang, 2010), there remains a comparative lack of literature based on an Islamic world view (e.g., see Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010). It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore this issue, given the growing numbers of Islamic tourists from countries such as the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) zone and Indonesia (Alsawafi, 2010). Therefore, this thesis attempts to make a contribution to this field by including variables specific to the Islamic culture of contemporary Oman – that is, an Oman that not only possesses an Islamic identity but is also a centre of finance, oil and business in the modern and

postmodern world. Overall, it is hoped that this thesis assists researchers and destination marketers by enhancing their comprehension of Omani tourists' perceptions and behaviours.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to expand the understanding of the travel and leisure behaviour of Omani tourists. More specifically, the research attempts to achieve the following objectives:

1. To examine the travel motivations of Omani tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations;
2. To determine whether there are significant differences in travel motivations that could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status;
3. To segment Omani tourists based on their push-pull motivations in order to identify their personal characteristics;
4. To investigate the impact of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure travel destination and their participation in leisure activities;
5. To identify travel and leisure constraints that impede Omani residents from travelling outside Oman and participating in leisure activities; and,
6. To identify their travel and leisure negotiation strategies in order to overcome the travel and leisure constraints.

1.3 The Significance of the Subject

Travel motivations are a dynamic concept which vary according to demographic and socioeconomic variables, by world region visited, according to cultural background, from nation to nation, from one life stage to another over time, and from one market segment to another (You et al., 2000; Gilbert & Terrata, 2001; Lee et al., 2002; Klemm, 2002; Richards & Wilson, 2004; Carr, 2005; Andreu et al., 2005; Hsu et al., 2009). Travel motivations have been a fundamental issue in tourism research for the last three decades (Prebensen & Kleiven, 2006; Johanson, 2007; Hoye & Lillis,

2008). In addition, many researchers consider motives to be a major determinant of tourist behaviour (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Qu & Leong, 2003; McGuiggan, 2004; Yuan et al., 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Kim, 2007). Moreover, Oh, Uysal, and Weaver (1995) have argued that without a clear understanding of both the push and pull factors affecting targeted visitors, travel marketers will not be able to effectively market their particular destination. In this context, Iso-Ahola (1982, 1983) pointed out that travel motivations are a more important determinant of travel behaviour than any other psychological factors. Additionally, travel motivations play an essential role in shaping tourists' travel behaviour (Smith & Costello, 2009; Correia & Crouch, 2004; Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2010). However, a review of the literature reveals that the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists have not yet been researched (Bogari, Crowther, & Marr, 2004; Al-masroori, 2006; Alsawafi, 2010). In this context, Hsu et al. (2009) pointed out that research into travel motivations in both developing and Islamic countries has not attracted as much attention as have European and US travel motivations. Therefore, this study seeks to understand Omani tourists' behaviours in terms of their push and pull travel motivations, in order to provide tourism marketers with some insights into the Omani travel market in such a way as to help them to effectively promote their destinations to Omani people.

From the perspective of the theory of push and pull travel motivation, Kim, Jogaratnam, and Noh (2006) suggested that tourists are pushed by invisible factors emerging from their psychological or physical desires (called push factors) and then pulled by visible factors affected by either natural environments or destination attributes (called pull factors). In other words, tourists take a holiday to satisfy their internal socio-psychological needs such as a desire for relaxation, escape from the stress experienced in their daily life, the experience of a new or different life-style, the experience of a new culture, or meeting people with similar interests; at the same time, they are attracted to visit a specific destination as a response to its attributes, for example, warm and sunny weather, nightlife and entertainment, shopping opportunities, and safety and security (Jang & Wu, 2006; Kim, 2007; Correia, Valle,

& Moco, 2007; Sangpikul, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009).

In this context, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) argued that two forces motivate individuals to travel as tourists: first, the desire to escape from daily life (its problems or difficulties); second, the desire to participate in leisure activities. In addition, Leiper (2004) stated three factors that may influence a person to become a tourist. First, internal needs−such as a condition of felt deprivation−might be satisfied by a journey. Secondly, detailed information, accurate knowledge, and feelings about the satisfaction of those wants and needs may be met. Thirdly, positive and strong expectations that travel will satisfy the needs are influential.

The demand for travel can be influenced by demographic and socioeconomic variables, such as ethnic identity, nationality, age, region, family size, gender, marital status, religion, income, occupation, and educational level (Cai & Combrink, 2002; Collins & Tisdell, 2002; You et al., 2000; Kim & Prideaux, 2005). Therefore, marketers must appreciate the impact of socio-demographic variables in tourist behaviours and develop their marketing strategies accordingly (Sussmann & Rascovsky, 1997) However, Liu (2008) pointed out that there have been few recent studies that attempt to investigate the role of socio-demographic variables in tourist behaviour. Hence, this study examines the influence of most of these variables on Omani tourists' travel motivations, perceived travel and leisure constraints, and their use of negotiation strategies to overcome both travel and leisure constraints, all of which will enable destination marketers to obtain a clearer understanding of their customers and, therefore, tailor and develop their tourism products and services to meet the expectations of their customers.

In addition, as noted above, the thesis seeks to identify basic and unique wants, needs, characteristics, and travel motivations of Omani market segments. Dotson, Clark, and Dave (2008) pointed out that a number of studies have focused specifically on segmentation based on the travel motivations of respondents. Hence this study also attempts to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their push-pull

motivations in order to better identify their personal characteristics and relate them to specific push-pull motivations.

In terms of the choice of tourist destinations, Cubillo, Sanchez, and Cervino (2006) conclude it is very important for destination marketers to know the factors influencing the choice of a tourist destination. In this regard, Alsawafi (2010), who examined the travel motivations of Omani students, found that the most important pull travel motivations for Omani students when choosing tourist destinations were "availability of mosques", "local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture in destination", and "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods" Do you have a page reference for these quotations?. This study suggests that ethical and religious considerations play an important role in these students' choice of a tourist destination. Additionally, studies of tourist choice have been addressed from multiple perspectives owing to the various sub-decisions involved in the process of decision-making (Nicolau & Mas, 2006). However, very little is known about the impacts of religious beliefs on travel and leisure behaviour in general, and the impact of Islamic teachings on travel and leisure behaviour in particular (Stodolska & Livengood, 2007; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010). Hence, this study addresses this issue by assessing the role and impact of the Islamic teachings on Omani outbound tourists when choosing a tourist destination. Hence, this study will provide a significant and unique contribution to research on travel behaviour in general, and to tourism marketing in particular. Moreover, the results of this study, regarding this objective, may provide significant implications for global marketers who need to know more about the Muslim travel market (Fam, Waller, & Erdogan, 2004).

Zhang (2009) argued that knowing why people do not travel may suggest strategies that can be used by travel marketers to overcome constraints on travel. In addition, identifying these issues will be meaningful in segmenting markets, in constructing marketing strategies, in designing promotional programmes and packages, and in destination development decision-making (Bogari et al., 2004; Ayling, 2008; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Alsawafi, 2010). Furthermore, Ayling (2008), Liu (2008), and Zhang (2009) also stated that there have been limited studies which have focused on

the identification of travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies in the world in general, and in developing countries in particular. Thus, this study seeks to gain a better understanding of barriers to participation in overseas holidays with reference to Omani residents, noting the point made by Dellaert, Ettema, and Lindh (1998) that travel decisions are made subject to constraints. Furthermore, this study provides an opportunity to test the universality and applicability of the three-dimension leisure constraints model in a new environment (namely that of a Muslim and Arabic population).

With reference to travel and leisure negotiation strategies, Lee and Scott (2009) believe that it is crucial for destination marketers to understand the tourists' travel and leisure negotiation strategies in order for marketers to better develop effective marketing strategies. Hence, the current study also attempts to identify travel and leisure negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents to overcome perceived travel and leisure constraints that impede them from travelling and participating in leisure activities.

A search of the literature in both English and Arabic using search engines and sources such as leisuretourism.com indicates a dearth of information about Omani outbound tourists regarding their travel motivations, and constraints on leisure, and on strategies to overcome those constraints on leisure participation including travel. Accordingly, this thesis attempts to make a contribution to the academic and wider literature by examining these issues. Conceptually it will be of interest to assess to what degree this market differs from better researched markets. If differences are found, the degree to which these differences are based on cultural and consumption values will then arise as an issue (Young, 2003; Chipkin, 2005; Kim et al., 2007; Sangpikul, 2008; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008).

For empirical testing, a number of propositions are developed in Chapter Two. These propositions result from a comprehensive review of the literature related to Omani outbound travel, motivations, market segmentation, destination choice, travel and leisure constraints and negotiation strategies. These propositions are:

Proposition 1: The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Omani outbound tourists market, and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions.

Proposition 2: Socio-demographic variables have an influence on push and pull travel motivations.

Proposition 3: It is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations.

Proposition 4: The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination and participation in leisure activities.

Proposition 5: The three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation.

Proposition 6: Travel and leisure constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables.

Proposition 7: Omanis' participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel is an outcome of the joint action of travel motivations and constraints.

Proposition 8: Both motivations and constraints will "trigger" Omanis' use of negotiation strategies.

1.4 The Expected Outcomes of the Study

1. This study has the potential to make a conceptual contribution by assessing the extent to which cultural issues may act as inhibitors on holiday activity and destination choice when comparing Islamic societies to the non-Islamic societies as reported thus far in the literature.

2. A managerial contribution would also result from aiding the industry in understanding the travel motivations, impact of Islamic teachings on choosing a tourist destination, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies with reference to an Islamic society.

3. The findings of this study will identify market segments and their different ways of negotiating factors that may constrain travel. Managers can utilise such results to minimise the barriers to travel by particular groups.

4. Findings of this study would constitute an important source of information for future work in international tourism marketing, especially for travel marketers who aim to target the Muslim travel market.

5. Several practical applications of this study could be of major use to destination marketers and managers in order to meet the expectations of Omani tourists.

6. This study will contribute to the literature that enables businesses in the tourism industry to establish effective strategies for reaching specific target markets.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis will be divided into 14 chapters. A summary of each chapter follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to travel motivations, destination choice, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies. It then presents the research objectives, the importance of further research in this area, and the expected outcomes of the study. Finally, the structure of the thesis is identified.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter links the research problem with a wide range of literature relevant to the Omani outbound travel market, travel motivations, market segmentation, destination choice, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies. The chapter identifies gaps in the literature, and research objectives. Finally, on the basis of the related literature and the study objectives, this chapter develops eight propositions that will be investigated in this study.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter justifies and presents the research methodology adopted, and highlights a conceptual research framework. It discusses qualitative research along with ways in which data collection and analysis of interviews serve in a supportive role to facilitate questionnaire design. The development of the survey instrument, and the sampling and processing of data for both qualitative and quantitative methods are also justified and presented. Finally, ethical issues and limitations of the methodology are covered in this chapter.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Results: Phase One: In-depth Interview

The current study adopted mixed methods to gain qualitative and quantitative insights into the research problem. Therefore, this chapter focuses on the qualitative study. The structure of this section includes: (a) the outcomes of the interview pilot study, (b) interview procedures, (c) the demographic profile of participants, (e) CatPac software, and (f) the qualitative results derived from analysing the data using CatPac (CATegory PACkage) software.

Chapter Five: Phase Two: Self-completion Questionnaires

The previous chapter detailed the results of the first research phase. Chapter five builds on these results by focusing on the quantitative study. The structure of this chapter covers: (a) questionnaire design; (b) data collection; (c) the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, (d) general travel information about the respondents, and (e) general leisure information on the respondents.

Chapter Six: Push and Pull Motivations and Underlying Dimensions

This chapter was designed to answer five questions: (1) Why do Omani outbound tourists travel abroad for pleasure (push motivations)? (2) What attracted them to select or visit a particular destination (pull motivations)? (3) What are the underlying dimensions for their motivations that emerged in the study (factor analysis)? (4) Is there a correlation between push and pull factors? and, (5) Is there any significant

difference among groups in terms of travel motivation factors? Descriptive statistics including t-tests, ANOVA, factor analysis, and Pearson bivariate correlation analysis are applied to obtain answers for these questions.

Chapter 7: Market Segmentation

This chapter was intended to segment Omani tourists in line with their push and pull motivation factors in order to identify their personal characteristics (research objective 3).

Chapter 8: Travel Constraints

This chapter attempts to identify travel constraints which impeded Omani people from travelling abroad for pleasure purposes. Furthermore, the influence of socio-demographic variables on perceived travel constraints was examined. Factor analysis was then applied to test study proposition 5: that the three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation. A comparison between travellers and non-travellers regarding their travel constraints was performed. Finally, this chapter also explores the influence of motivations and travel constraints on individuals' travel participation (proposition 7). As a result, in order to examine the role of motivations and travel constraints in explaining participation, binary logistic regression analysis was conducted.

Chapter 9: Leisure Constraints

The chapter was designed to determine the leisure constraints which prevented Omani residents from participation in leisure activities. This chapter also attempts to determine whether significant differences in leisure constraints could be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between participants and non-participants regarding their leisure constraints was made. Finally, factor analysis is undertaken to test whether leisure constraints followed the three-dimensional leisure constraints model.

Chapter 10: Travel Negotiation Strategies

On the grounds that travel constraints are "negotiable" and can be successfully overcome, this study aimed at identifying travel negotiation strategies used by Omani outbound tourists in order to overcome perceived travel constraints (objective 6). This chapter also sought to determine whether significant differences in travel negotiation strategies that can be attributed to socio-demographic variables exist. A comparison between travellers and non-travellers regarding their adopted travel negotiation strategies is performed. Factor analysis is again used to test whether travel negotiation strategies can be classified into the four negotiation dimensions. Finally, this chapter explored the role of both travel motivations and constraints in triggering Omanis' use of negotiation strategies (proposition 8).

Chapter 11: Leisure Negotiation Strategies

This study also sought to identify leisure negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents to overcome perceived leisure constraints (objective 6). This chapter also aims to determine whether there are significant differences in leisure negotiation strategies attributable to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between participants and nonparticipants concerning their adopted leisure negotiation strategies is conducted. Factor analysis is again applied to examine whether leisure negotiation strategies can be classified into four negotiation dimensions.

Chapter 12: The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Destination Choice

This study aimed to investigate the impact of Islamic teachings on choice of a pleasure travel destination (objective 4). This chapter also sought to identify whether there are significant differences in the influence of Islamic teachings that can be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between travellers and non-travellers in relation to the influence of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure travel destination was performed. Finally, the first part of proposition 4, that Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination, is examined in this chapter.

Chapter 13: The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation

As this study also aimed to explore the influence of Islamic teachings on the participation of Omani residents in leisure activities (objective 4), this chapter sought to examine whether there are significant differences in the influence of Islamic teachings attributable to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between participants and nonparticipants in relation to the influence of Islamic teachings on their participation in leisure activities was performed. Finally, the second part of proposition 4, namely that Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' participation in leisure activities, was examined in this chapter.

Chapter 14: Conclusion

The main purpose of this chapter is to provide a conclusion for the present study and recommendations for future research. In the first section, the main findings regarding study objectives and propositions are summarised. The second section describes the Omani outbound travel market based on the study's findings. Next, practical applications of the present study are suggested. The fourth section highlights the contribution of this thesis to the literature. Finally, the last section discusses limitations of the current study and offers recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter links the research problem with a wide range of literature relevant to the Omani outbound travel market, travel motivations, market segmentation, destination choice, and travel and leisure constraints and negotiation strategies. The chapter identifies gaps in the literature, and research objectives. Finally, on the basis of related literature and the study objectives, this chapter develops eight propositions that will be investigated in this study.

2.1 The Context of Omani Outbound Tourism

2.1.1 Introduction

The Sultanate of Oman (hereafter Oman) is a country with a total population of about 2,867,000 of whom about 1,967,000 are Omani nationals (Ministry of National Economy, 2009). It occupies an area of approximately 309.5 square kilometres. Its strategic location places it at the nexus of the world's three large continents: Asia, Europe, and Africa, which means it dominates the oldest and most important sea trading route in the world between the Arabian Gulf and Indian Ocean (Al-masroori, 2006; Ministry of Information, 2009).

Oman's crucial geographical location has been a significant factor in its political and economic development. Located in the extreme south-eastern corner of the Arabian Peninsula, extending from latitude 16.40 to 26.20 degrees north and longitude 51.50 to 59.40 degrees east, its 3,165 kilometre-long coastline runs from the Arabian Sea and access to the Indian Ocean in the far south-west, to the Oman Sea and Musandam in the north, where it overlooks the strategic Strait of Hormuz and the entrance of the Arabian Gulf (Ministry of Information, 2009).

 Oman shares its borders with the Republic of Yemen to the south-west, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to the west, and the United Arab Emirates to the north. It has dominion over a number of small islands in the Oman Sea and the Strait of Hormuz

such as Salamah and Her Daughters, as well as Masirah and the Hallaniyat Islands in the Arabian Sea (see Figure 2.1, Map of Oman). Lying on the tropic of Cancer, Oman is generally a hot and arid region. Nevertheless, the south of the country has a tropical climate. Specifically, Oman includes a variety of geographical features such as mountains, coastal plains, and deserts. Summer temperatures can be very high and cities, including the capital city, Muscat on the north coast, become very hot. Because of the influences of the summer monsoon period, summer temperatures are more moderate in the southern area, where the country's second major city of Salalah is situated. This monsoon season provides an opportunity for Salalah to attract regional tourists from other parts of Oman, and visitors from other Arabian Gulf countries, as it offers them cooling relief during the period when their own regions are experiencing their hottest weather (Al-masroori, 2006; Ministry of Information, 2009). According to the Ministry of Tourism, Salalah received over 450, 000 tourists during the 2008 season, up by 24% from the 364,000 recorded in 2007. However, winter temperatures are moderate all over the country, giving the country a touristic advantage in attracting western tourists to visit Oman during this season (Al-masroori, 2006; Ministry of Information, 2009; Ministry of Tourism, 2009).

Administratively, Oman is divided into 11 governorates (Muscat, Dhofar, Musandam, Buraimi, Batinah South, Batinah North, Dahirah, Dakhiliyah, Sharqiyah South, Sharqiyah North, and the Wusta). It enjoys stable social, political, and economic systems and has strong diplomatic relationships with both neighbouring countries and leading Western nations which enable the country to play a vital role in promoting regional political and economic cooperation. Oman has a rich cultural heritage, an abundance of scenic beauty, and has a lot to offer tourists and business visitors alike (Al-masroori, 2006; Ministry of Information, 2012).

Figure 2.1 Map of Oman

Source: Ministry of Information

2.1.2 Tourism in Oman

While this thesis is about outbound tourism from Oman, a brief review of domestic and inbound tourism is pertinent for several reasons as it will provide a background to the study. First, an attractive domestic tourism industry may reduce some demand for outbound tourism. On the other hand, a growing Omani tourism industry cannot but help sensitise Omani nationals to the concept of travel for leisure as against travel for pilgrimage or business reasons. It may be argued that there is a synergistic relationship between the development of inbound and outbound tourism, for as tourists arrive, so citizens may also begin to wish to see where visitors come from, and to share in the global patterns of travel.

Certainly tourism is becoming an increasingly important industry sector for Oman, as it has a significant number of natural, cultural, and heritage assets. For instance, for its size, Oman has a high number of UNESCO-classified World Heritage Sites. These include Albaleed, site of the ancient city of Zafar; Bat, with its tombs dating back

3,000 years; the Bahla Fort; and, Ras Alhadd, home to the rare green turtle (Abdul-Ghani, 2006). In order to move away from an oil and gas-centric economy, which constitutes about 63% and 12% of the total budget revenue respectively, the tourism sector has been given a priority by the Omani government in its development policy (Abdul-Ghani, 2006: Al-masroori, 2006; Ministry of Information, 2009).

The Omani government has allocated around 15 sites for tourism development, and it is estimated these will cost US$20 billion over 7 years as part of the Sultanate's plans to entice more visitors to visit Oman. Projects include the US$ 400 million Muscat Golf Course, the US$ 7 billion Blue City, the US$ 2 billion Salam Yiti resort by Dubai Holding, and the Murya resort project, planned by a unit of Egypt's Orascom Development Holding (Anonymous, 2009). Recently, in 2008 the Six Senses resort was opened in the Walayat of Daba in the Musandam peninsula. Located in Zighy Bay, it comprises 82 chalets and offers a range of services and facilities. In addition, Oman is currently engaged in a number of huge tourist projects including the construction of more than 12 five-star hotels over the next 4 years (Ministry of Information, 2009). Therefore, according to the World Travel and Tourism Council, the contribution of the tourism sector to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is expected to rise from 7.6% (OMR 1,676mn or US$4,359,9mn) in 2010 to 9.2% (OMR 2,930.0mn or US$7,620.2mn) by 2020. Real GDP growth for the tourism sector in Oman is expected to be 6.1% in 2010 and to average 5.6% per annum over the coming 10 years (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2010).

Regarding employment, the tourism industry is expected to create 115,000 jobs in Oman by 2014 (11.8% of total employment) (Abdul-Ghani, 2006). According to the Ministry of National Economy, in 2011 the number of employees in hotels stood at 9,481, with Omani people constituting around 41% of total employees in hotels. Likewise, there are 7,690 workers in the country's airline companies, of which 59% are Omanis. In addition 1,596 employees are working in travel agencies 47% of whom are Omanis. Restaurants offer jobs to 1,585 of whom 38% are Omanis (Haque, 2010).

2.1.3 A Profile of Oman's Visitors

Table 2.1 shows that Oman attracted around 1,587,000 foreign visitors in 2009; of these, 53% came from the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) states, compared with 1,101,000 foreign visitors in 2005, where the visitors from Gulf Cooperation Council states constituted around 56% of the total visitors (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). For instance, Muscat Festival held from 19th January to 12th February in 2009 attracted around two million domestic and foreign visitors, and created numerous jobs for young Omanis, including some 700 temporary posts and 400 opportunities (Ministry of Information, 2009).

Table 2.1 Inbound Tourists by Nationality (2005-2009)

Year	Omani	G.C.C	Other Arabs	Asian	European	Others	Total
2005	31,249	613,366	32,642	140,602	219,711	63,811	1,101,382
%	2.8	55.7	3.0	12.8	19.9	5.8	100
2006	38,998	807,403	38,490	165,794	259,077	75,244	1,385,007
%	2.8	58.3	2.8	12.0	18.7	5.4	100
2007	37,154	779,010	38,829	167,253	261,357	75,907	1,359,509
%	2.7	57.3	2.9	12.3	19.2	5.6	100
2008	57,347	856,379	75,354	294,726	284,192	82,705	1,614,703
%	3.6	53.0	4.7	18.3	15.4	5.1	100
2009	52,274	841,402	75,786	249,124	269,524	98,869	1,586,979
%	3.3	53.0	4.8	15.7	17.0	6.2	100

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Tourism, 2010

Figures show that tourists stayed for 1,807,623 nights in 2011, compared with 1,663,750 nights in 2010, which represents about 8% real growth in the number of nights. In the same context, the revenues of hotels during 2011 were about O.R 153,881,000 compared with around O.R 156,730,000 in 2010 (Ministry of National Economy, 2012). As is indicated in Table 2.2, the total number of operating hotels and motels had reached 235 by the end of 2011, including 11,779 rooms and 18,654 beds, with a 43% room occupancy ratio, compared with 226 hotels and motels in 2010, including 11,183 rooms and 17,307 beds, with a 51% room occupancy ratio (Ministry of National Economy, 2012). According to the Ministry of Tourism, the number of hotels rooms in Oman is expected to touch 26,492 by 2015 rising from 11,183 in 2010 (Haque, 2010).

Table 2.2 General Indicators of Hotels Activity (2006-2008)

Items	2009	2010	2011
No. of Hotels	219	226	235
No. of Rooms	10,550	11,183	11,779
No. of Beds	16,426	17,307	18,654
No. of Guests	1,813,579	1,631,254	1,678,359
No. of Nights	2,028,314	1,663,750	1,807,623
Rooms Occupancy Ratio %	49	51	43
Revenues (000) OMR	162,557	156,730	153,881

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of National Economy, 2012

2.1.4 A profile of Omani Outbound Tourists

Just as inbound tourism has grown, so outbound tourism has more than kept pace with it. As shown in Table 2.3, the total number of Omani outbound tourists during 2005, 2006, and 2007 was 1,427,668, 1,600,128, and 1,847,728 respectively. It can be seen that the total number of Omani outbound tourists has grown gradually during these years, with around 29.5% real growth from 2005 to 2007. On the other hand, as a result of the world financial and economic crisis in mid-2008, the total number of Omani outbound tourists decreased relatively in 2008 and 2009 to 1,771,268 and 1,438,413 respectively, with about a 22% decline from 2007 to 2009 (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). However, owing to: (1) the decrease in inflation rates in Oman from 12.4% in December 2008 to 6.2% in March 2009 and 4.9% in April 2009; (2) strong

competition among airline and travel companies to attract new travellers; and, (3) new international routes launched by Oman Air to Europe and East of Asia, meaning the total number of Omani outbound tourists increased during 2010 (Ministry of Information, 2010).

Table 2.3 Omani Outbound Market Development (2005-2009)

Year	Total number of Omani tourists
2005	1,427,668
2006	1,600,128
% growth	12%
2007	1,847,728
% growth	15%
2008	1,771,268
% growth	-19%
2009	1,438,423
% growth	-19%

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Tourism, 2010

In the field of tourism marketing, the Omani tourism market has recently become a target for the UAE's tourism industry. For example, recently released statistics show that Sharjah (in the UAE) received around 135,334 Omani tourists in 2012 compared with 54,794 in 2011, which represents around 147% real growth. Therefore, Omani tourists registered the strongest growth among Sharjah's visitor numbers in 2012 ("Sharjah eyes GCC with tourism road shows", 2013). In the same context, around 28,523 Omani tourists visited Dubai in 2012, which represents 27% growth when compared with 2011 ("Exceptional package offered for Omani tourists", 2013). Thus, as part of Sharjah's marketing strategies, a new tourism marketing campaign was launched in Muscat in 2013 in order to boost the inflow of Omani visitors ("Sharjah is targeting Oman tourism market", 2013).

The tourism industry contributes £115 billion to the UK's GDP, and provides jobs for around 2.6 million people. In 2012, the UK enjoyed a record year when £18.6bn was injected into the economy from inbound tourists, £1.2 billion of which came from the

GCC countries ("VisitBritain extends its reach to new GCC markets", 2013). Therefore, as part of its 2020 strategy, Britain launched an ambitious tourism marketing campaign in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries in order to attract more visitors from this region. According to VisitBritain's regional manager (Asia-Pacific and Middle East), in order to expand its reach into GCC countries, the campaign would adopt a city-by-city approach to be active in all the region's countries, including Oman ("Destination Britain: targeting Gulf tourists", 2013).

Therefore, in order to promote tourist destinations to Omanis effectively, there is a real need to examine Omani tourists' travel motivations, their perceived constraints, their participation in travel and leisure, their use of negotiation strategies to overcome constraints and the impact of Islamic teachings on their destination choice and leisure participation. Doing so will enable destination marketers to obtain a clearer understanding of their customers and, therefore, enhance their abilities to tailor and develop their tourism products and services to meet the expectations of their customers.

2.2 Travel Motivations

2.2.1 Motivations

In the introduction it was stated that there is a lack of research related to travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists. While such a deficiency, of itself, does not signify either need or importance, the data noted in the previous section indicates an outbound market of some 2 million Omanis about whom relatively little is known. Therefore, the remainder of this chapter provides a detailed review and discussion of previous research into travel motivation. First, the concept of motivation is identified and discussed. Secondly, the theory of push and pull travel motivation is presented and discussed. Thirdly, travel motivations, socio-demographic variables, and tourism marketing are reviewed and explained. Finally, extant research relevant to the study objectives focusing on travel motivation is discussed in detail.

2.2.2 Defining Motivation

The importance of understanding travel motivations has been summarised under three main categories. These are that: (1) understanding tourists' travel motivations will enable destination marketers to create better products and services; (2) satisfaction with tourism experiences is intrinsically connected with the initial motives of tourists; and, (3) identifying reasons behind choosing a specific destination will help destination marketers to better understand the tourist decision-making process (Crompton & McKay, 1997). In order to examine the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists, it is essential to clarify the concept of "motivation" and to place it in a tourism context.

Motivation, as a concept derived from psychology, has often been defined as an inner state (force) which stimulates individuals to practise certain types of action in order to satisfy their internal socio-psychological needs and to respond to external factors that surround them (Murray, 1964; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Tschapka, 2006; Kim, 2007; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009). Travel motivations also refer to a set of needs that influence participation in tourist activities, and relate to something that is lacking which results in travel as a response (Prebensen & Kleiven, 2006; Schofield & Thompson, 2007). In the same context, motivation has been defined by Iso-Ahola (1982) as "an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour, implying a clear motivation-behaviour relationship" (p. 130). These definitions introduce the idea that motivation directs individuals' behaviour and also determines the direction of this behaviour. Similarly, motivation has been viewed as the state of need or a condition that drives individuals to behave in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction (Moutinho, 1987; Mill & Morrison, 1985; Jang & Cai, 2002; Moutinho, 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Jang & Wu, 2006; Correia 2007). This definition emphasises that the behaviour of individuals is subject to the desire to bring satisfaction. Therefore, according to this definition, tourists travel because they believe that their desires will be satisfied when they go on vacations or trips (Zhang, 2009). In this respect, it is very important to highlight that the selection of a certain holiday destination means a

desire for some kind of benefit (bringing satisfaction) (Nicolau & Mas, 2006). Moutinho (1987) described motivations as "a driving force to reduce a state of tension and it may stem from physiological or psychological needs" (p.16). According to this definition, these internal needs and the resulting tension push individuals to behave to reduce the tension and, therefore, satisfy physiological or psychological needs (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Huang and Hsu (2009) suggested that motivation consists of interaction between motive and situation leading to action. This definition highlights that the behaviour of individuals is determined by interaction between their motives and the situations with which they are dealing. In this regard, Kim (2007) suggested that motivation is considered a starting point or cornerstone for all actions, thus making it a very important variable to understand and explain tourist behaviour within a tourism context.

Accordingly, tourist motivation has been defined as the combination of needs and desires that influence the tendency to travel in order to get away from the ordinary environment (Meng, Tepanon, & Uysal, 2008). Likewise, Moutinho (1987) stated that travel motivations are greatly determined by social factors and are related to the need for optimal arousal, stability, and novelty. He also suggested holiday travel eases tension created by daily life, thus positioning it as a strong underlying element explaining desires and expectations regarding a vacation. He argued 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)

These definitions clearly indicate that knowing people's travel motivations represents a cornerstone in understanding the process of tourism decision-making. The theory of push and pull travel motivation provides a comprehensive insight into the role of motivations in travel decision-making.

2.2.3 The Theory of Push and Pull Travel Motivation

The push and pull theory has been generally accepted as: (1) a useful framework for explaining travel motivations; and, (2) acceptable theory that can be applied to populations in non-Western cultures (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Gossens, 2000; Kim, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Huang & Hsu, 2005; Hsu, Cai, & Wong, 2007; Kao, Patterson, Scott, & Li, 2008). In the same context, Rittichainuwat (2008) pointed out that push and pull travel motivations play a critical role for tourists in determining when and where to travel. This concept of push and pull travel motivations is based on the idea that tourists go on holiday because there is a need to satisfy their physical and social needs. This need pushes them away from home (push factors), and at the same time, attractive attributes of the destination pull them towards the destination (pull factors) (Mehmetoglu, Dann & Larsen, 2001; Sellick, 2004; Correia et al., 2007; Kim, a 2007; Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Yun & Lehto, 2009).

However, while the theory is based on the idea that two major factors motivate tourists to travel: push factors (internal forces) and pull factors (external forces), that is only where the explanations begin (Crompton, 1979; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Lee, O'Leary, Lee, & Morrison, 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Jang & Wu, 2006; Kim, 2007). In addition, there exists the interaction between the internal push factors which represent socio-psychological motives, and external pull factors that embody destination attributes, and it is this interaction that plays a pivotal role in the tourism decision-making process. In other words, tourists take holidays 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 the destination (Mehmetoglu et al.,2001; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Sellick, 2004; Correia et al., 2007; Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Sangpikul, 2008; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongkhonvanit, 2008; Janget al.2009).

Push factors have, therefore, been useful for explaining the desire to take a holiday, while pull factors have explained the choice of destination (Goossens, 2000; Jang &

Cai, 2002; Klenosky, 2002). Accordingly, in order to attract visitors, all destinations around the world are trying to offer a diversity of products and services which may satisfy visitors' increasingly sophisticated needs and, at the same time, entice them to visit the destination offered (Kim, Borges, & Ghon, 2006; Kim, 2007; Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009).

Travel motivations have been empirically classified by Crompton (1979) into nine motivations for travel. Seven of these were categorised 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 factors categorised as cultural (pull) factors (novelty and education). In this respect, travel motivations have been divided according to the following typology by McIntosh and Goeldner (1984): (1) physical, such as relaxation, and participation in sport activities; (2) cultural, such as discovering new geographical and historical areas, and visiting museums; (3) interpersonal, such as socialising and meeting new people, and strengthening relationships with family and friends; and (4) prestige, such as self-esteem and self-actualisation, and talking about the journey.

Uysal and Jurowski (1994) also divided 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 travellers' perceptions and expectations (novelty, shopping, benefit expectations, and marketing image). Similarly, according to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999), the motivators in tourism and the wider field of leisure can be outlined as follows: physical (relaxation, exercise and health, sun tan, and sex), cultural (sightseeing, and experiencing new cultures), status (exclusivity, fashionability, obtaining a good deal, and ostentatious spending opportunities), personal development (increased knowledge, and learning new skills), emotional (nostalgia, romance, adventure, escapism, and spiritual

fulfilment), and personal (visiting friends and relatives, making new friends, satisfying others, and searching for economy if on a very limited income). Regarding destination attributes, Reisinger and Mavondo (2002) stated that accessibility, amenities, accommodation, attractions, and activities are the major attributes of the tourism destination which differentiate one destination from other destinations.

In order to obtain a deeper understanding of travel motivations, many studies have been conducted to find the relationship between push and pull motivations. All these studies are based on the idea that the relationship between push and pull motivations function dependently rather than independently (Pyo, Mihalik, & Uysal, 1989; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Kim & Lee, 2002; Klenosky, 2003; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009). These studies were aimed at providing knowledge to help destination marketers and travel agents to match the attributes of their destinations (pull factors) with the socio-psychological motivations of potential visitors (push factors) (Liu, 2008; Zhange, 2009). In this context, Crompton (1979) argues that push factors may be useful not only in explaining why people travel abroad, but also because they have "directive potential" to direct them toward a particular destination. Dann (1981) states that destination attributes both respond to and reinforce the influence of push motivations and, therefore, lead to action (travel). Consequently, it is essential to identify both push and pull travel motivations, and to understand the relationship between them in order to help destination marketers to determine the most successful coupling of push and pull factors as tourism product bundles (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). Empirically, Uysal and Jurowski (1994), Baloglu and Uysal (1996), Kim and Lee (2002), Bogari, Crowther, and Marr (2004) found a significant correlation between push and pull motivations and indicated that a reciprocal relationship did exist between them. Additionally, they also concluded that in order to attract more visitors, destination marketers must build and design their marketing strategies on an extensive understanding of both the push and pull motivations of targeted visitors.

2.2.4 Travel Motivations and Sociodemographic Variables

A review of pertinent literature reveals that many studies have indicated that socio-demographic variables have a significant influence on tourist behaviour in general, and travel motivation in particular (Mattila, Apostolopoulos, Sonmez, Uu, & Sasidharan, 2001; Jang & Cai, 2002; Collins & Tisdell, 2002; Young, 2003; Mottiar & Quinn, 2004; Chipkin, 2005; Jang & Wu, 2006; Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006; Lee, Graefe, & Li, 2007; Sangpikul, 2008; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009).

The influence of demographic and socioeconomic variables on travel behaviour is generally acknowledged. For instance, regarding gender differences, the degree of these differences could differ from one society to another (Carr, 1999; Frew & Shaw, 1999; Kim, Lehto, & Morrison 2007; Meng, Quanxin, Jinchuan, & Jifu, 2008). In Western countries, the behaviour of young men and women is observed to be quite similar, especially in terms of sporting activities (Carr, 1999).

Regarding differences between the travel motivations of male and female students, Hallab, Price and Fournier (2006) explored travel motivations and socio-demographic characteristics of hospitality management students in Switzerland. The results of this study revealed that hospitality management students attached a high level of importance to attributes such as cost/price, security, scenery, accessibility, the food and beverage experience, the lodging experience, and nightlife and entertainment facilities in a tourist destination. They also revealed that male students valued nightlife, entertainment, and casinos more than did female students. On the other hand, female students valued the attribute of an unfamiliar environment more. When it comes to age, it was revealed that those in the 22 to 29 year-old category also valued the attribute of an unfamiliar environment more than their older counterparts did.

In the same context, Cai and Combrink (2000) found female and male segments of Japanese outbound tourists are significantly differentiated in 15 out of 22 factors relating to travel attitudes and motivations. The results of their study indicated that

there were more female Japanese travelling abroad in the two younger age groups of 18-24 and 25-34 (54-56%) than for their male counterparts. They also found that female Japanese expressed a stronger need for "life-long learning", and "escape and relaxation". On the other hand, male Japanese expressed a stronger need for "adventure". In terms of pull motivations, the study found that "natural environment and safety", "history and art", and "learning opportunities" were the most important pull factors for all Japanese travellers. However, "natural environment and safety" and "history and art" were more important for the Japanese female travellers than for males, while "learning opportunities" were more attractive to the men than to the women.

Schofield and Thompson (2007) examined visitor motivation for attending the 2005 Naadam Festival in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. They found motivation varied on the basis of socio-demographic variables such as place of residence, domestic and international tourists, gender, and age. The sports and family-orientation variables are significantly more important for the domestic visitor segment than for international visitors, while the cultural aspects of the festival are significantly more important for the international visitor segment. The sporting and competitive elements of the festival are significantly more important for males than for females, whereas female visitors rate the opportunity to meet people from all over the world significantly higher than do male visitors. Age is also a significant variable influencing visitor motivation with respect to 14 (51.8%) of the attributes identified in their study.

For their part, McGehee, Loker-Murphy, and Uysal (1996) found that cultural events, opportunities for family bonding, and prestige were the most important motivations for Australian women to travel, while Australian men were more likely to be motivated by sport events and adventure experience. Further, in terms of the degree of strength of motivations, when Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip, and Green (2008) compared locals, casual attendees, and those who had travelled specifically to attend specific sporting events about their fan and leisure motivations, and self-identification, their results revealed that women had higher fan and leisure motivation than men. They also suggested that attendees who had travelled specifically to attend

the sporting event have a slightly higher fan motivation than locals and casual attendees.

In terms of the relationship between nationality and travel motivations, Rittichainuwat (2008) compared Thai and Scandinavian tourists on their travel motivations to visit the disaster-hit beach resort of Phuket, Thailand. She revealed that curiosity about the outcome of the tsunami, a desire to help local people, and safety were the most important travel motivations for both Thai (domestic) and Scandinavian (international) tourists. In terms of gender and age, she found that women were more motivated by safety and a desire to help others than men were and that young tourists were the most curious regarding thanatourism.

In a similar study, Jonsson and Devonish (2008) examined the travel motivations of those from different countries travelling to Barbados, and examined differences in the motivations between male and female tourists, and differences in the motivation among different age groups. The study found that the most important motivations to visit Barbados were "relaxation" followed by "pleasure-seeking". The results of the study also revealed the following: Canadian tourists were more likely to have physical motivations to travel compared with American (U.S.), British, and other tourists; Canadian tourists also had significantly stronger cultural motivations to travel compared with other nationalities; the British tourists had a stronger motivation to travel to Barbados based on the overall need for relaxation than did other tourists from the Caribbean; gender did not significantly influence tourist motivations to visit Barbados; and, the age of a tourist had a significant effect on only cultural and relaxation-based motivations.

In the same context, Kim and Jogaratnam (2002) compared the travel motivations of both Asian and domestic college students in three universities in the U.S. Midwest. The study found that the mean score of Asian students was higher than that of domestic students for the "knowledge" factors, and both had identical mean scores for the "leisure" factors. However, domestic college students had higher mean scores than Asian college students for the factors labelled "sports", "entertainment", "relax", "family", and "travel bragging".

In terms of life cycle, Carr (2006) compared adolescents and their parents regarding their holiday motivations and desires. The study found that while both groups are primarily motivated to take holidays by a desire to get away from responsibilities and to relax, the parents showed a greater desire to take cultural, heritage- or educational-oriented holidays compared with the adolescents who are more concerned with having fun and engaging in physical activities.

While these studies are obviously undertaken in contexts different to that of Oman, they clearly indicate that socio-demographic variables can potentially play a role in determining travel motivations. As a society, Oman is also part of a modern world where intergenerational differences and expectations differ, and where too income, education, and cultural divisions exist. Equally, as an Islamic society, it might be expected that gender differences will also be found. Given these reasons alone, it seemed evident that a need exists to assess the role that socio-demographics might play in determining outbound Omani tourism.

2.2.5 Tourism Marketing

According to the American Marketing Association, marketing can be defined simply as "finding a customer need and filling it" (Vellas & Becherel, 1999, p. 5). Therefore, identifying what existing and potential customers want and what they need is a top priority in marketing strategies in order to satisfy these requirements effectively and profitably. However, Hudson (2008) argued that as a result of limited marketing budgets, most tourism and hospitality organisations do not have a perfect picture of their customers' behaviour, especially regarding their motivations, culture, social class, age, and gender. Thus, researching consumer motivations and buying processes will help tourism and hospitality marketers and managers to obtain detailed and necessary information to remain competitive. The World Tourism Organization (1997) claimed that it is important for travel marketers to understand the motivational differences (push and pull factors) amongst leisure travellers. In this context, the current study seeks to specifically identify and understand the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists (travel motivations, travel and leisure constraints, travel and leisure negotiation strategies), and the impact of the Islamic religion on their

destination choice and leisure participation. Regarding tourism marketing, it can, therefore, be contended that the failure to fully recognise and understand the differences among tourists regarding their travel behaviour in general, and their travel motivation in particular, leads to the failure of marketing strategies based on an over-dependence on socio-demographic perspectives such as age and gender when designing and marketing tourist products. For example, the dominance of male patterns in marketing strategies could lead to gender-blind marketing and consumer dissatisfaction (Schifield & Thompson, 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008). Therefore, owing to the fact that both men and women have different needs and wants, motivations for travel and purposes for travel, there is a real need to take the gendered perspective into account when marketing tourism products. This consideration is necessary in order to satisfy the needs and wants of both genders and to make marketing strategies more effective (Nozawa, 1994). In the same context, Chipkin (2005) suggested that it is vital for marketers to understand women's motivations in order to sell their tourism product effectively. This understanding is especially important in cultures such as the Islamic culture where specific gendered roles have become ensconced into traditional approaches to life.

In general, several studies have revealed that tourists' travel motivations differ according to socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, occupation, and level of education (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004; Zhang, 2009; Mohsin & Alsawafi, 2011), and that all must simultaneously be taken into account. However, this revelation does not necessarily mean that socio-demographic features can be treated simply as proxies for attitudinal measurement. Therefore, tourism marketing strategies in general, and travel and leisure activities in particular, must be designed to meet the diversity in needs and wants that exists among tourists (Nozawa, 1994). Hence, as an attempt to provide accurate information about differences among Omani outbound tourists that can be used to enhance the tourism marketing strategies, one of the major objectives of this study is to assess just how important socio-demographic variables are when considering the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists.

2.2.6 Previous Studies Using the Theory of Push and Pull Travel Motivation

In order to fully understand the theory of push and pull travel motivations, it is necessary to examine previous empirical research that used the push and pull theoretical framework. It must be noted that these studies are firstly described in terms of their authors, goals, targeted samples, and main results. Then, a fuller analysis is provided through highlighting the similarities and differences between these studies and the current study, and an indication of how the present study benefitted from them.

Jang and Cai (2002) identified push and pull factors of motivation associated with British outbound pleasure travellers and examined key motivational factors thought to have significant effects on destination choice. Their study found six push motivations and five pull motivations. "Knowledge seeking" and "cleanliness and safety" were perceived as the most important push and pull motivations respectively. The study also revealed that the British tend to visit the U.S. for "fun and excitement" and "outdoor activities", to visit Oceania for "family and friend togetherness", and to visit Asia to seek a "novel experience".

Kim, Lee, and Klenosky (2003) examined travel motivations of visitors to National Parks in Korea. A survey instrument was designed to identify the most important reasons for visiting the selected parks (push motivations), and to evaluate how well that park performed on a selected set of attributes (pull motivations). The study found four push factor domains: (1) family togetherness and study, (2) appreciating natural resources and health, (3) escaping from everyday routine, and, (4) adventure and building friendship. Regarding pull factor domains, the study identified three pull factor domains: (1) key tourist resources, (2) information and convenience of facilities, and, (3) accessibility and transportation.

Bogari, Crowther, and Marr (2004) studied both push and pull motivation for domestic tourism and the relationship between the two motivations for Saudi tourists. The results indicated that cultural values, convenience of facilities, family

togetherness, social needs, knowledge, economic factors, interest, relaxation, and utilitarian needs were the most important push motivations, while religious facilities, safety, budget, leisure, upscale facilities, historical and cultural resources, activities, beach sporting activities, and nature and the outdoor were the most important pull motivations as perceived by Saudi tourists.

A similar study was that of Jang and Wu (2006) who identified five push and three pull motivation factors for Taiwanese seniors. Applying the model of push and pull travel motivations, the study identified "knowledge-seeking", "self-esteem", "ego-enhancement", "relaxation" and "socialisation" as respectively the most important push motivations. The study also found that "cleanliness and safety", "facilities, events, and cost", and "natural and historical sights" were the most important pull motivations respectively.

For their part, Correia, Valle, and Moco (2007) found that the Portuguese tourist decision processes, in terms of choice of tourist destinations, were affected by internal motivations (push motives) and external motivations (pull motives). Push motives consist of three types of internal motivations: (1) knowledge, which refers to the desire to increase knowledge, and the desire to know about different cultures and lifestyles; (2) leisure, which is related to the need to relieve stress, and to escape from routine; and, (3) socialisation, which represents a desire to go to new places, talk with friends about the trip, and develop close friendships. Pull motives included three main external motivations: (1) facilities in potential destinations, such as weather, lodging, beaches, and hospitality; (2) core attractions, referring to the standard of living, different ethnicities, distance, and shopping facilities; and, (3) landscape features, which represent the natural environment, and cultural attractions.

Sangpikul (2008) explored the travel motivation of Japanese senior travellers to Thailand. The study found that the three significant push factors were labelled "novelty and knowledge seeking", " rest and relaxation" and "ego-enhancement", while the four significant pull factors were "cultural and historical attractions", "travel arrangements and facilities", "shopping and leisure activities", and "safety and cleanliness. Among them, "novelty and knowledge-seeking" and "cultural and

historical attractions" are regarded as the most important push and pull factors respectively.

One study that used both push and pull factors was that of Kao, Patterson, Scott, and Li (2008) who explored the travel motivations of Taiwanese visitors to Australia. They used a push and pull approach to find 17 push motivations and 18 pull motivations for travel. Of those, "travel around the world", "having a comfortable trip", "escape and meet new people", and "prestige" were found to be the most important push factors, while "sunshine and scenery", "a place to go for good value", "famous tourist attractions", and "a place for family travelling" were regarded as the most attractive pull factors for Taiwanese tourists.

Zhang (2009) identified the travel motivations of Chinese outbound pleasure travellers. The study found that "spending time with family and friends" is the main push motivation for Chinese to take overseas holidays, followed by "broadening my horizons", "seeing something different", "releasing work/study pressure", and "sharing travel experience with friends". In terms of pull motivations, the study indicated that "outstanding natural scenery", "feel safe in destination", "comfort and clean accommodations", "the best deal I could get", and "availability of comprehensive tourist information" were the most important pull motivations, respectively. The results showed there was no significant difference between males and females. However, some significant differences were revealed for both push and pull motivations across certain demographic variables, such as age, marital status, income, educational level, and occupation.

One study conducted in an Omani context was that of Alsawafi (2010), who investigated travel motivations of Omani students who were studying at the Colleges of Applied Sciences. The study adopted the theory of push and pull travel motivations. A self-completion survey was used to collect data regarding the students' travel motivations. The result indicated that the three most important push motivations for Omani students to travel abroad were: "to be mentally refreshed", followed by "to learn something new or increase my knowledge", and "to spend my time without worrying about my study". Regarding pull motivations, the study revealed that pull factors such as "safety and security at the destination even when

travelling alone", "natural attractions (sea, beach, coral, mountain, lakes, rivers, streams, and wildlife)", and "availability of mosques (places of worship)" are regarded as the three most attractive pull motivations respectively for Omani students choosing a specific destination. Furthermore, in general, results indicated that gender, region, and students' course of study did have a significant impact on some of the travel motivations of Omani students.

In summary, a review of the previous studies emphasises that: (1) the theory of push and pull travel motivation is widely applied to identify and explain the travel motivation of tourists; (2) the theory of push and pull travel motivation have been applied to the populations in Western cultures as well as non-Western cultures; (3) socio-demographic variables have a significant influence on travel motivations; (4) travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists have not yet been widely researched using the push and pull travel motivations theory; (5) both in-depth interviews and self-completion methods have been applied to collect data about the travel motivation of tourists; (6) this issue is still attracting the attention of researchers; and, (7) only two studies were found that were conducted in an Arabic environment. These were the studies conducted by Bogari, Crowther, and Marr (2004), who focused on the domestic tourism market in Saudi Arabia, and Alsawafi (2010), which focused on the college students travel market in Oman. Finally, this study will benefit from previous studies in three ways: (a) in developing research instruments (in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires); (b) selecting the appropriate statistical methods; and, (c) in interpreting and presenting the results of the study.

2.2.7 Section Summary

Collins and Tisdell (2002) have suggested that the demand for travel can be influenced by demographic and socioeconomic variables such as ethnic identity, nationality, age, region, family size, gender, marital status, religion, income, occupation, and educational level. Therefore, many studies have been carried out to examine the influence of these variables on travel behaviour in general and travel motivations in particular (Frew & Shaw, 1999; Carr, 1999; Mattila, Apostolopoulos, Sonmez, Yu, & Sasidharan, 2001; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002;

Mottiar & Quinn, 2004; Young, 2003; Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006; Tschapka, 2006; Jang & Wu, 2006; Hallab, Price, & Fournier, 2006; Kim, 2007; Kim et al., 2007; Meng, Quanxin, Jinchuan, & Jifu, 2008; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongkhonvanit, 2008; Sangpikul, 2008; Hoye & Lillis, 2008; Dotson, Clark, & Dave, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009).

These studies were aimed at providing knowledge to explain tourists' behaviour in terms of their decision-making process, and to identify basic and unique wants, needs, characteristics, and travel motivations of each market segment such as the senior market segment, the college market segment, and solo travellers market segment (Fodness, 1994; Oh et al., 1995; Sangpikul, 2008; Kim, 2007; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008). This knowledge enables tourism providers and tourism marketers, to realise the origins of psychological differences among these market segments; consequently, they can satisfy the different market segments by meeting their unique desires, travel motivations, and aspirations (Young, 2003; Chipkin, 2005; Kim et al., 2007; Sangpikul, 2008; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008).

This current study stems from the notion that motivation is a starting point for studying tourist behaviour and obtaining a better understanding of travel choice (Fodness, 1994; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Kimet al., 2006; Kim, 2007; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008). Moreover, many researchers have argued that travel motivations are multiple and dynamic from one person to another and from one market segment to another or one destination to another (Kim, 2007; Correia et al., 2007; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Meng & Uysal, 2008). In addition, according to Bogare et al. (2004), and Awaritefe (2004), travel motivations in developing countries and of those from Islamic cultures have received scant attention from researchers. Thus, identifying the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists will at least partly address this gap in the existing literature, and benefit tourism marketers in developing their tourism product, service, promotion, and segmentation strategies to meet the special needs and wants of the Omani travel market.

Based on the review of the above literature, the following propositions are formulated to identify the Omani outbound tourists market:

Proposition 1: The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Omani outbound tourists market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions.

Proposition 2: Socio-demographic variables have an influence on push and pull travel motivations.

2.3 Section Three:Market Segmentation

2.3.1 Introduction

This study attempts to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations. Therefore, in order to obtain further understanding about the concept of "market segmentation", this section will shed light on its definitions, objectives, and techniques (priori and posteriori approaches). Furthermore, this section will analyse previous studies using travel motivations as a segmentation base. Finally, the objective and proposition of this study regarding segmenting Omani outbound tourists will also be discussed in this section.

2.3.2 Market Segmentation

In tourism studies, market segmentation has been acknowledged as a useful tool in developing appropriate marketing strategies and target marketing (Mok & Iverson, 2000; McKercher, 2002; Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Park & Yoon, 2009). The main objective of market segmentation can be inferred from its definition. Dibb, Simkin, and Pride (1994) defined market segmentation as "the process of dividing a total market into groups of people with relatively similar product needs, for the purpose of designing a marketing mix that precisely matches the needs of individuals in a segment" (as cited in Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999, p. 94). Likewise, Middleton and Clarke (2001) define market segmentation as the process of dividing a total market into small groups for

marketing purposes. Thus, the distinguishing travel behaviours of each market segment have assisted travel marketers to create, design, and develop appropriate marketing strategies based on clear understandings of the unique needs, wants, motivations, aspirations, and characters of each market segment (Jang, Morrison, & O'Leary, 2002; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006; Kim et al., 2006; Kim, 2007; Hsu et al., 2009).

Furthermore, Kotler (1999) states that market segmentation is the subdivision of a market into distinct subsets of customers based on their geographical, socio-demographic, psychographic or behavioural characteristics, and, therefore, that segmentation enables travel marketers to specifically target particular smaller markets and design their tourist products and services to meet their absolutely unique needs and wants. The major bases for market segmentation consist of demography, geography, lifestyle, personality, and benefits sought (Park & Yoon, 2009).

According to Kim and Jogaratnam (2003), two principal segmentation approaches have been applied in tourism research to obtain a detailed understanding of parts of the tourism market in order to enhance the opportunities of targeting marketing activities towards attractive sub-markets: the *a priori* approach (common sense), and the *a posteriori* approach (data-driven). The *a priori* approach is based on preselected variables which have been chosen by researchers. These variables are applied as segmentation criteria in order to segment a heterogeneous market into smaller homogeneous submarkets such as by socio-demographic characteristics, travel expenditures, trip types, or type of tour package used (Mok & Iverson, 2000; McKercher, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Sirakaya, Uysal, & Yoshioka, 2003; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009). On the other hand, market segmentation using the *a posteriori* approach requires the analysis of the attributes-related data. This approach is generally applied when researchers have no prior knowledge of the various groups. The variables used in this approach to segment respondents are less tangible consumer characteristics such as motivations, attitudes, benefits, and preferences (Mok & Iverson, 2000; McKercher, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Sirakaya et al., 2003; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009).

According to Bigné, Gnoth, and Andreu (2008), both segmentation approaches have been recently applied in tourism research. They also argue that no one segmentation approach suits all purposes and, therefore, that the choice of segmentation approach must be meaningful for the problem at hand as well as being able to identify sizeable and distinguishable segments. In the same context, Johns and Gyimothy argued that socioeconomic variables are not sufficient to predict purchasing behaviour, because they are not directly related to buying intentions. Thus, the solution lies in applying both segmentation approaches in order to overcome the weaknesses in each approach, and to define submarkets (Lang & O'Leary, 1997; Sirakaya et al., 2003; Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Liu, 2008). Empirically, Sirakaya et al. (2003) state that when market segmentations are gained using the *a posteriori* approach, socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics are often used to gain the profile and labels for different market segments. In other words, Liu (2008) confirmed that "factors such as socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics need to be added to explain differences, which can make the results even more comprehensive" (p. 111).

According to Lang and O'Leary (1997), activities, motivations, and product preference have been the most popular and common segmentation bases for the travel and tourism industry due to the fact that each of them can provide significant product-related or psychographic information to help in improving tourism products and promotion strategies for selected markets. Furthermore, segmenting markets through travel motivations is one of the most effective methods, and thus enables destination marketers to identify the strengths and opportunities of each market and assist in guaranteeing their satisfaction (Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Lee, Lee, & Wicks, 2004; Yuan, Cai, Morrison, & Linton, 2005). Similarly, Bieger and Laesser (2002) pointed out that market segmentation by dividing tourists with homogeneous needs and motivations assists in defining quality perception, since it is necessary to align quality delivered to anticipated quality. Therefore, in order to help destination marketers to develop and design more appropriate marketing strategies that better satisfy Omani outbound tourists' needs and to attract them to visit their particular destinations, this study will attempt to segment Omani outbound tourists using a cluster analysis based

on their push-pull motivations. This approach aims to identify their characteristics by adopting the *a posteriori* approach.

2.3.3 *Previous Studies Using Travel Motivations as a Segmentation Base*

In order to deeply understand the concept of market segmentation, it is necessary to investigate previous empirical research which used segmentation approaches. It should be noted that these studies are first described in terms of their authors, goals, targeted samples, and main results. Then, a further analysis of these studies is provided through highlighting the similarities and differences between these studies and the current study, and an indication of how the present study benefitted from them.

A number of studies have been conducted using travel motivations as a segmentation base in travel and tourism. Cha, McCleary, and Uysal (1995) examined travel motivations of Japanese overseas travellers using a factor-cluster approach. They identified six motivational factors, namely: relaxation, knowledge, adventure, travel bragging, family, and sports. The results indicated that Japanese tourists put high emphasis on knowledge and adventure. On the basis of these six factors, Cha et al. (1995) identified three market segments using cluster analysis. Then, the authors classified the Japanese overseas travel market into novelty seekers, family and relaxation seekers, and sport seekers. The results showed that these segments differed on the basis of the age and education level of the respondents.

Baloglu and Uysal (1996) investigated the travel motivation of German overseas pleasure travellers using the interview method. Their study identified four segments of German overseas pleasure travellers: (1) sport/activity seekers, travellers who want to be active, competent, and participate in sports; (2) novelty seekers, travellers who give importance to such destination attributes as opportunity to increase knowledge, experiencing a culture different from their own, and undisturbed nature; (3) urban-life seekers, travellers who seek comfort and variety of attractions in an urban setting; and, (4) beach/resort seekers, whose main needs are escape and excitement; they are attracted to destinations which provide reliable weather, exotic environment, and

beaches. The results revealed each cluster has a unique profile and characteristics. For example, novelty seekers are generally middle-aged professionals and managers, couples living together, and high school and university graduates with high incomes.

Bieger and Laesser (2002) segmented the Swiss market. A cluster analysis was employed to identify groups of respondents based on a similar motivation structure. The authors identified four clusters: compulsory travel, cultural hedonism, family travel, and me too marketing. The results of the analysis revealed that all profile variables (gender, age, educational level, job profile, size of household, and household income) differed significantly between the clusters.

Another segmentation study was conducted by Sirakaya et al. (2003) who examined Japanese travellers to Turkey using travel motivations as part of travel behaviour descriptors. The study identified eight motivational factors which were labelled as follows: (1) love of nature, (2) enhancement of kinship, (3) experiencing culture, (4) living the resort lifestyle, (5) escape, (6) education in archaeology/history, (7) living the extravagant lifestyle, and (8) travel bragging. Accordingly, they identified two market segments using factor-cluster segmentation analysis. Based on the importance placed on motivation items, two distinct clusters emerged and were labelled escapers and seekers. The results revealed that the two clusters were statistically different from each other based on gender, age, and income variables as well as information sources.

Yuan, Cai, Morrison, and Linton (2005) investigated the segmentation of wine festival attendees on the basis of their motivations. The study found four dimensions labelled as: festival and escape, wine, socialisation, and family togetherness. Then, three distinct groups were identified using a factor-cluster approach: (1) wine focusers, (2) festivity seekers, and (3) hangers-on. Results revealed that the three clusters were significantly different in terms of annual household incomes.

Andreu, Kozak, Avci, and Cifter (2005) studied British tourists taking a summer holiday in two resorts (Fethiye and Marmaris), located in Mugla (Turkey). On the basis of multistep cluster analysis, five segments were found: (1) fuzzy tourists, who have strong motivation for enjoying tourist attractions; (2) active tourists, who

attribute importance to ease of access and enjoying tourist attractions, and involvement in active behaviour while taking holidays; (3) recreational-type tourists who seem to be interested in the diversity of the entertainment and cultural environment that Turkey offers; (4) escape tourists, who rate getting away and ease of access as very important motivations; and, finally the smallest segment, (5) relax-quiet tourists, who consider getting away to be of above average importance. The study found statistical differences between the socio-demographic and tourist behaviour variables of each group visiting Turkey in relation to gender, income, holiday, length of holiday, how far in advance the holiday was booked, and number of visits to Turkey.

Kim (2008) identified underlying motivational factors on national cultural festival-goers in Korea and classified distinct travel groups attending the festival. Factor analysis determined eight reliable motivational factors: escape, thrill and adventure, family togetherness, fun and curiosity, friendship, and achievement. Based on their motivations, cluster analysis suggested three heterogeneous travel groups: very passive seekers, passive seekers, and moderately active seekers. The study revealed that all eight factors were statistically significant across the three clusters.

More recently, Park and Yoon (2009) segmented tourists in rural areas in Korea based on their motivation. The study revealed six motivational factors which were labelled as follows: relaxation, socialisation, learning, family togetherness, novelty, and excitement. A factor-clustering method identified four distinct segments: family togetherness seeker, passive tourists, want-it-all seeker, and learning and excitement seeker. The results indicated that all clusters were found to be statistically significantly different with respect to rural tourists' socioeconomic characteristics and tourists' behavioural variables (educational level, income, preferred leisure activities, annual expenditure, number of visits to tourism villages, type of travel, and expenditure per person per day).

Smith and Costello (2009) segmented culinary event attendees on the basis of their push travel motivations. The study found three push motivational factors: food event,

event novelty, and socialisation. Using a factor-cluster approach, the study segmented them into two meaningful groups: (1) food focusers, those who were more motivated toward the food-related experience at the culinary event, and (2) event seekers, those who were not pushed to attend culinary events by motivations such as "food event". The two clusters were statistically different from each other based on gender, age, income, education level, and expenditure.

In summary, a review of previous studies using travel motivations as a segmentation base provides clear evidence that: (1) travel motivations represent a potentially useful basis on which to segment outbound tourists; (2) using factor and cluster analysis and regression are appropriate statistical methods for market segmentation; (3) using socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics is useful to gain the profile and labels for different market segments; and, (4) no study has been carried out to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations. Again it is suggested that the current study will benefit from previous studies in three ways: (a) in developing all research instruments (in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires); (b) in selecting the appropriate statistical methods; and, (c) in interpreting and presenting the results of the study.

Based on the theoretical foundation set out above, the following proposition concerning segmenting Omani outbound tourists has been generated:

Proposition 3: It is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations.

2.4 Section Four:Destination Choice

2.4.1 Introduction

Islam is the religion of a huge and increasing number of people around the world. There is evidence to argue that religious beliefs can affect the consumer behaviour in general and the travel choices in particular of Muslims (Morgan, 1987; Al-mossawi, 2002; Fam, Waller, & Erdogan, 2004; Muhamad, 2008). Choice of holiday destination is considered the main element in the decision-making process (Zhang,

2009). Thus, in order to identify the gap in this area, this section will discuss issues related to the following: the Islamic religion, the relationship between Islam and tourism, the process of decision-making in tourism, factors affecting the choice of a tourist destination, and the influence of religion on choice of a pleasure travel destination. Finally, the objective and proposition of this study concerning the influence of the Islamic religion on choice of a pleasure travel destination will also be provided in this section.

2.4.2 The Islamic Religion

The Islamic religion is one of the world's main religions as well as being the fastest growing. Islam has over 1.5 billion followers all over the world (Al-mossawi, 2002; Hashim, Murphy, & Hashim, 2007), and is increasing by 25 million per year (Essoo & Dibb, 2004). Religion has been defined by Dollahite (1998) as "a covenant faith community with teachings and narratives that enhance the search for the sacred and encourage morality" (p. 5). Likewise, Delener (1990) described religion as an integrated system of beliefs and practices in relation to sacred elements. From the perspective of the Qur'an, "Indeed, the religion in the sight of Allah (God) is Islam" (Qur'an 3:19). The Arabic word Islam derives from peace, submission and obedience (WAMY, 2010). According to the Islamic faith, Islam is a complete way of life as well as the complete acceptance of the teachings and guidance of God as revealed to His Prophet Mohammed. Therefore, a Muslim must derive his life-system from the teachings of Islamic law (Shari'ah) which comes from the Qur'an (the literal word of God, which He revealed to His Prophet Mohammed), from the Sunnah (the written sayings and behaviour of Prophet Mohammed), from Qiyas (deducing a new rule from a similar situation), and from Ijma (a consensus among scholars on certain issues) (Ibrahim, 1997; Al-mossawi, 2002; Arfaj, 2007; Henderson, 2007; Muhamad, 2008). In Islamic belief, there are five pillars of Islam (Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Al-utheimeen, 2010), namely: the declaration of faith (Sahada), prayers (Salat), fasting in the month of Ramadan (Saum), purifying tax (Zakat), and pilgrimage to Mecca (Hajj).

In general, any religion consists of a set of values, sacred objects, beliefs, rituals, prayers, norms, requirements and taboos (Fam et al., 2004). Islamic law (Sari'ah) is a code that directs, shapes, and governs the duties, values, attitudes, morals, and behaviour of all Muslims, collectively and individually, in all aspects of their lives (Fam et al., 2004).

2.4.3 Ibadhism in Oman

The Ibadhi sect (also known as the Ibāḍī sect or simply as the Ibāḍīs) constitutes one of the main branches of Islam. It is considered the oldest sect in Islam, having been founded 60 years after the death of the prophet Mohammad. The Ibadi sect is a moderate form of Islam distinct from the Sunni and Shī'ah sects (Muammar, 2007). It is the dominant form of Islam in Oman, and Ibāḍī Muslims make up the majority of the population in Oman (around 75%) (The World Factbook, 2013). They also live in the Nafūsah Mountains in Libya, in M'zab in Algeria, in East Africa (particularly Zanzibar), and on Djerba Island in Tunisia (Muammar, 1995).

Ali Yahya Muammar (1995) summarised their fundamental principles as follows: (a) having the Imamate (Arabic: إمامة Imāmah-leadership) is obligatory as an ordinance of God for command, interdiction, and practising justice; (b) the Ibāḍī Muslims depend on convocation and conviction, and never resort to violence except in defence of themselves; (c) they also believe that the "Caliphate" (from the Arabic خلافة or khilāfa)) is not restricted to Quraish, the family of the prophet Mohammad or Arabs, but on merit, whereas Sunni Muslims believe that the Caliphate must be chosen from the Quraish. In turn, Shī'ah Muslims believe that the Caliphate must be from the prophet's family; (d) it is unlawful to fight the righteous Imam (Islamic leadership position); but, (e) fighting an unjust Imam is permitted if it is believed that there is a high chance of success; and, (f) the Imam must be chosen through consultation and with the approval of the majority of influential people in the community.

The Ibadhi sect has, to a large extent, the same views regarding jurisprudence and contemporary issues as the Sunni and Shī'ah sects. In short, the judgments (fatwas)

regarding the relationship between Islam and tourism are significantly identical across these three sects.

In this context, it must be noted that owing to the fact that the population of Oman contains Muslims from the different Islamic sects (Ibadhi, Sunni and Shiah) the current study targets Omanis without any distinction of sect. Additionally the researcher addressed only general and uncontroversial issues among Muslims in Oman. In other words, the research instruments (in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires) do not contain issues that are controversial among Muslims in their contents such as doctrinal or unforeseen issues of dogma.

2.4.4 Halal (Lawful), Haram (Unlawful) and Mushbooh (Doubtful)

In Islamic law, activities are broadly classified as lawful (Halal) or unlawful (Haram), as decreed by God. In other words, nothing is prohibited in Islam except what is specifically forbidden in the Holy Qur'an or in clearly authenticated, explicit Sunnah (practice or saying) of the Prophet Mohammed (Al-mossawi, 2002). For instance, Muslim women are not traditionally allowed to travel outside their neighbourhood without having a companion drawn from their male relatives such as husband, son, brother, father, or uncle, although in practice (as noted in section 1.1.7, females today are permitted to travel overseas for purposes of education, although preferably accompanied at least by a female friend). Similarly, Muslim men and women alike 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 (Fam et al., 2004).

It is necessary here to clarify another term which also is used describe the status of some activities and foods in Islam: that is, "Mushbooh". Mushbooh is an Arabic word which means "doubtful" or "suspected" (Zakaria, 2008; Teach Islam, 2013). The term "Mushbooh" has been applied by Muslims to describe the status of particular activities or products where it is not known exactly if they are lawful or unlawful such as foods containing gelatine, enzymes, or emulsifiers. However, Muslims are strongly recommended to avoid participating in activities or consuming food and

drink that are classified as "doubtful" (Ibrahim & Johnson-Davies, 1976; Zakaria, 2008; Islamweb, 2013). One implication of this advice is that travel overseas rarely poses issues of diet for Muslims as, while in the West the term "halal" has come to be associated with means of killing animals, in practice it is halal (lawful) to eat alternatives to meat such as (for the most part) many forms of seafood, vegetables, or salads.

As mentioned above, Islamic teachings are derived from primary sources: the "Qur'an" and "Sunnah", "Qiyas" and "Ijma". However, there are differences in interpretation of these sources among Muslim scholars, especially the last two, depending on (a) their understanding of the Sari'ah, of its texts, or its principles, or a combination of the two (referred to as Fatwa); (b) understanding of the historical context of the major Islamic events; as well as, (c) the cultural context (Ibrahim, 1997; Al-mossawi, 2002; Arfaj, 2007; Henderson, 2007; Muhamad, 2008; Salman, 2010). Therefore, deciding if the status of certain actions or food products is Halal (Lawful), Haram (Unlawful) or Mushbooh (Doubtful) depends to some extent on human interpretation of the Shari'ah. In other words, what may be acceptable in Oman, for instance, women driving and women's suffrage (permitted), may not be acceptable in Saudi Arabia (i.e., forbidden).

Overall, the existence of different views and judgments (fatwas) regarding the same issue, problem, or activity is largely observed and acknowledged in the Islamic countries. However, it must be noted that, in most cases, while there is only one interpretation or judgment (fatwa) regarding a specific issue or activity, there are contradictions between what the Islamic religion states and what some Islamic governments or Muslims are practising. For instance, Islam strictly prohibits the killing or kidnaping of innocent people such as foreign tourists, yet such phenomena are recorded and do occur from time to time in some Muslim countries such as Yemen and Egypt. These events adversely affect the image of Islam and Muslims (especially in the Western world) and negatively impact on the tourism industry in these countries ("Yemeni scholars: Islam has forbidden killing tourists", 2008). In this context, Sheikh Ahmed, the Grand Mufti of Oman, has criticised those practices

that have created obvious contradictions between Islamic teaching (theory) and the reality of the actions of a relatively few Muslims (practice) in differing countries (Mostafa, 2006).

2.4.5 *Islam and Tourism*

Tourism is traditionally closely connected to religion, which has been deemed to be a powerful motive for travel from the time of early pilgrimages to contemporary journeys to holy sites (Henderson, 2003). From the perspective of tourism anthropology, tourism has been defined as "a sacred journey" (Graburn, 1977). The concepts of Islamic and halal tourism have been widely used in recent years, especially when talking about tourism in Muslim countries (Henderson, 2003). Islamic tourism as a concept can be defined through its goals: first, to revive Islamic cultures and spread Islamic values; second, to bring economic benefits to Islamic countries; and, third to strengthen Islamic self-confidence (Al-Hamarneh, 2012). Islamic teachings influence all aspects of Muslims' lives, including travel and tourism (Hashim, Murphy & Hashim, 2007). In order to strengthen and deepen the faith of people, the concept of tourism in Islam emphasises great and noble goals connecting tourism to: worship, seeking knowledge and learning, conveying the message of God to people, visiting Muslim friends and relatives (as this helps strengthen bonds in the Muslim community), and enabling one to ponder the wonders of God's creation and enjoy the beauty of his great universe (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2003; Stodolska & Livengood, 2006; Hashim, Murphy, & Hashim, 2007; Islamic Question & Answer (Islam Q&A), 2010). Therefore, travel in Islam must be "purposeful", and Muslims according to this view are: (1) not allowed to travel to places where sins are committed; (2) nor to travel to non-Muslim countries, except for necessary medical treatment which cannot be found in any Muslim country; for business purposes that require travel, or to learn knowledge that cannot be obtained in a Muslim country; and, to call people to Islam and spread Islam (Islam Q&A, 2010); (3) nor can they travel for religious purposes except travel to Mecca to perform Hajj (pilgrimage) and Umrah (minor Hajj), and visiting the three mosques: al-masjid al-Haraam, the Mosque of the Messenger, and the Mosque of al-Aqsa; or (4) to waste their money

and time during their vacation. Additionally, (5) Muslim women are not to travel without a Mahram (i.e., without having a companion from amongst their relatives) (Hashim, Murphy, & Hashim, 2007; Islam Q&A, 2010), although as noted above, some concessions may be made for travel for purposes of education or health.

Regarding tourist arrivals in Muslim countries, Muslim hosts are commanded by their religion to show a highly tolerant outlook and to be hospitable and friendly to tourists when at home. In addition, organising trips for non-Muslims in Muslim countries is permissible, provided that they respect the privacy of the Muslim community (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2008; Islam Q&A, 2010). Furthermore, when non-Muslim tourists obtain permission (a visa) to visit any Muslim country, they are granted safety until they leave the country (Q&A, 2010). In this regard, the final statement and recommendations of the Forum of Islam and Tourism (2009) condemned the terrorist attacks against tourists as contrary to Islamic practice and disregarding its values of tolerance. In return, non-Muslim tourists should show full respect for the Islamic religion and the morals and culture of Muslims (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2008; Islam Q&A, 2010).

In this regard, Henderson (2003) attributed the negative stereotypes, and misunderstanding between non-Muslim tourists and resident Muslims (and vice versa), to a degree of mutual mistrust between the two worlds in general which heightened after the September 11, 2001 attacks in the USA, and the "war against terror" (Dabrowska, 2004). Livengood and Stodolska (2004) stated that millions of Americans exhibited a generalised intolerance of Muslims who were perceived to be responsible for or in some way associated with the individuals who had hijacked aircraft and crashed them into New York's World Trade Centre. Accordingly, after the terrorist attacks of September 11, a significant shift occurred in tourist flows, where the number of European and American tourists decreased dramatically in Arabic countries and vice versa, and countries such as Egypt, Turkey, Syria, Lebanon, and Jordan benefitted directly from this shift in tourist flows by compensating for the loss of tourists from Western countries by increasing significantly the number of tourists from the Gulf countries (Al-Hamarneh, 2005; Ala

& Christian, 2004). In this context, Neveu (2010) argues that, in order to attract more Muslim tourists, Arabic countries such as Jordan adopted the concept of Islamic tourism after 11 September, 2001 through promoting visitation to the shrines of the pre-Islamic prophets and the companions of Prophet Mohammed.

An investigative report published in the Alsharq Alawsat newspaper (2010) revealed that Muslim tourists had shifted from their usual holiday destinations in European countries to new destinations in East Asia due to the difficulty in obtaining visas from European countries, over-intrusive security arrangements in European airports, and negative attitudes towards Muslim tourists in European countries ("Gulf's Tourists", 2010). For instance, a group of Muslim scholars have declared that the full body scanners being introduced at some European and USA airports are a violation of Islamic teachings because it is inappropriate for men and women to be seen naked by other men and women (Dade, 2010). Therefore, they preferred to spend their vacations in Arabic and East Asian Islamic countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia owing to the similarities in language and customs. This shift is fully consistent with the economic concept of Islamic tourism, which encourages and focuses on the importance of intra-Muslim tourism (Henderson, 2003; Ala & Christian, 2004; Dabrowska, 2004; Ala, 2005). For instance, according to the Turkish ambassador in Saudi Arabia (2002), Turkey received 10% more Arab tourists in the 2001-2002 seasons than it did in the previous year, with tourists primarily coming from Saudi Arabia, Egypt, and Jordan. Ala and Christian (2004) pointed out that the tourism industry in the Islamic World responded effectively to the negative publicity caused by the terrorist attacks with within-region promotions and marketing strategies to attract as many Arab and Muslim tourists as possible. Thus, the predicted wide-ranging fall of the tourism industry in Islamic countries after the attacks did not occur, especially when compared with the problems of the industry in European countries more dependent on the risk-adverse tourist generating countries such as the U.S.A.

Some behaviour that accompany tourism activities, such as scanty women's clothing and men's above-the-knee shorts, sun bathing naked, drinking alcohol, gambling,

drugs, prostitution, opulence and extravagance, voyeurism, and men and women mixing are offensive and unacceptable in Islamic culture (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2008; Islam Q&A, 2010). In this regard, Henderson (2008) points out that a potentially difficult relationship between Islam and tourism has been observed. Sindigo (1996) examined the marginalisation of the Waswahili in the tourism sector in Kenya. He found that practices of Western tourism including alcohol consumption, prostitution, scant dressing, kissing in public and open displays of affection between the sexes in public caused strong resentment within this Muslim community at the time of his study. Eraqi (2007) also found that there were some negative sociocultural effects of tourism development on local communities in Egypt. Klemm (2002) revealed that Muslims have less interest in beach holidays, in which undressing is normal and acceptable for European tourists, and which are perceived as immoral and unacceptable to Muslim tourists for religious and cultural reasons. Bogari et al. (2004) state explicitly that Saudi tourists' motivations are very much influenced by the Islamic religion. Saudi Arabia, for example, prohibits drinking alcohol, discos, pubs, and free mixing between men and women as a violation of Islamic teachings (Din, 1989). Therefore, any tourism activity to be supported and acceptable among Muslim people in Muslim communities should be in the context of the legitimacy of Islam, and be accompanied by a rejection of delinquency, chaos, and disintegration and vulgarity (Forum of Islam and Tourism, 2009). However, Islamic countries are not alike regarding the influence of Islam on everyday living and interpretation and implementation of Islamic law. Islamic law is not implemented completely in countries such as Egypt, Malaysia, UAE, Oman, and Indonesia where drinking alcohol, discos, pubs, and men and women dressing in ways contrary to Islamic codes coexist in these Islamic countries alongside more traditional Islamic conventions (Din, 1989; Hashim et al., 2007; Henderson, 2008). For instance, Yaapar (2005) analysed the negotiation of identity in Malaysia, and argues that although Islam is the official religion of Malaysia, it is not an important part of its tourism industry, particularly with regard to promotional activities. Therefore, there is a real need to study the influence of Islamic religion on travel behaviour of people in each Islamic country separately.

2.4.6 The Growth of Halal Tourism

Halal tourism is a new concept in the tourism industry (Mun, Ling, & Yi, 2009). This form of tourism has been defined by Zailani, Omar, and Kopong (2011) as "offering tour packages and destinations that are particularly designed to cater for Muslim considerations and address Muslim needs" (p. 3). This type of tourism has developed as a result of four factors: (1) the rapid growth in Muslim tourists, who represented a major niche market worth US$126.1 billion in 2011, and one which is estimated to grow at 4.8% through 2020 ("Muslim tourist growth", 2012); (2) the difficulty in obtaining visas for Muslim travellers to visit the USA and Western countries after 11 September 2001(Mun et al., 2009); (3) competition among tourism destinations to attract Muslim tourists through meeting their special needs and wants such as halal eating and drinking (Hassan & Hall, 2003; Wan-Hassan & Awang, 2009; Zailani et al., 2011); and, (4) the growing awareness of the expectations of Muslim travellers in non-Muslim countries (Campbell, 2008).

Many applications of the concept of halal tourism can be implemented by tourism and hospitality managers in order to meet the requirements of halal tourism: these include: (a) ensuring that Muslim tourists are able to fulfil religious obligations during their holidays; (b) creating tour packages and activities that comply with the Islamic teachings; (c) providing halal meals (in hotels, on flights and during the tours); (d) setting aside time for prayers throughout the trips; (e) placing a pointer towards Mecca in the hotel rooms; (f) allocating private women-only beach areas which enforce the Islamic swimming dress code; (j) providing separate swimming pools and spa facilities for men and women (Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010; Zailani et al., 2011; "What is Muslim tourism?", 2013), and, (h) considering Muslims' travel pull and push motivations when designing promotional programmes and packages (Alsawafi, 2010). In this context, responding to the growing demand from thousands of travellers from Muslim countries, Thai Airways International's halal kitchen is now entirely certified to ensure conformity with the permissible dietary requirements under the Islamic teachings (Campbell, 2008). Similarly, in Malaysia, which has been leading the way in the halal tourism industry, there are

increasing numbers of hotels that apply for a halal certificate from the relevant authorities to attract more Muslim tourists, especially those from the Middle East, West Asia, and other Muslim countries. In 2011, 101 hotels had obtained the halal certification in Malaysia (Zailani et al., 2011). In this context, according to a report by the Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities in 2013, the GCC countries are expected to receive 45.5 % of Saudi tourists, while Middle Eastern countries will be the favourite travel destinations for 33.9 % of Saudi tourists. In 2013, Saudi tourists are also expected to spend around $5.1 billion on their summer holidays ("Saudis' spending on summer vacations to reach $5.1 billion", 2013). These destinations are still the favourite choices for Saudi tourists, where they can receive full holiday services in accordance with the Islamic teachings ("Promoting Islamic tourism", 2012).

There is no doubt that halal tourism is playing an important role in destination choice for the majority of Muslim travellers, and it is also expected to be an important attractive pull factor (destination attribute) for Muslim tourists to visit/choose a specific destination. This statement has been confirmed by the results of the current study which found that "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods" and "availability of mosques (places of worship)" are among the five most attractive pull motivations for Omani outbound tourists.

2.4.7 Omani Women Travelling and Mahram

All Islamic sects in Oman adopt the same view regarding the travel of women, believing that a Muslim woman should not travel alone without a Mahram accompanying her (Almasimri, 2013; "Travel without Mahram is forbidden", 2013). The uniformity of belief among Muslims in Oman concerning this issue emphasises the importance of having Mahram for Omani women when travelling abroad, and generally the topic is not seen as one for public debate. In this context, for the majority of Arab/Muslim parents, allowing their daughters to travel and study abroad alone without Mahrams traditionally could bring "dishonour" to their families (Shabeeb, 1996; Hamdan, 2005; Ahmad, 2007). On the other hand, it is noticeable

that some Omani women have recently been travelling alone to study abroad, especially when they are confident that they will be safe and will not be subjected to harassment during their travel, in accordance with fatwa issued by some classical scholars. These authorities have made exceptions to the rule that a woman can travel only with a Mahram in that she may travel in a group of Muslim women who have trustful Mahrams, or where there is no fear or risk of Fitna (deviation from the teachings of the Holy Qu'ran and Sunnah). Under such conditions, solo female travel would be permissible ("Can women travel without a Mahram?", 2013). According to the Statistical Year Book 2012, 9,928 Omani female students were studying in universities and colleges abroad at both undergraduate and postgraduate level in 2011. The majority of them were travelling and staying abroad alone.

Therefore, this issue must be discussed with caution because of the contradictions between what Islam traditionally sought from its followers, and what is increasingly not uncommon, in that solo female travel abroad is occurring, at least for purposes of study, and while variations in fatwas exist according to time and place. In other words, in order to address this issue as credibly and realistically as possible, it should not be separated from the reality of its social and cultural context. This issue is revisted in the final reflections upon the thesis.

2.4.8 The Process of Decision-Making in Tourism

In order to gain a clear understanding of factors that affect destination choice, it is necessary both to clarify and to understand the process of tourist decision-making in terms of factors that influence the tourist's decision-making process, and models that explain and describe the different decision-making processes. According to Mottiar and Quinn (2004), the tourism industry is based on consumer choices. For example, people choose their travel destination, decide their travel time, choose their favourite leisure activities, determine their length of stay, choose the place of accommodation, choose their favourite airline, and determine their vacation expenditure. For that reason, many studies have been conducted to identify the different stages of the decision-making process in tourism, by whom, how and when these decisions are

made, in order to assist tourism providers to shape appropriate marketing strategies which suit the decision-making style of their potential consumers (Moutinho, 1987; Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Mottiar & Quinn, 2004: Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Hsu et al., 2009; Mair & Thompson, 2009).

Furthermore, the tourism decision-making process is influenced by various factors, such as the nature of tourism products which cannot be tested 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 tourism information, push factors (internal), pull factors (external), satisfaction, location, fashionability, the perceived image of the destination, and uncertainty (Moutinho, 1987; Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999; Kim et al., 2007; Correia et al., 2007; Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Hsu et al., 2009; Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Zhang, 2009). All these factors have made the process of tourist decision-making very complex. They also vary considerably according to the gender of the consumer, his or her class (budget), his or her age, and his or her intrinsic motivations (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999; Young, 2003; Kim et al., 2007; Hyde & Laesser, 2009). As an example of the impact of gender on decision-making process, it is claimed that, in comparison with males, females seem to be more cautious, less confident, less aggressive, easier to persuade, and to have inferior leadership and problem solving abilities when making decisions (Powell & Ansic, 1997). Furthermore, as an example of the impact of social and cultural factors on the decision-making process in terms of souvenir-purchasing behaviour, Park (2000) found that when Japanese and Korean tourists purchased souvenirs, they were motivated by a desire to support their relationship with others. However, as a result of social and cultural differences between the two countries, some differences exist with regard to "what", and "how" souvenirs should be given. In addition, in terms of the impact of psychological characteristics on travel behaviour, Pizam et al. (2004) found that respondents with high combined risk-taking and sensation-seeking scores differed significantly in their travel behaviour, mode of destination choice, preferred tourist activities, and demographics, from those who had low risk-taking and

sensation-seeking scores. Regarding the impact of family on vacation decision, Moutinho (1987) states that the family life stage affects individual personality characteristics, desires, attitudes and values, and, additionally, in turn influences the decision-making process related to the purchase of tourism products and services.

In the same context, according to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999), as a result of the nature of the tourism products and services that cannot be tested in advance, the purchase decision-making process within the tourism industry (destinations, accommodation, activities, and transport) will be strongly influenced by travel motivation and other people (friends or families); it also involved many people and agencies, it required a lot of information about tourism products, and it took a long time to make a decision. Additionally, Gnoth (1997) argues that expectations and attitudes towards tourism products (destinations, services, or experiences) are determined by both the tourist's felt needs (motives) and their values system. He also mentioned that the interaction between these elements shapes a tourist's perception of tourism products and, therefore, that that perception corresponds to the tourist's mind-set.

Three vital stages are assumed for the tourist decision process, namely: the pre-decision, decision, and post purchase evaluation stages. At the pre-decision stage, the potential tourist can often choose from several competing tourism products, such as choosing from different tourist destinations or choosing from different types of accommodation. During this stage, the potential tourist collects information about alternative tourist destinations and compares them. At the decision stage, the potential tourist decides which tourist destination he or she will choose according to travel motivation, budget, time, desires, and aspirations. At the post purchase evaluation stage, the tourist evaluates the satisfaction gained from the product (destination). At this stage, the tourist decides if he or she will revisit the destination, or recommend that others visit it (Correia & Pimpao, 2008). Similarly, Um and Crompton (1990) suggested that the process of tourist destination choice consists of three stages, namely: a composition of awareness set, an evoked set, and a final destination choice. At the first stage, the tourist collects initial information about different tourist

destinations. During the second stage, the potential tourist searches for detailed information about destinations that are more likely to be chosen. At the final stage, the tourist decides which tourist destination, which will satisfy his or her social and physical needs, he or she will visit. In practice, according to Shechan (2005), the process of holiday decision-making includes three main stages: dreaming, planning (collecting information), and booking. She also mentioned that although each stage could take months, women enjoy the process and see it as a chance to be creative and to dream (as cited in Chipkin, 2005).

Many studies have indicated that the information search stage is considered one of the more important stages in the decision-making models (Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999; Eugenio-Martin, 2003; Kim et al., 2007). The main purposes of the information search stage in these models are to support decision-making, enhance the quality of the decision-making process, reduce the level of uncertainty, and create a clear image about tourism products (tourist destination, accommodation, or activities) (Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Kim et al., 2007). Thus, the information gained during this stage directly affects the final decision.

The review of pertinent literature shows that some attempts have been made to explain the process of decision-making. Although these models differ slightly from each other, in general, they could be identified as having five stages: motivation, information search, evaluation of alternatives, decision and post decision behaviour (Moutinho, 1987; Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Mair & Thompson, 2009; Hsu et al., 2009). These models potentially do not go far enough for understanding the influence of socio-demographic variables on destination choice, and how these influence decision-making in a tourism context. Therefore, since consumer motivation is very important in all forms of tourism because it helps to explain the decision making process (Tschapka, 2006), so in turn this study attempts to investigate the influence of socio-demographic variables on the travel motivation of Omani outbound tourists in addition to considering what motivates Omanis and the role of religion in making choices about possible holiday destinations, along with factors that affect destination choice.

To understand factors that influence destination choice, it is important to define the concept of "consumer behaviour". Moutinho (1987) described "consumer behaviour" as a process of obtaining and organizing information in the direction of a buying decision and then of using and evaluating products and service" (p. missing page number). Accordingly, in the context of the process of destination choice, it is very clear that the tourist works through a series of stages before reaching the final point of purchase; simultaneously, there are many factors (determinants) that affect and direct him/her during each stage, each playing a vital role in determining the preferred holiday destination (Moutinho, 1987; Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Mair & Thompson, 2009; Hsuet al., 2009).

As shown in Figure 2.2, Moutinho (1987) suggested that the factors that affect an individual's destination choice can be classified as internal and external elements. He also pointed out that these factors vary in their degree of influence, as well as differing in their time of appearance from arousal stage to decision stage and from purchase to post purchase experiences. In general, factors that affect destination choice behaviour can be divided into two groups: (1) concrete or tangible attributes of the destination; and, (2) abstract or intangible benefits, needs, motivations, or personal values (Klenosky, Gengler & Mulvey, 1993). Amongst the major influences on individual travel behaviour are culture and subculture impacts, family decision-taking processes, reference groups, social class, personality and self-concept, learning, motivation, perception and cognition, perceived risk, and attitude and intention (Moutinho, 1987).

Figure 2.2 Major Influences on Individual Travel Behaviour
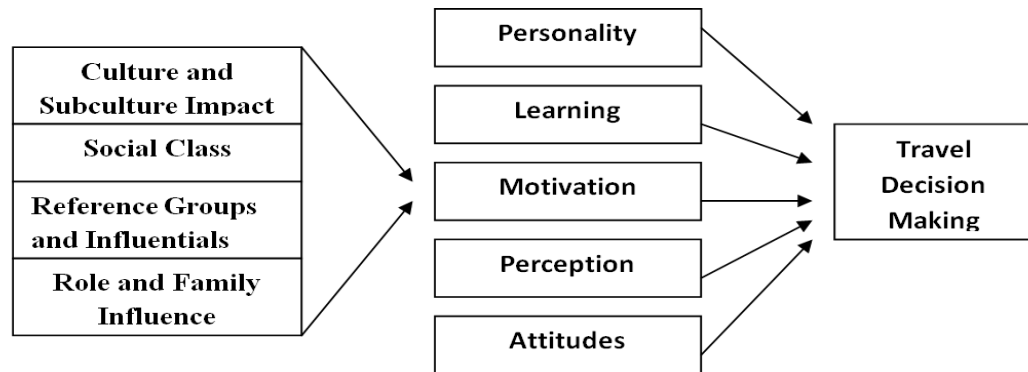
Source: Adapted from Moutinho, 1987

Moscardo (2004) added shopping to the list of factors that influence destination choice rather than simply regarding it as a tourist activity. Her study revealed that shopping was ranked twenty-first out of 28 factors for importance in selection of destinations. In this regard, Recker and Kostyniuk (1978) stated that the decision process of the individual is rational, and based on utility. According to this interpretation, shopping can be deemed as a factor that brings utility to the individual, thus, enticing tourists to opt for a specific destination where it is possible to find opportunities to shop.

In addition, previous experience plays a critical role in destination choice as well as in repeat visits. Therefore, most models on the tourism destination choice include a reference to the part played by previous destination experience/s in the destination choice process (Oppermann, 2000; Caneen, 2004). In this regard, factors such as travel satisfaction, and destination image, which are formulated after the first visit, are important elements during the process of destination choice (Rittichainuwat & Qu, 2003; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Beerli & Martin, 2004).

Empirically, in this regard, studies found that travel constraints such as language, cost, distance, family life cycle, and government control can have a significant impact

on the decision to visit a specific destination (Romsa & Blenman, 1989; Hong, Kim, & Lee, 1999; Huang & Tsai, 2003; Wang, Norman, & Mcguire, 2005; Sparks & Pan, 2009). In other words, travel constraints may inhibit travelling to a certain destination or participation in certain activities. For example, Wang et al. (2005) revealed that constraints such as "fishing conditions"; "poor weather"; and, "seasonal constraint" are statistically significant in predicting young travellers' actual visit to Wisconsin's Northwoods.

Liu (2008) concluded that factors such as familiar destinations, new experiences, the image of the destinations, accommodation costs, easy driving distance, availability of infrastructure, and the influence of family and friends can have a role in determining destination choice. Other writers have located the decision and evaluation of a holiday destination within wider frameworks. Ryan (1995) suggested a framework derived from marketing theory wherein social and psychological factors combined with growing levels of travel experience to provide a series of reiterative assessments of place. Again Ryan and Gu (2008) posed a model where destination image was conceived as the outcome of constructed and organic images that were purposely presented to the tourist in a manner that influenced the evaluations of place on the part of the tourist. Within this model, culture is an implicit theme, and given this, the current study attempts to investigate the impact of the Islamic religion on destination choice because religion is considered as a part, and source, of culture (Moutinho, 1987; Reisinger & Turner, 1998; Rice & Al-Mossawi, 2002; Lee & Tideswell, 2005). Thus culture, as one of major influences on individual destination choice, also needs to be discussed.

Culture is the complex summation of abstract and material elements created by members of a society, including cultural and religious values, ideas, attitudes, meaningful symbols as well as artefacts elaborated in a society (Moutinho, 1987). It also can be viewed as the means by which people communicate, perpetuate, behave, interpret their experience, and develop their unique knowledge about attitudes towards life in order to guide their action (Rice & Al-Mossawi, 2002). In general,

culture refers to the norms, values, beliefs, attitudes, and customs that are obtained from society that lead to given normative behaviour patterns (Youn, O'Leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000).

Hence it may be said that culture and cultural differences play a major role in shaping and affecting vacation travel behaviour, both in general, and more specifically through the unique cultural values, ideas, language, technology, attitudes, customs, religion, and material elements of a society (Moutinho, 1987; Sussmann & Rashcovsky, 1997; Reisinger & Turner, 1998; Weiermair, 2000; Seddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001; Klemm, 2002; Caneen, 2004; Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005). Weiermair (2000) argues that a tourist's cultural framework not only influences the way in which a person experiences and interprets tourism products and services, but also that it is likely to affect decisions regarding destination choice. For example, Youn, O'Leary, Morrison, and Hong (2000) revealed that travellers from the United Kingdom and Japan had different travel motives and benefit-seeking patterns. Pizam and Sussmann (1995) found that in 18 of 20 behavioural characteristics there was a significant difference between American, Japanese, French, and Italian tourists with reference to perceptions. Rosenbaum and Spears (2005) examined planned products and service consumption patterns among US, Canadian, Japanese, Chinese, South Korean, Australian, and New Zealand tourists in Hawaii. They found significant cross-cultural differences in consumption patterns among international tourists to Hawaii. Similarly, Caneen (2004) found significant cultural differences among US, Japanese, and Chinese tourists regarding their decision to return to Hawaii. In a study conducted by Sussmann and Rashcovsky (1997) significant differences were found between French and English Canadians in the number of vacation trips taken, number of sources consulted before travelling, importance assigned to several accommodation attributes, and importance assigned to several destination attributes. Reisinger and Turner (1998) found significant differences between Korean and Australian providers due to cultural norms that impacted on the nature of their interactions. All the above studies suggest that travel behaviour in general and

destination choice in particular are affected by cultural and national backgrounds, which, in turn, can cause differences in vacation travel behaviour.

2.4.9 Religion as Significant Factor in Destination Choice

Religion is widely acknowledged in the area of marketing as an important cultural element that affects and shapes consumers' beliefs, attitudes, values, and purchasing behaviour (Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Lee & Tideswell, 2005; Muhamad, 2008). Religion also seems to have a significant influence on: (1) individuals' behaviours, thinking, motivations, personality type, preferences, attitude, and norms related to politics, activities, addictive behaviour, alcohol consumption, novelty-seeking behaviour, social and cultural spheres of life, and helping norms (Hirschman, 1983; Morgan, 1987; Moutinho, 1989; Wilde & Joseph, 1997; Kanekar & Merchant, 2001; Mattil et al., 2001; Isralowitz, 2002; Klemm, 2002; Stodolska & Livengood, 2006), and (2) society's value systems, information search types, holiday preferences, responding to advertising messages, tourism movement and policies, leisure activities, travelling for leisure purposes, tourism promotion, and destination image (Din, 1989; Rice & Al-Mossawi, 2002; Klemm, 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Lee & Tideswell, 2005; Stodolska & Livengood, 2006; Henderson, 2008). These studies provide evidence of a link between the religion of an individual and behaviour, and the type of life decision taken, which impacts on purchasing behaviour.

Tourism is traditionally closely connected to religious purposes as these have been influential motives for travel from the time of the early pilgrimages to contemporary journeys to holy places (Henderson, 2003). Religion continues to motivate tourists to travel for religious purposes and to participate in leisure activities (Bogari, et al., 2004; Stodolska & Livengood, 2006; Henderson, 2008). Muslims are reported to have become increasingly dependent on Islamic teachings in recent years when facing and dealing with the problems of modern life (Aziz & Shamsul, 2004). In this regard, Muhamad (2008) found that the Muslim students' motivation in following Islam had an influence on the role of perceived social pressure in their planning to smoke, and on the role of perceived social pressure in their planning to listen to popular music.

Stodolska and Livengood (2006) examined the impact of religion on the leisure behaviour of Muslim immigrants to the U.S. They revealed that the impact of Islam on leisure behaviour manifests itself through the emphasis on strong family ties and on family-oriented leisure among Muslims; the need to teach and supervise children and to pass traditional moral values to subsequent generations; the requirement of modesty in dress; speech, and everyday behaviour, as well as the restrictions on mixed gender interactions, dating, food and alcohol. Bailey and Sood (1993) also argue that the unique behaviour of Muslim consumers in the market place is governed by their generally high level of commitment to Islamic teachings. However, the influence of religion on a person's behaviour depends on the degree of his commitment to his religion's teachings (Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Muhamad, 2008). In this regard, Muhamad (2008) points out that though Islam has relatively strong effect on gender role interpretation in Muslim society, the degree of influence would vary across Muslim countries. Thus, for marketing purposes, there is a need to investigate the influence of Islamic religion on travel behaviour in general, and on destination choice in particular, within each Muslim society or country. However, studies investigating the influence of religious beliefs on the travel behaviour of specific religious groups are rare and thus little is known about the influence of the Islamic religion on destination choice. Therefore, this study will investigate the role and impact of the Islamic religion on Omani outbound tourists when choosing a tourist destination. This issue is shaped into a research proposition, as follows:

Proposition 4: The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination and participation in leisure activities.

2.5 Travel and Leisure Constraints

2.5.1 Introduction

There is a consensus among researchers that travel motivation is not the only variable that impacts and shapes tourists' travel and leisure behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1989; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). Travel and leisure constraints also play a critical role in shaping tourists' behaviour, explaining their behaviour, determining their travel

decisions and participations, affecting their travel motivations and acquisition of leisure preferences, reducing their participation and satisfaction, and directing their travel choices (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1989; Moutinho, 1987; Jackson, 1988; Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Huston & Ashmore, 1986; Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993; Crompton & Mckay, 1997; Corroll & Alexandris, 1997; Liu, 2008; Stanis, Schneider, & Russell, 2009). From a marketing perspective, it is fundamental for travel marketers to identify travel and leisure constraints that face particular groups in order to negate those constraints and suggest appropriate strategies that can be adopted to increase their participation in tourist and leisure activities (Daniels, Drogin, Rodgers, & Wiggins, 2005; Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009). Jackson (2000) concluded that investigating travel and leisure constraints helps both researchers and professionals to understand factors which affect travel and leisure participation. Therefore, the next section examines literature regarding the concept and theory of travel and leisure constraints. In addition, previous travel and leisure constraints studies are analysed and linked with the purposes of this study.

2.5.2 *The Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*

The current literature of nonparticipation in travel is generally derived from the studies of constraints to participation in leisure activities (Zhang, 2009). Therefore, concepts and theories obtained from, and developed in, leisure theory can be used to explain and understand tourist behaviour, and vice versa (Carr, 2002). The theory of travel and leisure constraints is mainly concerned with why some people do not travel abroad and participate in leisure activities despite possessing motivations do so (Jackson, 1991; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). Accordingly, constraints to participation and nonparticipation in travel and leisure activities can be defined as barriers to participation, or preventive factors that inhibit some people from travelling overseas and participating in leisure activities for which they might have a desire (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Jackson, 2000; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). Similarly, constraints are also viewed as factors, or a subset of reasons, for not participating in a particular behaviour (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). These factors are directly responsible for affecting individuals' motivation towards participation in tourist activities in terms of

"frequency", "intensity", "duration", "quality", "preference" or "freedom of choice" (Goodale & Witt, 1989). The notion that constraints have a significant effect on the decision-making process in general, and on travel and leisure participation in particular, is now widely accepted in leisure and tourism research (Jackson, 1988; Wade, 1985; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). In this regard, Crompton, Jackson, and Witt (2005) suggest that participation in tourist activities is possibly impeded, prevented, or limited, dependent on the strength of motivation for participation and the level of constraints reported by individuals.

The most widely adopted theoretical framework of leisure constraints was first suggested by Crawford and Godbey (1987), and later explained and developed by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991). These authors posited that leisure constraints can be categorised into three hierarchically organised groups: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, and, (3) structural constraints. *Intrapersonal constraints* reflect individual psychological states and attributes that interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences for the activity and participation. Examples include stress, depression, anxiety, lack of interest, prior knowledge of activities, health-related problems, religiosity, reference group attitudes, perceived self-skill and subjective evaluation of appropriateness, and availability of various leisure activities. Kattiyaapornpong and Miller (2009) argued that these constraints are relatively "unstable" and "possibly temporal". According to the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, individuals' motivation to participate in leisure activities is first faced with intrapersonal constraints. Therefore, individuals have to negotiate these constraints in order to deal with interpersonal constraints. *Interpersonal constraints* result from the interaction of social factors and/or the relationships between individuals. One of the most commonly reported examples of interpersonal constraints is the lack of finding a friend or family member to enable participation in intended activities which require at least one partner. Kattiyaapornpong and Miller (2009) pointed out that interpersonal constraints result or arise from "spousal interaction". Therefore, interpersonal constraints are expected to change across life stages and are largely influenced by marital status, family size, and types of activities (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). According to the hierarchical model of leisure

constraints, when interpersonal constraints are absent or negotiated, structural constraints then appear. *Structural constraints* intervene between leisure preference and participation. Examples of structural constraints include availability of information, financial challenges, climate, lack of time and opportunities, work commitments, stage in family life, ecological influences, season, transportation difficulties, and barriers due to regulations. Correia (2008) states that lack of time and financial challenges have appeared as the most mentioned structural constraints. Individuals might be prevented from experiencing structural constraints if they could not overcome the interpersonal constraints. Although intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints are considered as the most "proximal", more important, and powerful, structural constraints viewed as being "distant" have received most attention in previous constraint studies (Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004; Correia, 2008; Zhang, 2009). Figure 2.3 describes the hierarchical model of leisure constraints.

Figure 2.3 A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints.
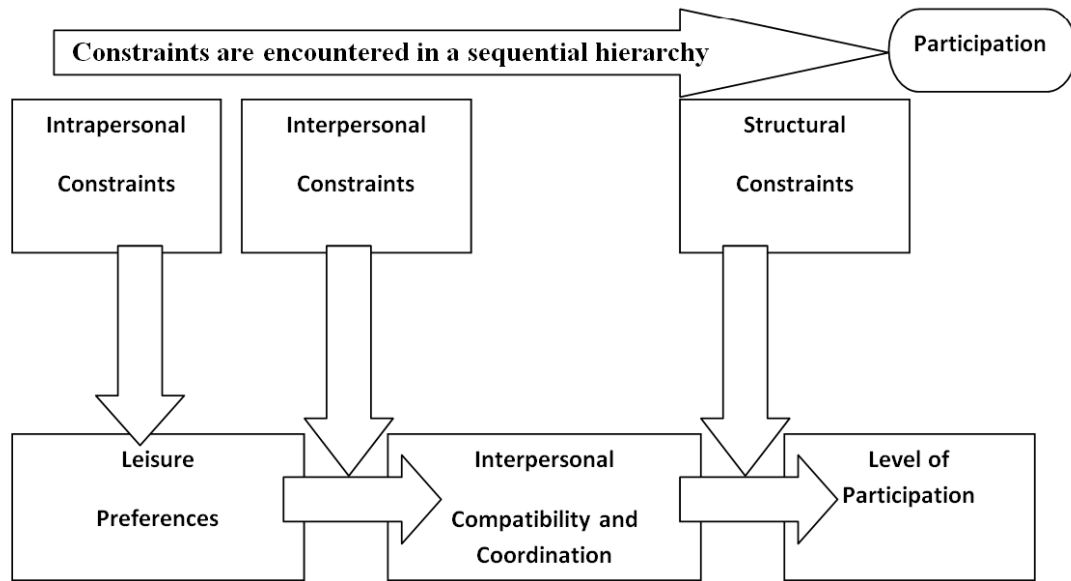
Source: *Adapted from Crawford et al., (1991)*

This model suggests that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints exist or occur in a hierarchical order. In other words, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints must be overcome and navigated sequentially for participation to occur, continue, and progress (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). There is empirical support for this notion (e.g., Raymore, Leslie, Godbey, Crawford, & Eye, 1993; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Nyaupane et al., 2004; Hung & Petrick, 2010). On the other hand, the results of some studies did not support this notion (e.g., Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh, & Eklund, 1999; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000), which leaves a question that an identified hierarchy in constraints might rely on the population studied and certain types of leisure activities (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008).

The leisure constraints theory has been applied in the leisure research field targeting a wide range of populations (e.g., sport participation, female leisure and recreation participation, immigrants, disabled people, mature and young travellers, outbound tourists, student travellers, non-travellers, resort tourists, and disabled travellers (e.g.,

Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Hudson & Gilbert, 1999; Crompton & Kim, 2004; Vassiliadis, Siomkos, & Mylonaski, 2006; Mannell & Loucks-Atkinson, 2005; Andronikidis, Vassiliadis, Priporas, & Kamenidou, 2006; Alexandris, Barboukis, & Tsormapatzoudis, 2007; Chick & Dong, 2005; Lee & Scott, 2009), as well as in the tourism research field (e.g., Haukeland, 1990; Hinch & Jackson, 2000; Um & Crompton, 1992; Botha, Crompton, & Kim, 1999; Nyaupane et al.,2004; Cannally & Timothy, 2007; Kerstetter, Yen, & Yarnal, 2005; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). However, there is a dearth of studies that have identified the types of travel and leisure constraints experienced by outbound tourists in general, and Muslim outbound tourists in particular (Gilbert & Hudson, 200; Nyaupane et al.,2004; ; Kerstetter et al.,2005; Son & Mowen, 2008; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). Raymore, Godbey and Crawford (1994) argued that Crawford et al's. (1991) model is useful in examining travel and leisure constraints. Furthermore, Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) stated that this theory "appears to be applicable to a variety of human behaviours" (p. 125). They also suggested that this model is a useful framework for explaining all participation or nonparticipation in leisure activities. However, Hung and Petrick (2010) concluded that "given the differences between travel and leisure constraints, it is unknown whether these measurements are equally applicable to a specific travel context" (p. 212). Therefore, this study proposes that:

Proposition 5: The three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation.

Socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status are widely used in tourism and leisure research to explain travel behaviour in general, and travel and leisure constraints in particular (Cotterell, 1993; Burnett & Baker, 2001; Son & Mowen, 2008; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). The most important implications of these studies are in developing different marketing strategies that target each group in order to minimise their unique perceived constraints, and, therefore, increase their participation (Hudson, 2000). Son and Mowen (2008) suggested that age and gender were important factors in leisure constraints. Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) also argued that travel constraints

are influenced by age and family life cycle stage. Specifically, Raymore et al. (1993) suggested that women are significantly more likely to be constrained by intrapersonal constraints when compared with men, while men are significantly more likely to experience structural constraints than women.

These results were further supported by Hudson (2000) who investigated constraint differences between men and women regarding their skiing participation. He indicated that women significantly perceived more constraints than did men, especially intrapersonal constraints. He also found that there are no significant differences between men and women regarding interpersonal and structural constraints. Likewise, Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) found that women are more likely to be impeded by cost constraints than men. Regarding age, they also revealed that seniors experience significantly higher levels of interpersonal constraints compared with younger groups. Concerning income and educational level, they found that no differences exist. Kerstetter (2002) also found that younger groups tend to be more constrained by structural factors than seniors are. Jackson (2005) argued that as age progresses, the cost of leisure activities becomes a less important constraint, while time as a constraint generally limits participation in leisure activities in middle age and then this factor, in turn, decreases in the later stages of life. Similarly, in a study conducted by Nyaupane, Mccabe and Andereck (2008), it was found that seniors perceived greater constraints due to health issues, whereas younger age groups were more likely to be prevented by lack of time and money. Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2008) found constraints to travel among Australian residents were greatest among those with low income, the single, and those aged 55 years and older. This part of the literature review leads to the sixth proposition:

Proposition 6: Travel and leisure constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables.

Hence, if individuals' motivations to travel overseas or participate in leisure activities are strong enough, they may be able to overcome travel and leisure constraints that face them, and vice versa (Carroll & Alexandris, 1997; Gladwell & Bedini, 2004).

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) argue that highly motivated people are less likely to perceive high levels of constraints, and are more likely to participate in travel and leisure activities. In the same context, White (2008) suggests that a higher motivation to participate encourages the adoption of negotiation strategies and resources that overcome constraints. Thus, both forces (motivations and constraints) have a significant impact on whether to participate in travel or leisure activities (Zhang, 2009). Motivations play a positive role in the participation of overseas travel and leisure activities, while constraints play a negative role. Therefore, there is real need to measure the relationship between motivations and constraints to determine travel participation. This area for investigation is expressed in:

Proposition 7: Omanis' participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel is an outcome of the joint action of travel motivations and constraints.

2.5.3 Previous Travel and Leisure Constraints Studies

A number of studies have been conducted in the leisure and tourism fields to identify travel and leisure constraints using the three-dimension leisure constraints model (Kerstetter et al.,2005; Mowen, Payne & Scott, 2005; Nyaupane, Mccabe, & Andereck, 2008; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Stanis et al, 2009; Mckercher, 2009). Some of these studies attempted to investigate the influence of socio-demographic variables on perceived constraints, and others focused specifically on leisure constraints that affect women's participation in travel and leisure activities. However, it must be noted that some studies reviewed here investigated constraints generally, without adopting any specific constraints model (Walseth & Fasting, 2003; Koca, Henderson, Asci, & Bulgu, 2009; Arab-Moghaddam & Henderson, 2007; Wange et al, 2005; Tekin, 2011), but they are included because they investigated leisure constraints that may possibly affect the participation of Muslim women in travel and leisure activities.

Wange et al. (2005) compared the individual perceived constraints experienced by mature (over 50 years of age) and young travellers (under 50 years) for activities at Wisconsin Northwoods. They found that in 8 out of the 40 constraint items there

were statistically significantly differences when comparing the travellers. The eight constraint items that were significantly different include "prefer to visit in the Fall", "children do not want to go", "other places look more appealing", "not enough time to travel", "cannot get time off", "children have previous commitments", "previous work commitments", and "children still in school". Except for a seasonal preference, the 7 remaining constraint items had a significantly greater impact on younger than on older travellers. Young travellers were more likely than mature travellers to perceive these constraints as influential to their travel decision- making. Compared with young travellers, mature travellers were less likely to be constrained by time, work, children, or destination-related constraints.

Kerstetter et al. (2005) investigated perceived constraints to cruise travel. The results indicated that the most common reasons for not cruising were expense, "getting to and from the cruise port adds to the cost"; hidden costs, "cruising has hidden costs"; and time, "it is difficult for me to find the time to cruise".

Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) examined the reasons that kept people in Arizona from travelling. They revealed that time was considered as the primary constraint, followed by cost, and interpersonal constraints, while place attributes, and intrapersonal constraints had the lowest scores. Their study found that women were more likely to be constrained by cost than were men. Regarding the influence of age, the respondents in the 71 years old and older age groups experienced significantly higher levels of interpersonal constraints. The study did not reveal any differences regarding education, and between Arizona and out-of-state respondents.

Nyaupane et al. (2008) identified factors considered as constraints to leisure travel for seniors compared to other age groups. The study revealed that not having enough time was more of a constraint to the two youngest groups (less than 45 years of age and 45 to 59 years) but infrequently constrained the oldest groups (the 60 to 74 and 75 years and more groups). Not having enough money was more of a constraint to the two youngest groups than to the older groups. Not having a companion was most likely to constrain the oldest respondents, followed by the youngest respondents. Health problems were increasingly a constraint as age increased and were a major constraint for the oldest respondents. The 45-59 year old group was the most

constrained by work commitments, while the 75 year old and older respondents were the least constrained by this responsibility.

Zhang (2009) investigated travel constraints that inhibited Beijing residents from travelling overseas by looking at different demographic groups. The study found that cost, time, and money were the most important perceived travel constraints respectively. The study also revealed that there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of their travel constraints. Age scored significantly differently across the four groups. Young people aged 18 to 25 years rated "financial condition" and "too costly" as the most important perceived constraints. Residents aged between 36 and 49 years old regarded health concerns as a more important item than did other age groups. The study showed that the higher the education level people possessed, the less anxious they were about personal safety at the destination and perceived "language barriers". The study also indicated that single people were more constrained by "financial conditions", while married people with dependent children were impeded by "partner and family". Regarding the influence of income, the study revealed that people with low income viewed "finances" as a more important constraint on overseas travel than did other groups. The study found differences between travellers and non-travellers, where non-travellers were constrained by "financial constraint", "language", "visa procedure", and "travel companion" from travelling abroad.

Mckercher (2009) examined non-travel by Hong Kong residents. In general, a lack of interest, affordability of travel, business/work commitments, and family commitments were the major barriers to travel. Affordability rated first with younger people and with lower to middle-income people with large families, while business or work commitments were ranked first by the most affluent members. The study also found that impact of age was restricted to elderly singles and couples.

Brown, Brown, Miller, and Hansen (2001) explored the factors that prevent women with young children from being more physically active, and the relationship between physical activity and levels of social support available to the women. The study indicated that mothers were inhibited by a combination of structural (e.g., lack of

time, money, energy) and ideological influences (e.g., sense of commitment to others). Social support was seen to place some women in a better position than others to negotiate constraints that impede leisure participation.

Nadirova and Jackson (2000) examined constraints to leisure in several communities in Edmonton, Alberta. They found that a lack of time and existing commitments were most frequently mentioned as a reason for being unable to participate as often as desired, whereas cost and lack of skills were more frequently mentioned as reasons for ceasing or being unable to participate in the first place.

The relationship between Islam and participation in sport activities was examined by Walseth and Fasting (2003). In particular, their study focused on women's sport participation in Egypt. They found that Egyptian women agreed that Islamic teachings encourage participation in leisure activities. They also revealed that leisure constraints, such as use of the veil and gender segregation, adversely affected Egyptian women's participation in sport activities. These constraints result from Muslim society's view of women and their sexuality as well as differing interpretations of Islamic teachings.

Similarly, Tekin (2001) sought to determine the influence of Islamic belief on the participation of Muslim female students in leisure activities. The study revealed that the gender-based view of the Muslim community towards women was the most important leisure constraint that prevented Turkish female students from participating in leisure activities. However, he concluded that religious factors were less active barriers compared with sociocultural variables.

In the same context, Koca et al. (2009) examined cultural and social factors that impact Turkish women's participation in leisure-time physical activity. Their study found that Turkish women experienced several leisure constraints, for example, family responsibilities, ethics around care, time, social support and approval, and economics. They also concluded that Turkish women remain constrained by traditional gender stereotyped beliefs in Turkish society.

Stanis at el. (2009) investigated the leisure time physical activity participation, constraints, negotiation strategies, and motivations of park visitors in Minnesota. The study indicated that interpersonal constraints were most often experienced, followed

by structural constraints and then intrapersonal constraints. Respondents most frequently employed financial management strategies, followed by cognitive and time management strategies. In contrast, respondents were least likely to acquire skills as a strategy to negotiate constraints. In terms of their motivations, enjoying nature, health, and social interaction were the most important motivations to visit parks.

Mowen et al. (2005) investigated the change and stability in park visiting constraints and preferred constraint negotiation strategies across a 10-year period. Their study indicated that "too busy with other activities "," lack of time" and "too busy with family responsibilities" were the most important park use constraints cited by respondents in 1991 and 2001. Despite these similarities, there was a decrease in the percentage of respondents who said that fear of crime was an important reason for not visiting parks. Strategies such as providing more park information, providing more activities, and developing parks closer to home remained the most desirable constraint reduction strategies over these 10 years. The results indicated that visitors with higher incomes were significantly more likely to report lack of time, being busy with other activities, having family responsibilities, and pursuing recreation elsewhere as important park use constraints in both 1991 and 2001. In terms of age, younger adults were more likely to cite lack of time, being busy with other activities, meeting family responsibilities, pursuing recreation elsewhere, and having a lack of information as important constraints to visiting and using parks in both 1991 and 2001. Gender was fairly stable over time in predicting constraints. In both 1991 and 2001, females were more likely than males to report that they were busy with family responsibilities, feared crime, and had no one to go with them to the park as inhibiting factors that limited park use. Level of education was positively related to lack of time, poor health, fear of crime, and being busy with other activities.

Arab-Moghaddam and Henderson (2007) studied constraints to leisure for Iranian women. They found that for Iranian women the greatest constraints related to the lack of structure for leisure opportunities within their communities. Specific cultural constraints based on traditional views and the social significance of leisure were important, but other typical, economic, social, and personal home expectations were rated as more constraining. Their study revealed that women who were 36-40 years

old perceived their constraints to be higher with reference to household expectations, and personal health and safety. Regarding educational level, women who had less than a high school diploma had more household expectation constraints, and personal health and safety constraints than women who had more education. Women with at least some college education perceived more constraints specific to community structures when compared to less well-educated females. Concerning the influence of marital status, single women perceived more constraints than married women related to community structure, personal money and transportation, and work, while married women perceived more constraints related to household expectations, and personal health and safety. More constraints existed for women who had no personal income. These restrictions related to cultural traditions, household expectations, and personal health and safety, whereas work was a greater constraint for women who had personal income. Differences were found in that women having no children had more constraints related to community structure, and work, while women with three children had greater constraints related to household expectations, and personal health and safety.

Some conclusions can be drawn from previous studies. First, all the previous studies focused only on either leisure or travel constraints, not both. Hence this study examines both to obtain a wider insight into constraints that limit or impede the participation of Omani residents in both travel and leisure. Second, few studies have simultaneously investigated individuals' travel and leisure constraints and the negotiation strategies by which they overcome those constraints. Therefore, this study will attempt to not only investigate travel and leisure constraints that face Omani residents, but also the negotiation strategies they employ to overcome restrictions. Third, both in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires as research instruments were applied in previous studies to collect data about travel and leisure constraints and their respondents' negotiation strategies. Thus, in order to avoid the disadvantages of each approach, this study will employ both to collect data about travel and leisure constraints and Omanis' negotiation strategies. Fourth, there is a lack of studies which have been conducted to identify travel and leisure constraints that face Muslim people. Therefore, this study will extend and deepen our

understanding about travel and leisure constraints through studying travel and leisure constraints experienced by a sample of Muslim people. Fifth, lack of time and money were in general the most frequent reasons for nonparticipation in travel and leisure activities, while sixth, traditional gender stereotyped beliefs in Muslim societies was the most common reason for nonparticipation in leisure activities for Muslim women.

2.6   Section Six: Travel and Leisure Negotiation Strategies

2.6.1 Introduction

The past studies on leisure constraints were built on thought patterns that regarded constraints as "insurmountable obstacles" to participation in leisure activities (Zhang, 2009). These studies assumed that if individuals experience constraints, the expected outcome will be nonparticipation (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993). This notion was rejected by other studies which argued that the presence of constraints did not automatically lead to nonparticipation (Kay & Jackson, 1991; Shaw, Bonen, & McCabe, 1991; Scott, 1991; Henderson, Bedini, Hect, & Schuler, 1995; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). In addition, it has been empirically proven that despite constraints, some individuals succeed in participation by adopting specific strategies, which means that these constraints are "negotiable" and can be successfully negotiated; therefore, the relationship between constraints and participation is not consistently negative, as was assumed in the past (Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Little, 2002; Ayling, 2008; Du, 2008; Lee & Scott, 2009; Koca et al., 2009). Samdahl and Jekubovich (1993) suggested that people are often positive and successful at finding ways to overcome constraints that they encounter. In this context, Jackson et al. (2003) concluded 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). Furthermore, Jackson and Rucks (1995) pointed out that research in the leisure constraints negotiation field was then in its formative stages. However, a particular gap still exists as a result of the dearth of information concerning travel negotiation strategies used by individuals in general and Muslim and Arabic people in particular

77

(Little, 2002; Livengood & Stodlska, 2004; Daniels et al., 2005; Ayling, 2008; Koca et al., 2009).

In this section, negotiation leisure constraints theory is presented and discussed with reference to both societies in general and Islamic culture in particular. Muslim women are not allowed to travel outside their neighbourhood without having as a companion someone selected from among their male relatives, and so women's solo travel experiences (motivations, constraints, and negotiation strategies) are additionally examined in this section. Finally, previous research relevant to the travel and leisure constraint negotiation strategies is analysed and discussed in detail.

2.6.2 Negotiation Leisure Constraint Theory

Negotiation leisure constraint theory was introduced to explain how leisure constraints are overcome or navigated by individuals to achieve their travel and leisure goals (Kay & Jackson, 1991; Scott, 1991). Jackson and Rucks (1995) viewed constraint negotiation as comprising different strategies and resources that enable individuals to overcome, neutralise or minimise the influence of constraints towards participation, depending on the strength of motivation for participation. Constraints negotiation is also defined as the strategies individuals adopt to solve, avoid, or reduce the effect of constraints and barriers to participation in leisure activities (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Compatible with their classification of negotiation strategies, Jackson et al. (1993) described leisure constraint negotiation as the effort of the individual to use behavioural or cognitive strategies to participate in leisure activities despite perceived constraints.

Crawford et al. (1991) and Jackson et al. (1993) explored the hierarchical model of leisure constraints regarding the leisure constraints negotiation process, as follows. Intrapersonal constraints are first experienced by individuals and they interact with motivation to shape leisure preferences to either participate or not in a preferred activity. When intrapersonal constraints are effectively overcome, depending on the intensity of motivation for participation, interpersonal constraints then emerge, depending on the type of leisure activity. When these constraints are successfully

negotiated, the individual then deals with structural constraints. Leisure participation can occur only if structural constraints are successfully overcome (see Figure 2.4). Therefore, participation in leisure activities is directly related to negotiating through an alignment of various factors, arranged in sequence, which must be negotiated to maintain the individual's impetus through these systemic levels (Crawford et al., 1991).

Constraints determine partly, if not entirely, the type of negotiation strategy adopted by individuals (Jackson et al., 1993). Negotiation resources and strategies to overcome travel and leisure constraints can be classified into four types: (1) time management, (2) skill acquisition, (3) interpersonal coordination, and, (4) financial resources and strategies (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). They also can be divided into two groups: (1) cognitive strategies, and (2) behavioural strategies, which are in turn further subdivided into two main groups: modifications to non-leisure aspects of one's life, and modifications to leisure itself (Jackson et al., 1993). Jackson and Rucks (1995), who examined constraint negotiation strategies adopted by junior high and high school students, found that behavioural strategies used 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.

Cognitive strategies are mainly based on mental processes such as ignoring the problem, and not thinking about it, thinking about the importance and advantages of participation in leisure activities, ignoring disapproval of others, or a reappraisal of the situation. Behavioural strategies consist of: (1) taking alternative actions to avoid or overcome the problem, such as making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities; altering the timing and frequency of participation, and learning new leisure skills; and, (2) changing some aspect of one's lifestyle to fit or fulfil requirements of participation in leisure activities, such as spending less time at work (Lee & Scott, 2009).

Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007), White (2008), Hubbared and Mannell (2001), and Ayling (2008) argued that constraints "trigger" and stimulate the use of negotiation strategies (positive role), which then raise the level of participation and satisfaction. Therefore, if individuals' motivations to travel overseas or participate in leisure activities are strong enough, they will be more likely to adopt negotiating strategies and resources that enable them to eventually overcome the various travel and leisure constraints they encountered (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; White, 2008). Hence, investigating the direct influence of motivation and constraints on negotiation strategies implemented by individuals will confirm or refute what both Hubbard and Mannell (2001), and Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) indicated in their structural models (see Figure 2.4) regarding the direct effect of motivation and constraints on negotiation strategies, in addition to providing a better understanding of individuals' leisure behaviour (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Little, 2002; Daniels, Rodgers, & Wiggins, 2005; Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell, 2007; Ayling, 2008). Thus, the following proposition is postulated:

Proposition 8: Both motivation and constraints would "trigger" Omanis' use of negotiation strategies.

Figure 2.4 The Effect of Motivation and Constraints on Negotiation Strategies
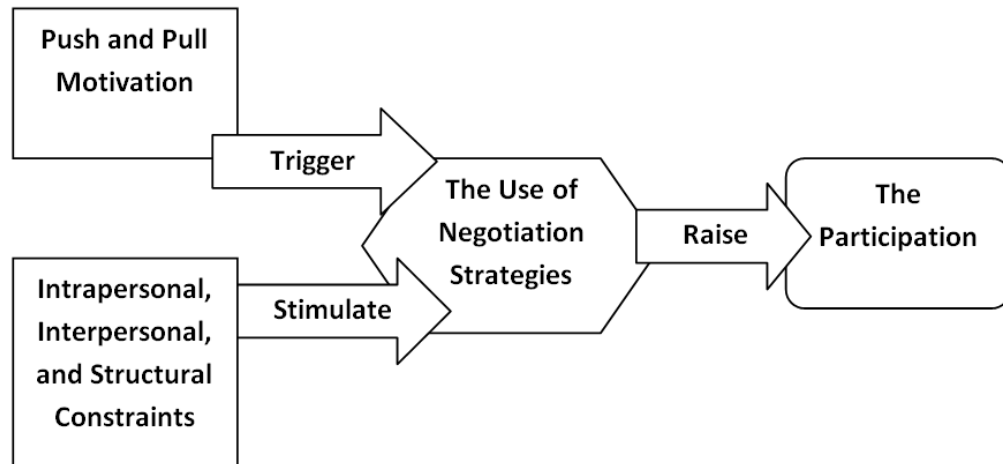
Source: Adapted from Hubbard and Mannell (2001).

2.6.3 Women's solo travel experiences (motivations, constraints, and negotiation strategies)

Within the broader analysis of the influence of gender on tourist behaviour, scholars have focused specifically on women's solo travel. There still remains a lack of research on the male solo travel experience, with the exceptions of Elsrud (2001), and Chhabra (2004) who have studied this subject in an indirect way. In the same context, the importance of studying this issue stems from the increasing role of women in the tourism industry in general, and in the travel industry in particular (Wilson, 2004; Chipkin, 2005). For example, there are expectations that the number of women who travel for business will represent half of all business travellers in the first years of the new millennium compared with 1% in 1970 (Wilson & Little, 2005). According to Wilson and Little (2005), females in modern societies have increased options, resources, and opportunities to practise and experience a wide variety of tourism and leisure choices. Nevertheless, women still face many restrictions when travelling or engaging in leisure activities as a result of their social and gendered location as

female (Hudson, 2000; Wilson, 2004; Wilson & Little, 2005; Small, 2005; Jordan & Gibson, 2005; Jordan & Aitchison, 2008). Small (2005) argues that women continue to be caretakers of their families on holiday. In other words, the gendered roles of the home are merely transported to another location (tourist destination) and, therefore, some women do not consider themselves on holiday unless they are released completely from their family responsibilities. In the same context, Jordan and Gibson (2005) concluded that females tended to have less leisure time while on holiday than males, especially when travelling as part of a family group. This fact is supported by the results of previous studies which found that one of the most important motivations for women to travel in general and to travel solo in particular was escaping from routines, daily life, and work responsibilities (Mehmetoglu et al.,2001; Chipkin, 2005; Elsrud, 2005; Small, 2005; Chiang & Jogaratnam, 2006; Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009). For this reason, the concept of the vacation as a place of contrasts, freedom, and escape is embraced and promoted by the tourism industry (Jordan & Aitchison, 2008). In the same context, Jordan and Gibson (2008) found that women believed that one of the primary benefits of solo travel was their freedom to make their own choices about their travel and leisure activities while on vacation. Furthermore, solo travelling gives them more control over their own life (empowerment), builds confidence, develops new skills, and allows them to experience different cultures and ways of life.

In addition, both Wilson (2004), and Wilson and Little (2005), when analysing the experiences of Australian women who take solo holidays, revealed that constraints do exist and exert an influence on women's lives and travel experiences in a range of ways. These constraints were classified into four categories: sociocultural constraints, which refer to what is socially inappropriate and also socially expected; personal constraints which include fear for personal safety, feelings of vulnerability, and lack of self-confidence; practical constraints consisting of a lack of time and money, and lack of local knowledge of an area or destination relating to language and culture; and, spatial constraints, which include those factors that restrict lone women's freedoms and movement within tourist settings or which modify their decisions about where they can go. In the same context, Wilson and Little (2008) revealed that

women who travel solo perceived travel fears relating to others' perceptions, a susceptibility to vulnerability, a sense of restricted access, and a feeling of conspicuousness.

Furthermore, when analysing the experiences of British and American women who travel solo, Jordan and Gibson (2005) found that they are often subject to "surveillance" which limits their ability to act freely during their holidays. Surveillance as a constraint consists of: a "collective gaze" that refers to the sense of vulnerability, because they are female and subject to a "sexualised gaze" that leads to women feeling that they are subject to the sexualised male gaze when they are alone in different tourism environments. Likewise, Jordan and Aitchison (2008) revealed that women who participated in their study were generally aware of sexualised gazes focused upon them when travelling. However, in some situations, there was real concern amongst solo female tourists about what is known as "sexual terrorism" which refers to occasions when some local men or other tourists go beyond the gaze to physically harassing the women. This type of harassment as a constraint has a strong influence on women's use of public spaces for leisure purposes, especially at night, as a result of a perceived and actual lack of personal safety. They also argued that one of the more important reasons for this phenomenon (the sexualised gaze) could be attributed to the stereotypical image of women in the tourism marketing material, where women who travel alone are usually represented as passive and sexually available. In other words, in order to sell their products and services, tourism providers often link sex and tourism in their publicity material, and frequently depict women as the sexualised objects of the gaze. Thus, the behaviour of people who consume their products or services will be affected by the stereotypical image of women in tourism advertisements, consciously or not.

Jordan and Gibson (2005), and Jordan and Aitchison (2008) found that women resisted this surveillance through resisting and avoiding the gaze of others on vacation, the gaze from home, and additionally resisting voices of authority. For example, some women avert the surveillance of others in restaurants, as an example, by choosing to eat in their hotel rooms, while others avoid the surveillance of others in restaurants by reading a magazine or book in order to ignore the gazes of others

and, at the same time, giving themselves something to focus on rather than the people around them. Additionally, to overcome a lack of local knowledge about destinations and local language and culture, some women use travel guidebooks. Furthermore, in terms of resisting and avoiding sexual harassment during their holidays, some women pretended to be married, wore wedding rings, or claimed that their husbands were present.

Overall, despite changes in gender roles in the past two decades, it appears that women are still facing many obstacles and constraints when they travel as part of their family or travel alone. For example, Hudson (2000) found that there were significant differences between males and females in terms of their participation in skiing activities . Specifically, females perceived significantly higher levels of intrapersonal constraints. In other words, they were more constrained by the perceived dangers of the sport, the perception of skiing as being too physically demanding and dangerous, and a lack of confidence in their ability to meet its athletic requirements. However, it is important to emphasise that the degree of these motivations and constraints varies from one society to another (Kwan, 2000; Jordan & Gibson, 2005). With regard to the impact of these restrictions on women who travel solo, Wilson (2004) suggested that constraints are not insuperable barriers, and confirmed that constraints do not necessarily reduce women's abilities and aspirations to access to travel. Therefore, identifying the travel motivations, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies of Omani outbound female tourists will contribute to a better understanding of women's travel behaviour in general, and contribute to a better understanding of Muslim women's travel behaviour in particular.

2.6.4 *Previous Studies in Travel and Leisure Constraint Negotiation Strategies*

In order to obtain a deep understanding about the theory of travel and leisure negotiation strategies, it is necessary to examine previous empirical research which explored this issue. Travel and leisure constraint negotiation strategies have been empirically explored by researchers with different populations and results. Livengood

and Stodolska (2004) identified constraint negotiation strategies used by American Muslims to overcome discrimination to which they were subjected over a one year period following the September, 11, 2001attack. They found that strategies such as being vigilant, conscious about their surroundings, behaviour modification (e.g., not praying in public), walking in groups, blending in, and restricting travel or modifying travel patterns were adopted to cope with their fears, anxieties, and discrimination.

Jackson and Rucks (1995) examined negotiation strategies adopted by junior high school and high school students. Their study revealed that students adopted both cognitive (11%) and behavioural strategies (79%) to overcome leisure constraints. Cognitive strategies adopted by students consist of "I just put up with it", "ignore these problems", and, "try to be positive and have fun". Behavioural strategies applied by students include time modification, acquiring skills, changing interpersonal relations, improving finances, physical therapy, changing leisure aspirations, and other strategies.

Mowen, Payne and Scott (2005) found that constraint negotiation strategies adopted by park visitors in Northeast Ohio, USA remained fairly stable across a 10-year period. More specifically, strategies such as providing more park information, providing more activities, making parks safer, and developing parks closer to home were the most desirable constraint reduction strategies over the 10-year time period.

Similarly, Stanis, Schneider, and Russell (2009) explored constraint negotiation strategies used by park visitors in the USA. They found that strategies such as financial management, and cognitive and time management were the most frequently used by respondents, while strategies such as acquiring skills, and issue management were the least likely to be adopted to negotiate constraints.

Kleiber and Nimrod (2009) investigated leisure constraints and responses to constraints among male and female retires in the USA. The results indicated that there are five important behavioural responses, and three emotional responses. Behavioural responses were grouped into: (1) reducing and eliminating ("can't do all that I was doing"; (2) persistence with commitment ("unless you are sick, nothing

should stop you"); (3) constraint as project; (4) substitution ("not the same but pretty close"); and, (5) exploration and self-discovery ("try something else"). Emotional responses ranged from the initial frustration to acceptance ("I do not dwell on it") and even gratitude for the possibilities that remain ("Lucky to be alive").

Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) examined leisure constraint and leisure constraint negotiation strategies used by 88 adult volunteers. They revealed that respondents were more constrained by: (1) structural constraints such as time, money, health; (2) interpersonal constraints such as family responsibilities, absence of a leisure partner, and mismatched leisure partner; and, (3) intrapersonal constraints such as low self-esteem, and insecurities. The results indicated that respondents adopted strategies to overcome these constraints, for example, making time for oneself, coordinating time with others, compromising on activity, and acknowledging the significance of sharing.

Koca et al. (2009) studied negotiation strategies used by Turkish women to overcome leisure constraints that they faced. The study revealed that Turkish women adopted a range of different negotiation strategies, such as ignoring negative comments, trying to persuade their families about the benefits of their participation in leisure-time physical activity, organising their time efficiently, arranging their family responsibilities, and participating in physical activities in inexpensive gyms.

Little (2002) identified constraint negotiation strategies used by women with a history of participation in adventure recreation. She found that strategies such as (1) prioritising—"adventure is our life"; (2) compromising—"we did similar activities, but easier", and (3) anticipating—"benefit from their participation in adventure activities" were widely applied by women to negotiate their constraints.

Ayling (2008) investigated the main constraints encountered by attendees and non-attendees at a special event (The Emirates Melbourne Cup) as along with their constraint negotiation strategies. The study revealed that respondents experienced two distinct constraints: (1) internal (e.g., psychological and social relationship factors); and, (2) external (e.g., cost and crowd factors). The results also indicated that

respondents adopted two main negotiation strategies: (1) resource sacrifice (e.g., time, financial and social relationship management), and (2) prior knowledge (e.g., from previous direct and/or vicarious experience of the event).

A review of previous studies confirms some points that have been widely accepted among researchers in travel and leisure fields. First, the types of constraint negotiation strategies used by individuals depend entirely on the constraints experienced (Jackson & Rucks, 2005). Second, the presence of constraints does not inevitably mean nonparticipation (Kay & Jackson, 1991; Shaw, Bonen, & McCabe, 1991; Scott, 1991; Henderson et al., 1995; Ayling, 2008; Zhang, 2009). Third, both in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires as research instruments are applicable to collect data about travel and leisure constraint negotiation strategies. Fourth, there is lack of studies carried out to investigate negotiation strategies used by Muslim and Arabic people. Therefore, this study will seek to broaden and deepen the understanding of travel and leisure constraint negotiation strategies through identifying negotiation strategies applied by Muslim and Arabic people. Furthermore, the current study will benefit from previous studies in three ways: (1) in developing all research instruments (in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires); (2) in selecting the appropriate statistical methods; and, (3) in interpreting and presenting the results of the study.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter was designed to: (1) provide a conceptual framework for the current research, based on extant literature; (2) identify the research gaps in the literature; and, (3) choose appropriate research methods, procedures, sources of data collection and statistical techniques for the research problem. This chapter discussed the existing literature on travel motivations, market segmentation, travel and leisure constraints, travel and leisure negotiation strategies, in addition to the destination choice. This chapter provides clear evidence that issues such as tourist behaviour and destination choice in the Islamic and Arabic world have received scant attention from researchers, at least in the English language academic literature. Therefore, a

contribution would result from aiding the tourism and marketing industries to understand, in general, the travel motivations, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies of Omani tourists (as representing Arab and Muslim tourists) as well as in understanding, in particular, the impact of Islamic teachings on destination choice.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter justifies and presents the research methodology adopted, and highlights a conceptual research framework. It discusses qualitative research and the way in which textual data and an analysis of interviews serve in a supportive role to facilitate questionnaire design. The development of the survey instrument, and the sampling and processing of data for both qualitative and quantitative methods are justified and presented. Finally, ethical issues are also covered in this chapter.

3.2 Research Paradigm and Methodology

3.2.1 Selected Methodology

The study propositions were developed from the analysis of push and pull motivation theory; the three-dimension leisure constraints model; the process of decision-making in tourism; and, the potential influence of motivation and constraints on negotiation strategies implemented by individuals. The nature of this study is explanatory and descriptive. Therefore, to accomplish its objectives, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in a two-stage process to obtain an understanding of the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists (motivation, constraints, negotiation strategies, and destination choice). In particular, in order to broaden and deepen our understanding, qualitative data from in-depth interviews with Omani residents were collected in the first stage. The interview results were used to support the pilot stage, and to aid the design of the questionnaire survey, as well as supporting the questionnaire's findings. In addition, in order to generalise the findings of this study, quantitative data were collected by using a survey based upon the initial qualitative phase. More specifically, self-completion questionnaire items were developed from the finding of in-depth interviews, which were conducted in the first stage. In general, all research instruments (in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires) were developed based on a review of previous related studies.

Jennings (2001) pointed out that the choice of research methodology must be primarily subject to the study questions and to limitations such as time and resources. She also suggested that application of the quantitative method is appropriate in studies that seek to determine the *size* of the phenomenon, whereas the qualitative method is more suitable for studies that examine the *nature* of the phenomenon, and, therefore, the use of both methods makes for the best choice for studies that attempt to focus on both the size and nature of an issue. In this regard, McNeill and Chapman (2005) indicated that the qualitative approach requires extracts of verbatim conversation that give meaning to the "why" and "how" of the patterns, while the quantitative method often necessitates the use of questionnaires. Empirically, Zhang (2009) also concluded that the best way to examine any phenomenon in the tourism field is to employ both methods because they can complement each other.

In this context, Dennis and Valacich (2001) argued that all research approaches have distinct limitations and weaknesses that influence their capability to generate generalisation, realism, and precision. Hence, combining quantitative and qualitative methods assists researchers in avoiding the weaknesses of each method, if applied alone; maximising the reliability and validity of their research findings; and, overcoming the deficiencies associated with both convenience and quota sampling data collection techniques (Hartmann, 1988; Kaplan & Duchon, 1988; Al-masroori, 2006). Therefore, given the nature of the current study objectives, the mixed method, in the context of the post-positivist paradigm, was selected for this study.

3.2.2 Research Objectives, Propositions, and Framework

To provide a clear justification for the mode of research adopted (triangulation methodology), it is necessary to link research objectives and propositions with the selected methodology. Therefore, based on the literature, a research framework is now presented. The general objective of this study is to understand travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists. More specifically, the study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

1. To examine the travel motivations of Omani tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations;

2. To determine whether there are significant differences in travel motivations which could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status;

3. To segment Omani tourists based on their push-pull motivations in order to identify their personal characteristics;

4. To investigate the impact of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure travel destination, and their participation in leisure activities;

5. To identify travel and leisure constraints that impede Omani residents from travelling outside Oman, and participating in leisure activities; and,

6. To identify their travel and leisure negotiation strategies in order to overcome the travel and leisure constraints.

Therefore, for empirical testing, a number of propositions have been developed from the review of the literature related to the study objectives. These propositions are:

Proposition 1: The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Omani outbound tourists market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions.

Proposition 2: Socio-demographic variables have an influence on push and pull travel motivations.

Proposition 3: It is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations.

Proposition 4: The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination and participation in leisure activities.

Proposition 5: The three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation.

Proposition 6: Travel and leisure constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables.

Proposition 7: Omanis' participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel is an outcome of the joint action of travel motivations and constraints.

Proposition 8: Both motivation and constraints will "trigger" Omanis' use of negotiation strategies.

Figure 3.1 The Process of Research

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                    │    Literature Review    │
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                                 ↓
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │  Developing Propositions │
                    └────────────┬────────────┘
                                 ↓
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │    In-depth Interviews   │
                    └────────────┬────────────┘
                                 ↓
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │     Content Analysis     │
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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │   Questionnaire Design   │
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                    │ Conducting Questionnaire │
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                    │        Data Entry        │
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                    │       Data Analysis      │
                    └────────────┬────────────┘
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                    │       Result Report      │
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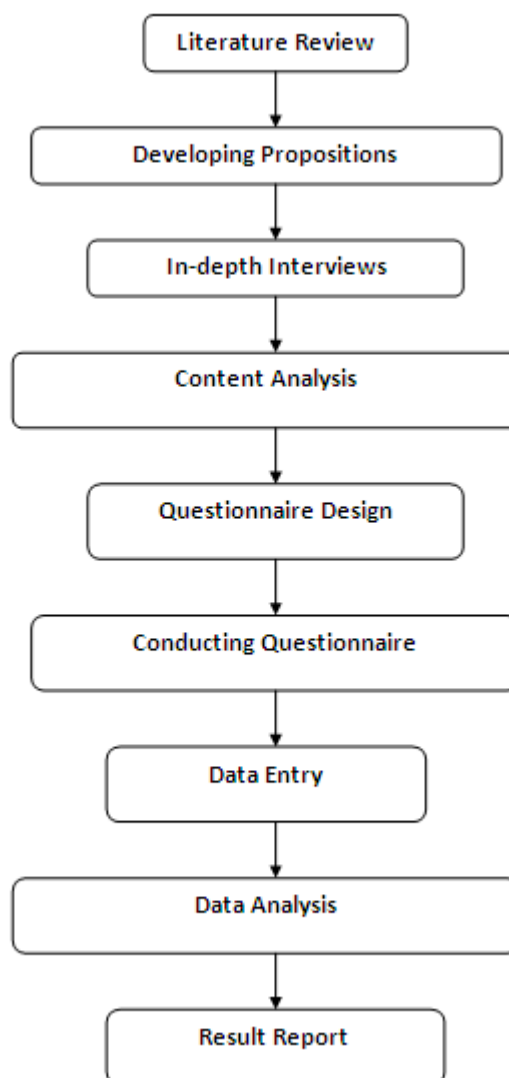
In the previous figure the words "Conducting Questionnaire" should be followed by the word "Survey". Remember, the instrument is the survey, and the questions make up the questionnaire.

A review of the literature in Chapter Two indicated that both qualitative and quantitative approaches can be used to collect data regarding the issues under investigation in the current study. More specifically, the quantitative method is commonly applied to issues of travel motivation, constraints, negotiation strategies, and destination choice. In this regard, Jennings (2001) pointed out that quantitative methodology gives an opportunity to "provide findings from the sample that may be generalized to the wider study population" (p. 131). Therefore, the quantitative approach was adopted in this study to collect data regarding these variables through the use of self-completion questionnaires in the second stage. On the other hand, Jennings (2001) also argued that one of the most important attributes of qualitative methodology is generating "emblematic themes that arise during the course of study" (p. 129). Hence, this study also employed the qualitative method in the first stage to provide the themes to be used in developing self-completion questionnaires which support the findings of the qualitative research. In this context, Jennings (2001), and Creswell and Clark (2007) stated that one way of applying the mixed method in tourism research is by conducting a qualitative method in the first stage to explore a phenomenon and determine themes or focal points for a quantitative study that is carried out in the second stage. Figure 3.1 indicates this research process.

The following conceptual framework illustrates the study objectives and propositions drawn from the literature (see Figure 3.2). The model consists of four variables: (1) motivations to travel overseas (push and pull); (2) travel and leisure constraints; (3) negotiation constraint strategies; and, (4) the Islamic religion as a significant factor in destination choice. This model attempts primarily to explain the relationships among these variables as well as their influence on travel behaviour. The model shows that push travel motivations directly and indirectly affect participation in travel. The model also indicates that the pull motivation plays a significant role in choosing a specific destination. Awaritefe (2004) and Hsu et al.,(2009) argued that travel

93

motivation significantly affects people's choice of destination. In addition, the model supposes that travel motivations affect the use of negotiation strategies (positive role), which then raise the level of participation and satisfaction. On the other hand, if individuals' motivations to travel overseas or participate in leisure activities are not strong enough, they may not be able to overcome travel and leisure constraints that face them (negative role), a situation which will lead to nonparticipation. However, the model adopts the notion that describes encountered constraints as motivators to use different negotiation strategies to achieve the participation in travel activities (positive role). Unfortunately, I cannot grasp your intended meaning here. As the figure shows, constraints also have an influence on destination choice. For instance, distance as a constraint may impact on the choice of destination, with the result that individuals end up choosing tourist destinations that are closest to their normal place of residency and ignore faraway destinations, even if they are their preferred destinations. Moreover, the model assumes that the use of negotiation constraint strategies is positively affected by motivation and negatively affected by constraints. Therefore, negotiation strategies play a central role in participation in travel in general, and in destination choice in particular. Additionally, the model explains the expected role of the Islamic teachings in terms of participation in leisure activities, and choice of destination. The Islamic religion is supposed to have indirect influence on destination choice through its teachings which encourage Muslims to choose destinations that add real material and spiritual benefits to them, and to avoid destinations that may influence their beliefs and behaviour negatively. The impact of Islamic teachings is also expected in this model to affect both male and female Muslims' leisure participation. They are, as an example, not allowed to participate in activities that require intermixing of men and women, an activity which is strictly prohibited by the Law of Islam (*Shari'ah*) (Holy Qur'an, 5:90; Islam Q&A, 2012). Finally, the model demonstrates that Islamic teachings play an indirect role in shaping individuals' motivation. In so doing, it emphasises the influence of Islam on individuals' travel behaviour in general and on their destination choice in particular. It must be noted that the dashed lines in Figure 3.2 signify an indirect effect of variables.

Figure 3.2 Research Framework
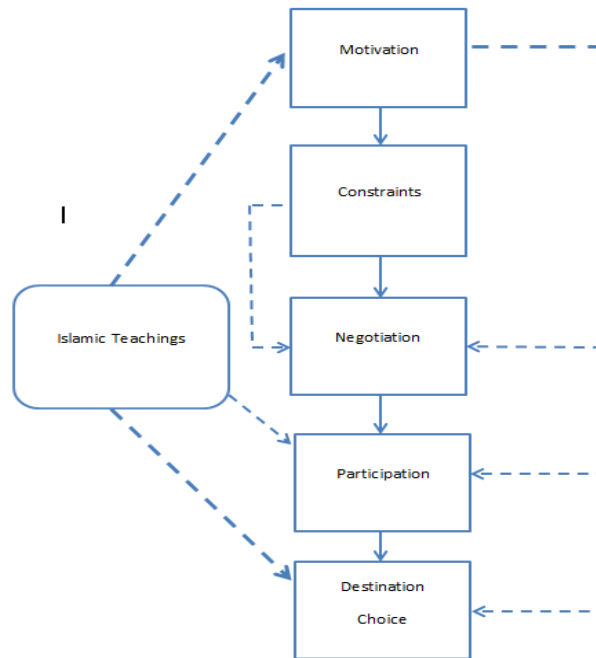
3.2.3 Selected Paradigm

In undertaking research, a researcher must adopt and follow one of a number of research paradigms. A paradigm can simply be defined as "a basic set of beliefs that guide action, whether of everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry" (Guba, 1990, p.1). This definition introduces the idea that a paradigm acts as a guide or map that provides a certain vision as to how to deal with the phenomenon being researched, determines the role of researcher, and identifies the research instruments that can be applied (Herdrick, 1994; Sarantakos, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002). A paradigm has also been viewed as " the entire constellation of beliefs, values, and techniques which is shared by members of a given community, and it denotes one sort of element in that constellation, the concrete puzzle-solutions which, employed as model or examples, can replace explicit rules as a basis for the solution of the remaining puzzle of normal science" (Kuhn, 1970, p. 175). This definition emphasises that a paradigm is a model for example that includes beliefs, values, and techniques that assist a researcher in

searching for knowledge (Datta, 1994). A paradigm has also been comprehensively described as the philosophy or school of thought determining the research method, representing different views of the nature of knowledge, and controlling the role of the researcher (Herdick, 1994).

There are four alternative paradigms that have been comprehensively discussed in the literature, namely: positivism, post positivism (also referred to as realism), critical theory, and constructivism (e.g., Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Neuman, 2006; Zahra & Ryan, 2007). Table 4.1 presents a summary of the four alternative paradigms in terms of their philosophical assumptions (ontology, epistemology, and methodology).

Table 3.1 Assumptions of the Four Alternative Paradigms

Alternative Paradigms	Positivism	Post positivist	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology: The reality that the researcher investigates	Realism: Truth exists and can be identified and discovered. Reality is real.	Critical realism: Truth exists but can be comprehended only partially. Reality is real. Imperfect/ probabilistical.	Value laden realism: Truth shaped by social processes. Can be known.	Relativism: Knowledge is socially constructed, local and specific. Is constructed in people's minds.
Epistemology: The relationship between reality and the researcher	Objectivism: Observer is unbiased. Findings are true.	Objectivism is ideal but can be approximated. Findings are probably true.	Subjectivism: Values influence inquiry. Findings are mediated by values.	Subjectivism: Knowledge created and coproduced by researcher and subject. Findings are created.
Methodology: The technique used by the researcher to investigate that reality	Hypothesis testing, falsification controlled conditions. Primarily quantitative methods	Modified quantification, field studies, and some qualitative methods. Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods	Interactive process that seeks to challenge commonly held notions. Any with a critical stance Dialogical/ dialectical	Process of reconstructing multiple realities through informed consensus. Primarily qualitative methods

Source: Adapted from Guba (1990); Denzin & Lincoln (1994, 1998); Riley & Love (2000); Ryan, (2000); Al-masroori (2006).

The current study was developed from the analysis of the theory of push and pull travel motivations; from the hierarchical model of leisure constraints; and, from negotiation leisure constraints theory. The findings of such studies were then

combined with the teachings of the Islamic religion, the relationship between Islam and tourism, and the nature of Omani society when the research propositions were being developed. Given this, mixed methods in the context of post-positivist paradigm were selected for this study, because this approach provides an opportunity to obtain in-depth understanding about social and human phenomena by utilizing triangulation derived from the combining of quantitative and qualitative methods (Jick, 1979; Hedrick, 1994; Decrop, 1999).

Denzin and Lincoln (1998), and Crossan (2003) argued that the context of study, the nature of the phenomena being investigated, and the researcher's experience and personal beliefs play a critical role in the choice of the research paradigm, as well as in the selection of research methods. This view is built on the fact that the post-positivist paradigm accepts the presence of truths in methodologies that focus on the experience or meanings of individuals (Clark, 1998; Ryan, 2000). According to Gale and Beeftink (2005), many scholars suggest post positivistic approaches play a significant role in understanding the complex nature of social science phenomena such as tourism satisfaction decision-making.

This paradigm also examines an external social reality to gain an in-depth description of the phenomenon (Hunt, 1990; Trochim, 2002). More specifically, this study studies Omanis' push and pull motivations in terms of what influences them to choose a destination; what impedes them from travelling (constraints); and what they did to overcome these constraints (negotiation strategies), all of which are considered as social and human phenomena. In addition, the current study essentially seeks to test the causal relationships among the research variables (motivation, constraints, negotiation strategies, and Islam). This objective can also be achieved under the umbrella of the post-positivist paradigm which focuses on revealing and predicting the causal relationships among variables through the use of logical deduction and quantitative methods (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Ayling, 2008).

In addition, in seeking to ensure that all aspects of travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists are covered in a comprehensive manner, the choice of the post-

positivism paradigm is reinforced by other considerations. The philosophical propositions and assumptions of the post-positivist paradigm, when compared with other paradigms, allow (indeed possibly encourage) the researcher to take advantage of the techniques of quantitative and qualitative approaches alike (see Table 4.1). In this respect, Ryan (2000) concluded that since "positivistic research methodologies contain limitations regarding the use of qualitative methods such as conversation, it is (sic) not able to define the nature of individual tourist experience" (p. 119), and, therefore, "the use of phenomenographic analysis is consistent with the ontology and epistemology of post-positivist modes of research" (p. 120). In this sense, Healy and Perry (2000) concur that the analytical techniques used by studies such as this one are appropriate within the post-positivist paradigm, as it recognises and allows the testing of complex structures found in social research contexts. Clark (1998) also pointed out that, given the limitations of positivism where qualitative data or truths obtained outside a quantitative method are excluded, the philosophy of post positivism is increasingly noted as one that supports contemporary empirical research activity.

Surveys and structured or semi structured interviews are deemed to be the basic data collection inquiry techniques in a post-positivist paradigm (Guba, 1990; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 1998; Riley & Love, 2000; Al-masroori, 2006). Thus, the understanding of the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists required both quantitative and qualitative methods to achieve a high level of objectivity when collecting and analysing the data and in dealing with respondents. In this respect, Jick (1979) argued that the use of multiple methods is deemed a distinct tradition in the literature on social science. He also mentioned that "triangulation may be used, not only to examine the same phenomenon from multiple perspectives but also to enrich our understanding by allowing for new or deeper dimensions to emerge" (p. 604). Decrop (1999) went further when suggesting that personal and methodological biases can be minimised by collecting data in relation to the study questions from more than one source.

In post-positivist, reality is indeed real and exists, but it is thought that researchers cannot truly perceive that reality. Therefore, they must be critical about their work

(Guba, 1990; Gabriel, 1990; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 1998; Riley & Love, 2000; Al-masroori, 2006). Accordingly, examining the phenomena or research propositions by adopting triangulation (using different research instruments to collect data regarding the research problem) can serve as a means to achieve critical thinking and, therefore, help the researcher to make careful judgments in terms of the research questions. In this context, Jick (1979) stated that the accuracy of the research judgment can be improved by collecting different kinds of data bearing on the same phenomenon. Trochim (2006) also pointed out that in order to obtain an exact knowledge in relation to what is happening in reality, the post-positivist emphasises the importance of using multiple measures and observations when examining social and human phenomena.

Finally, since this study was examining the impact of the Islamic teachings on the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists, there was a real need to employ both quantitative and qualitative approaches to assess this sensitive issue.

3.3 Research Design

Consistent with its purpose, the current study is seen to be exploratory research. To broaden and deepen our understanding of the research problem, the research design was divided into three main phases, namely: the qualitative, quantitative, and the final interpretation phase.

Table 3.2 Interview Questions and Research Objectives

Research Objectives	Interview Questions
To examine the travel motivations of Omani tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations	1. Why did you take pleasure trip abroad? 2. What attracted you to choose a particular destination?
To investigate the impact of Islam on their choice of a pleasure travel destination and their participation in leisure activities	3. Do you think that Islamic religion discourages Muslims from visiting a specific destination (s)? Why? 4. Does Islam affect your destination choice? (if yes) please describe this effect? 5. Does Islam affect your participation in leisure activities? (if yes) please describe this effect?
To identify travel and leisure constraints that impeded Omani residents from travelling outside Oman, and participating in leisure activities	6. Do you have a plan to travel abroad within the next 2 years? 7. (if no) What inhibits you from travelling abroad? 8. What types of leisure activities do/did you participate in in your leisure times now/in the past? 9. What inhibits you from participation in certain leisure activities?
To identify their travel and leisure negotiation strategies in order to overcome the travel and leisure constraints	10. What personal strategies did you use to overcome travel constraints? 11. What personal strategies did you use to overcome leisure constraints? 12. Were these strategies "triggered" by motivation and constraints?

In the qualitative phase, one-to-one semi structured interviews with a number of Omani people who have travelled abroad in the previous 2 years were conducted. The content of the interview transcripts was analysed using CatPac (CATegory PACKage) software supported by the use of Leximancer. The findings of the interview data assisted in: (1) generating main themes about the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists which then helped in developing the self-completion questionnaire for a second phase, as well as (2) supporting the findings of the self-completion questionnaire in the final interpretation phase. Semi structured interviews focused on why respondents took a pleasure trip abroad; what attracted them to choose a particular destination; what inhibited them from travelling abroad; and, how they overcame such constraints. Table 3.2 shows the semi structured interview questions linked with the research objectives.

In the quantitative phase (scale development), the findings of the first phase (interview results), as well as a review of previous studies, were utilised to: (1) generate scale items, and (2) design the questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was then distributed to a large sample group to allow the researcher to generalise research findings through supporting and complementing findings obtained from the qualitative method, and to expand on them. During this phase, the scale validation was tested through such means as the assessment of the factor structure and construct validity of the scaling items. Means, standard deviations, t-test, ANOVA, factor analysis, cluster analysis as well as regression were used to analyse the questionnaire answers in SPSS.

Jennings (2001) pointed out that self-completion questionnaires are used in a variety of ways. In this study the questionnaire consisted of 11 main sections: general information relating to travel, reasons for travelling overseas, features and attractions, reasons for not travelling overseas, reasons for not participating in leisure activities, travel negotiation strategies, leisure negotiation strategies, the influence of Islamic teachings on travel behaviour, the influence of Islamic teachings on leisure behaviour, the relationship among variables, and demographic information. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 7-point scale (see Appendix 1).

In the final interpretation phase, the study findings were combined and interpreted in order to answer the study questions. Furthermore, based on its findings, practical applications of the current study, and recommendations for future research were suggested in this phase.

3.4 Validity and Reliability

In order to: (1) gain data relevant to the purposes of the research instruments, and (2) gather data with maximum reliability and validity, the research instruments were pretested at different stages to establish validity and reliability, including conducting pilot studies for both in-depth interviews and the self-completion questionnaire, experts' opinions, content validity, and internal consistency.

In order to obtain feedback on the clarity and appropriateness of both research instruments (in-depth interviews and the self-completion questionnaire), two pilot studies were conducted in different stages with a number of Omani residents. On the basis of the pilot studies, some modifications were made to ensure participants could better understand the questions and items of the research instruments. The preliminary questionnaire and interview were designed in English and translated into Arabic. According to Tuncalp (1988) "the cross-linguistic comparability of the English and the Arabic versions can be checked by a third person who is bilingual in English and Arabic" (p. 18). Therefore, two Omani doctoral students who have sufficient language skills in both English and Arabic were asked to check the correspondence of meaning between the two versions and to make changes when necessary in the Arabic questionnaire/interview questions. The final version of the Arabic interview and questionnaire were considered to be parallel instruments to the English interview and questionnaire, and thus ready to be administered.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethics approval for the current study was granted by the Waikato Management School Research Ethics Committee. Therefore, all personal information collected from individuals during this research is kept confidential in accordance with the regulations of the Ethics Committee of the University of Waikato.

In order to protect participants' identities, the names of respondents were not required for the completion of either the questionnaire or interviews. In addition, data collected from the participants was accessed by no one but the researcher and his supervisors. The original data collected will be held securely and will be destroyed 3 years after completion of the study. Participation in the study was voluntary. Therefore, participants could withdraw from the study at any time.

3.6 Conclusion

The justifications behind selection of the research paradigm and methodology were discussed and linked with related literature in this chapter. The nature of the study

and its objectives were also taken into account when a mixed method was chosen to conduct the current study. Data collection methods (in-depth interviews and a self-completion questionnaire survey), the research design, the validity and reliability of the research instruments as well as the study's ethical considerations were described in this chapter. More details regarding the stages of the qualitative and quantitative data collection are provided in the next two chapters.

Chapter Four: Phase One: In-depth Interviews

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned in chapter 3, the current study adopted mixed methods to gain qualitative and quantitative insights into the research problem. Chapter 4 will focus on the qualitative study. The chapter includes: (a) the outcomes of the interview pilot study, (b) the interview procedures, (c) the demographic profile of the participants, (d) a brief description of textual analysis software, and, (e) the qualitative results derived from analysing the data using CatPac (CATegory PACkage) and Leximancer software.

4.2 The Pilot Study

The role of the interview method in this study was determined as follows: (a) collecting primary data (exploratory step), (b) generating themes in order to develop scale items for the survey, and, subsequently, (c) supporting the findings of the quantitative research. Based on the research objectives and a comprehensive review of the travel behaviour literature, the interview questions were developed. The interview questions were designed to measure the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists, including their travel motivation; travel and leisure constraints; travel and leisure negotiation strategies; and the impact of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure travel destination and their participation in leisure activities (see Table 3.2 in Chapter 3). In order to obtain feedback on the clarity and appropriateness of the interview questions, a pilot test was first conducted with 10 Omani respondents who had travelled abroad in the previous year. On the basis of the pilot test, some modifications were made to ensure respondents could better understand the interview questions. More specifically, the pilot study revealed that: (1) respondents preferred to be question in the Omani dialect (spoken language) rather than in classical Arabic; (2) there was a need to clarify the research concepts for respondents (especially those who have a low level of education) and to help the researcher to obtain accurate

answers and, therefore, reduce misinterpretation; (3) to keep the conversation flowing it was sometimes necessary to ask the same question using different words; (4) it was necessary to provide participants with examples regarding the research concepts assisted their understanding their interview questions, and, (5) the use of body language (positive gestures) on the part of the researcher encouraged respondents to elaborate on their answers. Overall, the pilot testing paved the way for the researcher: (a) to become more familiar with the interview structure, (b) to check the relevancy, accuracy, and reliability of the interview questions, and, (c) to confirm the effectiveness of the key question areas.

4.3 In-depth Interview Procedures

The main objective of applying in-depth interview is to explore, understand, and provide in-depth coverage of the individual's perspective on a particular idea or situation (Rubin & Rubin, 1985; Seidman, 1998; Silva & Correia, 2008). This technique's flexibility makes it suitable for this study as this flexibility enables the researcher to gain and gather rich and detailed information regarding participant's experiences and opinions. Furthermore, using this technique allows the researcher to adjust or alter the question wording and order smoothly in line with the flow of conversation (Bernard, 2000; Babbie, 2005). In this context, Walter (2006) also argued that in-depth interview was considered the most effective technique for examining experiences of potentially sensitive issues, such as the impact of religion on travel behaviour. All the interview questions were open-ended questions which provide participants with some degree of freedom to illustrate their points and expand on their opinions (Liu, 2008).

In the qualitative interview stage, the following procedures were followed prior to, and during, each interview:

(1) First, potential participants were approached in public places (e.g., community sports areas, supermarkets, and public parks). They were asked if they had travelled overseas in the previous 3 years or if they planned to travel overseas for a holiday in the coming year. In all, the researcher conducted 27 interviews. Conducting 20 to 30

interviews is considered acceptable and acknowledged within the scope of social research to generate sufficient constructs to crystallise deeper meanings regarding the topic of conversation (Ginsberg, 1989; Warren, 2002). Quota sampling was adopted in selecting the sample, taking socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, and occupation into account. This type of sampling allows the researcher to choose respondents from each subset (Dodge, 2003).

(2) All the female participants were then asked if they wanted to be interviewed in the presence of their mahrams (such as their husband or brother); all preferred to be interviewed alone in a public place.

(3) The researcher then built rapport with participants. This initial conversation included such things as a self-introduction, talking about the weather, and how the participant's day had been so far.

(4) After that an information sheet was given to the participants; it contained specific instructions about participating in the interview.

(5) Next, a consent form was given to the participants to assure each person of his/her right to withdraw from the interview at any time.

(6) The researcher then asked the participants if they were willing to be involved in the research and if the interview could be digitally recorded. In each instance the participant agreed.

(7) Participants were then asked to sign a consent form. On this form the respondent's identity was referred to by a pseudonym or number (e.g., male government official, number 1).

(8) The digital recorder was then turned on and the interview begun.

(9) During the interview, the researcher immediately recorded each participant's important answers, and the responses were then verbally summarised for the participants to verify. In this regard, Liu (2008) argued that writing down the participants' answers in front of them gives them the impression that their answers are

important, which may reinforce their interaction during the interview. All the interviews were conducted in the local version of the Arabic language. The interviews took approximately 25 to 35 minutes, with the average conversation lasting around 20 minutes.

(10) After the interviews had been completed, the researcher allowed the participants to listen to the recording.

(11) Soon after, the participants were asked if they wanted to add any comments regarding the interview questions.

(12) At the end of the interviews, participants were again informed that they could contact the researcher at any time if they needed further information, or to receive the conclusions of the study.

(13) The participants were then thanked for their time and support.

(14) Immediately after each conversation, the researcher spent 15 to 20 minutes organising the written notes that had been made during the interview in order to generate a brief summary of the significant points of that interview.

(15) Finally, the digital recording of each interview was transcribed and typed up by the researcher. All interviews were conducted in Arabic, and transcribed in Arabic. Hence all quotations used in the following text are verbatim text, but translated into English.

(16) In order to obtain reliable findings from the qualitative research, the interview material was then systematically content analysed using CatPac and Leximancer software. The process involved three steps: (a) translating the content of interviews from Arabic to English; (b) typing up the content of interviews as a Microsoft word file and then saving it as a ".text" file; and, (b) adjusting the data by removing conjunctions, personal pronouns, prepositions etc. All the interviews took place during June and July, 2011.

4.3.1 Accessing Female Respondents and the Influence of the Interviewer's Gender

According to Shah (2004), accessing Muslim female participants must be "negotiated within cultural conventions and constraints" (p. 556). According to Islamic teachings, a Muslim woman is not allowed to sit with a man who is a stranger in a private place such as a closed room (Roald, 2001). Therefore, the current study adopted strict standards and procedures that took account of the cultural and traditional values of Omani society when accessing female participants. More specifically, the interviewing of female respondents was governed by the following procedures:

a) In order to gain approval to conduct the interviews, the researcher first consulted with the management of the places selected as the interviews sites (universities, high schools, Ministries), explaining to them the purpose of research and showing them the ethics approval obtained from the University of Waikato. These venues were chosen because they offered easy access to educated women who would it was thought would be more likely to agree to participate in an interview.

b) The female participants were randomly selected from these places in the presence of another woman who was working in that place.

c) The researcher provided detailed information about the interview questions for potential participants.

d) The researcher then asked them if they would be willing to be involved in the research, and also if the interview could be recorded, providing that the respondent's identity was disguised by the use of a pseudonym or number (e.g., female government official, number 1).

e) A consent form was also given to them to assure each person of her right to withdraw from the interview at any time.

f) Participants then were asked to sign a consent form.

g) They were informed that they had the right to refuse to answer any particular question.

h) They were all then asked if they wanted to be interviewed in the presence of their mahrams (e.g., husband or brother), or in the presence of their female friends; all them preferred to be interviewed alone in public places.

i) The researcher allowed the interviewees to decide the place and time of interviews, so that each interviewee would feel relaxed and the interview process would not be disturbed. The locations were agreed upon in consultation with the management of the places chosen.

j) The University of Waikato's Human Research Ethics Regulations were reviewed and applied to maintain the privacy of participants and to consider any ethical standards.

However, approaching the opposite sex carries with it a well-known issue regarding the effects of the interviewer's gender on participants' responses to sensitive questions (Axinn, 1991; Hassan, 2011). In terms of the current study, the issue of how the gender of the researcher (male) might influence the participants' responses (females), given the research's Islamic context, cannot be ignored. However, the researcher believes that a number of factors contributed to minimising the effect of the interviewer's gender on participants' responses, such as: (1) the interview questions that did not touch upon sensitive or very personal questions that might have prevented the respondents from answering freely and openly; (2) consulting the potential participants in advance; (3) making the respondent's identity anonymous; (4) conducting the interviews in public places; (5) the majority of the female participants were well educated; (6) Omani people are much more liberal compared to, for example, Saudi people; (7) women usually are more willing to express their views; (8) the interviewer and interviewees' sharing the same cultural and religious values encouraged the participants to speak without restrictions; and, (9) applying in-depth interview techniques allows the researcher to adjust or alter the questioning smoothly in terms of its wording and order, according to the flow of conversation.

There is also the factor to consider which is that Oman is part of a 21st Century world where increasingly there is a questioning of societally allocated roles based on gender alone, and where no country can afford to ignore the skill sets and competencies of its population including such things as gender, if it is to retain membership of a contemporary world.

4.4 The Demographic Profile of Participants

A profile of those participating in the in-depth interviews is provided in Table 4.1. Of the 27 participants, slightly more than half, 14 (52%), were female and 13 (48%) were male. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 60 years of age, with a mean age of 36. Regarding their marital status, a descriptive analysis of the sample showed that the majority of participants (85%) were married. In terms of their educational level, 33.5% of the participants confirmed that they had a Diploma, 26% had a Bachelor's degree, and 18% had received solely a secondary education. The majority of participants received a monthly income of between 500 to 1000 OMR (approximately NZ$1500 to NZ$3,000 in 2011), making up 52% of participants; 22% of participants were earning under 500 OMR, and 18.5% had an income over 1000 to 1500 OMR. Most participants were working in the private sector (63%), while the remaining participants (37%) were working as public servants. Finally, the average number of travel occasions was seven.

Table 4.1. The Demographic Profiles of Participants in Interviews

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender		
Male	13	48%
Female	14	52%
Total	27	100%
Age Groups		
Below the age of 26	8	30%
Between the ages of 26 to 40	9	33%
Over the age of 40	10	37%
Total	27	100%
Educational Levels		
Secondary School	5	18.5%
High School	3	11%
Diploma	9	33.5%
Bachelor's Degree	7	26%
Master's Degree	3	11%
Total	27	100%
Marital Status		
Single	4	15%
Married	23	85%
Total	27	100%
Income		
Under OR 500	5	18.5%
Over OR 500 to OR 1000	14	52%
Over OR 1000 to OR 1500	6	22%
Over OR 1500	2	7.5%
Total	**27**	**100%**

4.5 Textual Analysis Software

As noted previously, the interviews were analysed with the help of the software package CatPac supplemented by Leximancer. These software packages are designed for reading text files and summarising the main ideas through producing simple diagnostics (e.g., word and alphabetical frequencies). They help the researcher to discover patterns of word usage and to present such outputs as simple word counts, cluster analysis (with icicle plots), and interactive neural cluster analysis. A supportive add-on program called Thought View can create two and three-dimensional concept maps based on the outputs of CatPac software analysis (Marya & George, 1996; Liu, 2008). In this regard, the current study also used programs such

as Leximancer and its "cloud" analysis to support the findings derived from CatPac. Compared with other text analysis software (e.g., Atlas ti), neither program requires steps such as precoding, preconceived categories, and testing of intercoder reliability, hence reducing time and costs in qualitative research (Liu, 2008; "Automatic Clustering/Coding", 2011), although some data cleaning is required to remove word redundancies.

4.6 The Qualitative Results

The in-depth interview questions were structured into four parts, in accordance with the research objectives (see Table 2 in Chapter 3). The first part sought to obtain a detailed description regarding the travel motivations of Omani tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations. The second part focused on investigating the impact of Islamic teachings on participants' choice of a pleasure travel destination and their participation in leisure activities. The third part was developed to identify travel and leisure constraints that impeded them from travelling outside Oman, and participating in leisure activities. The last part was designed to examine the travel and leisure negotiation strategies which were adopted by the participants to overcome perceived travel and leisure constraints. The qualitative research findings will, therefore, be presented in the following sequence.

4.6.1 Part One: Travel Motivations of Omani Outbound Tourists

The first part of the interview consisted of two questions focusing on the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists. The first question related to the motives for taking a pleasure or holiday trip abroad. As can be seen from Figure 4.1, the right hand side of the dendogram plotted by CatPac clearly shows "the desire to get away from daily routine", and "the desire to experience another country" (highlighted in green) to be motivators. To the left of that come clusters relating to "visiting other people", and "seeing the culture, traditions and customs of others" (highlighted in yellow), while in the centre of the dendogram are concepts relating to the study. The left hand side of the dendogram shows a common cluster of words relating to "visits

to the United Arab Emirates", while other themes that emerge are those that relate to "weather", "religion" and "'entertainment and relaxation".

Figure 4.1 Push Travel Motivations of Omani Outbound Tourists
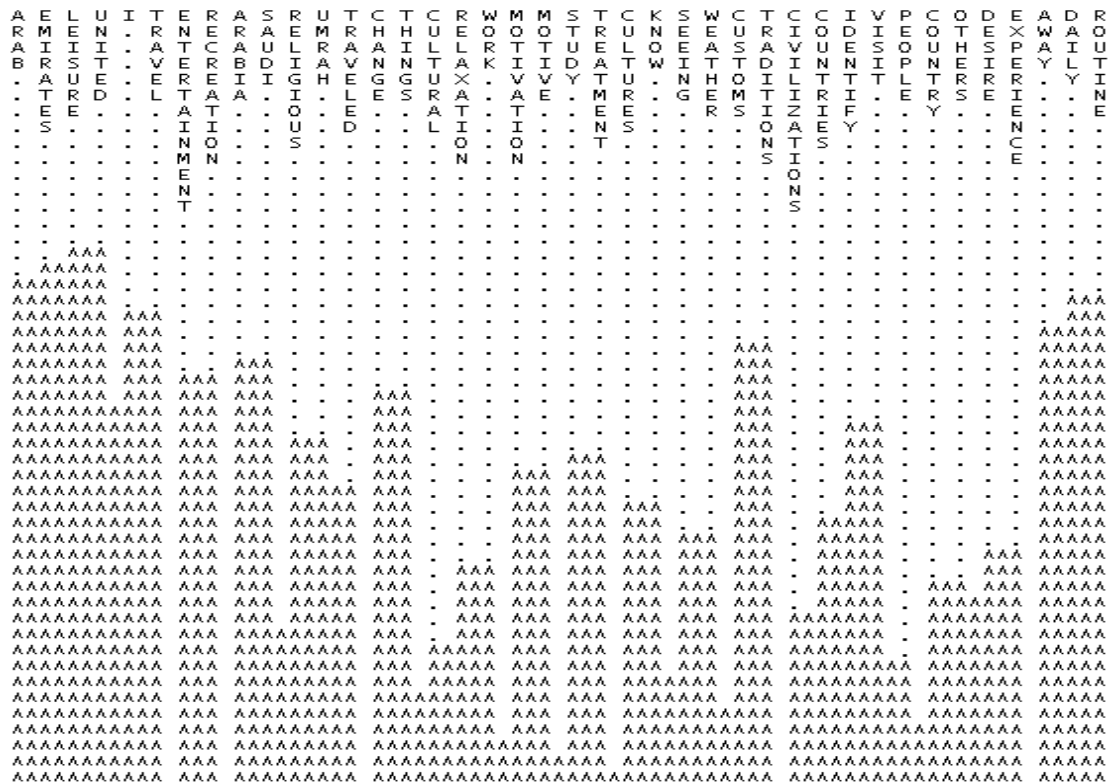
Figure 4.2 The Perceptual Map of Push Travel Motivation
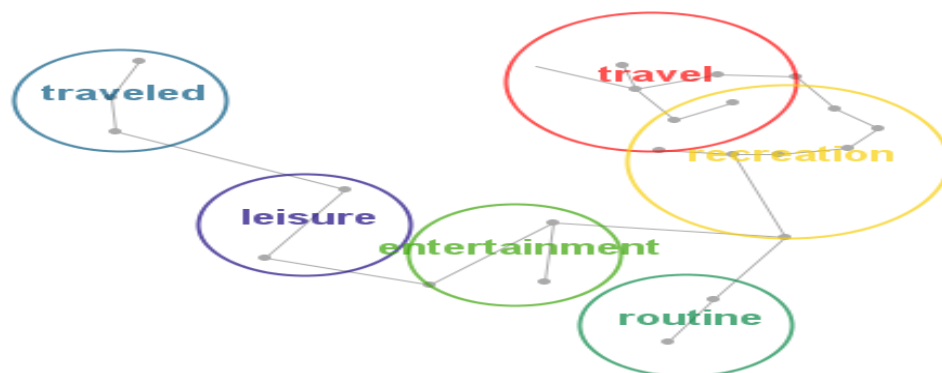
The perceptual map that was generated using the Leximancer program (Figure 4.2) reconfirms the same themes: with travel for "relaxation", "leisure activities", "recreation", "entertainment" and "a break from routine" all featuring prominently.

As shown in Figure 4.3, resetting the dimensions slightly produces what the software calls a "cloud" analysis in which spatial proximity, size of lettering, and colouring indicate the relationship between the constructed or latent variables within the text. This analysis confirms the previous analysis and reiterates "the importance of culture and traditions of other countries and peoples" as a motive for travel.

Figure 4.3 The Relationship between the Constructed or Latent Variables within the Text

In more detail, the transcripts revealed the use of the following phrases regarding push motivations, which support the findings above:

A) Push factors concluded from the above analysis:

  ❖ The desire for getting away from daily routine:

"… Travel helps me to get rid of the pressure of work."

"… To escape from a daily routine."

"... I travel to relax after a year of hard work."

❖ The desire to experience another country:

"... To explore new countries."

"... To see a new country in order to learn new things."

"... To discover new places around the world."

❖ Visiting other people:

"... Travel makes me meet new people."

"... To see how other people live and their way of life."

"... I travel to mix with other tourists."

❖ Seeing the culture, traditions and customs of others:

"... I travel to see different cultures."

"... I travel to see the traditions and customs of others."

"... To visit heritage sites."

❖ Visits to the United Arab Emirates:

"... I travelled to the UAE for entertainment."

"... Shopping is one of my motivations to visit the UAE."

❖ Weather:

"... To escape from the hot weather in Oman."

"... Nice weather attracts me."

"... To experience different weather conditions."

❖ Entertainment and relaxation:

115

"... I am travelling to spend my holiday just relaxing."

"... My first motivation to travel is relaxation."

"... I travel to relax and communicate with other people."

"... To participate in leisure activities."

The above results were used to develop a self-completion questionnaire for the second phase. However, it is important to note that while the analysis of the first question in this study showed "weather"; "visits to the United Arab Emirates"; and, "entertainment and relaxation" as push factors, they have been classified in related literature as pull factors (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Jang & Wu, 2006; Mohsin & Alsawafi, 2011). This difference may be attributed to the fact that ordinary people do not distinguish between push factors and pull factors when they are speaking about their travel motivations. Therefore, "weather=different climate than that at home"; "visits to the United Arab Emirates=proximity to Oman (short distance)"; and, "entertainment and relaxation=nightlife and entertainment" as motives for travel were classified and considered as pull factors when designing a self-completion questionnaire for the second phase.

The second question in part one asked respondents to indicate what factors attracted them to choose or visit a specific destination. Figure 4.4 shows the frequency with which certain words were used, and is derived through the use of CatPac. Two immediate themes were evident in the text, and these were concerns that "any destination to be visited should be 'secure and safe'", while second was "a desirable climate "that is "moderate", "warm" and certainly not hot, given the climate of Oman. Other aspects that were of importance were: "The presence of good shopping", "attractive nature", and "an acceptable price" – certainly on the whole not an expensive destination. Additionally there was an interest in "different cultures". These results were used to formulate the items of scale in terms of pull travel motivation (destinations' attributes).

Respondent number four summarised many of these points, saying

116

Reputation of destination; the availability of services in hotels and transport; security, the lack of theft; good weather, the availability of shopping opportunities, and the right price are important factors in the country which I plan to visit.

These sentiments were quite common, and hence the CatPac package failed to create clearly distinct perceptual maps from the dendograms because these themes were closely clustered together. However, the use of the Leximancer program did permit some patterns to emerge, as shown in Figure 4.5. A "secure country" clearly emerges, while there is a wish to visit "attractive countries". Destinations "not being expensive" is one of the attributes of being attractive, while it can be seen that "shopping" is a separate theme, as is "an attractive natural setting".

Figure 4.4 Frequency of Use of Words

```
      DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                          CASE CASE
WORD             FREQ PCNT FREQ PCNT
---------------  ---- ---- ---- ----
I                  34 10.8  114 36.4
COUNTRIES          21  6.6   69 22.0
ME                 20  6.3   70 22.4
IMPORTANT          17  5.4   64 20.4
SECURE             16  5.1   60 19.2
WEATHER            16  5.1   62 19.8
VISIT              13  4.1   51 16.3
COUNTRY            12  3.8   44 14.1
PEOPLE             11  3.5   44 14.1
SHOPPING           10  3.2   40 12.8
VISITED             9  2.8   36 11.5
NATURE              8  2.5   30  9.6
PRICE               8  2.5   31  9.9
ATTRACTS            7  2.2   26  8.3
PRICES              7  2.2   26  8.3
TOURIST             7  2.2   23  7.3
COST                6  1.9   24  7.7
LOT                 6  1.9   23  7.3
SITES               6  1.9   23  7.3
BEAUTIFUL           5  1.6   20  6.4
EXPENSIVE           5  1.6   17  5.4
LANDSCAPES          5  1.6   20  6.4
PLACES              5  1.6   20  6.4
RIGHT               5  1.6   17  5.4
TIME                5  1.6   20  6.4
ATTRACTIONS         4  1.3   15  4.8
CHOSE               4  1.3   15  4.8
ENGLISH             4  1.3   14  4.5
FRIENDS             4  1.3   16  5.1
GERMANY             4  1.3   13  4.2
STATES              4  1.3   16  5.1
TRAVEL              4  1.3   16  5.1
ARABIC              3  0.9   12  3.8
AVAILABILITY        3  0.9   11  3.5
CHEAP               3  0.9   12  3.8
CULTURAL            3  0.9   12  3.8
CULTURE             3  0.9   12  3.8
DIFFERENT           3  0.9   11  3.5
ENCOURAGED          3  0.9   12  3.8
```

117

Figure 4.5 The Perceptual Map of Characteristics of a Destination
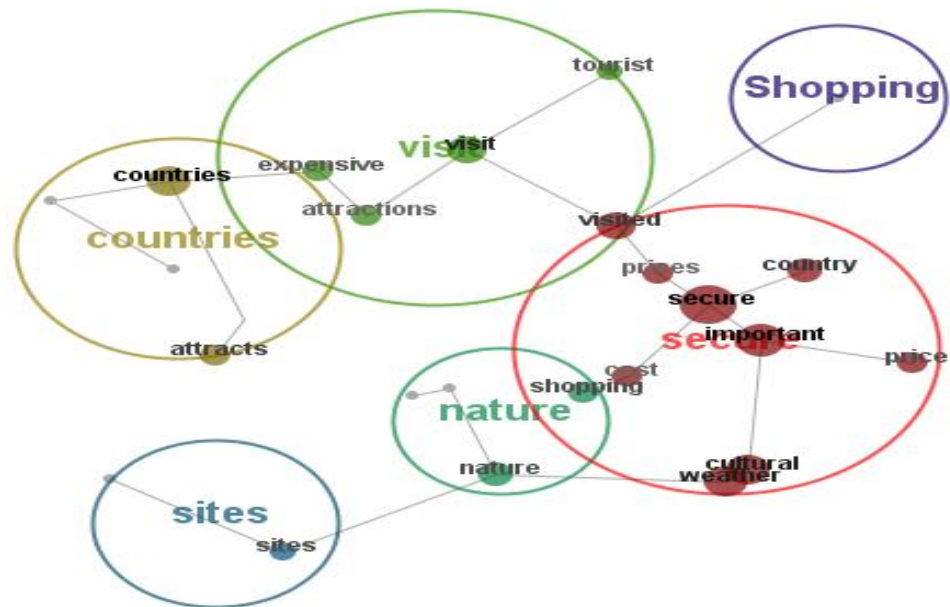
The thematic analysis chart generated by this software indicates again the prevalence of "a secure destination" followed by "nature", "culture", "prices", "attractive sites", and "shopping", as seen in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 Thematic Analysis of Destination Attractiveness
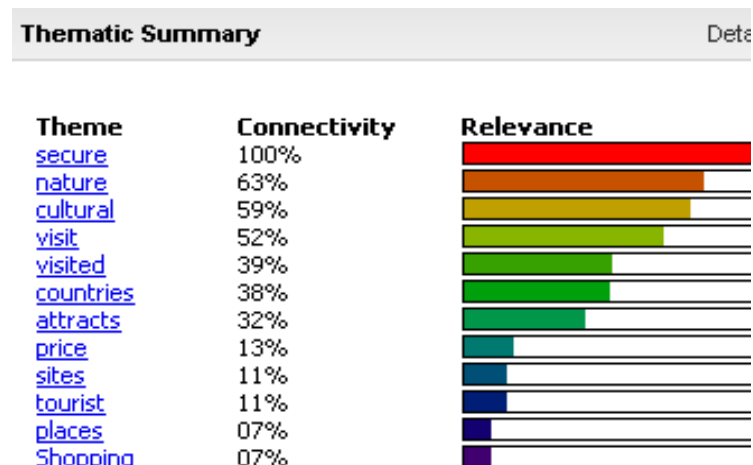
In short there is consistency about the dataset. More specifically, the transcript revealed that participants widely used the following expressions regarding attributes that attracted them to choose a specific destination, which strongly supports the above analysis:

B) Pull factors that eventually emerged from the data:

❖ Secure and safe destination:

"... There are no security problems in destination."

"... I do not visit unsafe countries."

"... I like countries that enjoy a high level of security."

"... Security is very important for me."

❖ A desirable climate:

"... I like countries that have moderate climate."

"... A beautiful weather."

"... Destination's weather must be better than Oman's weather."

❖ Good shopping:

"... Availability of shopping opportunities."

"... A variety of shopping places."

"... I like to visit markets and buying gifts for my friends."

❖ Attractive nature:

"... Landscapes, rivers, and waterfalls attract me."

"... I choose countries that have beautiful landscapes."

"... Landscapes and beaches attract me."

119

❖ An acceptable price:

"... It should be inexpensive."

"... An acceptable price, to be able to stay longer."

"... The cost of trip must be acceptable."

❖ Different cultures:

"... I like to visit the countries that have cultural and religious heritage."

"... I travel to know and learn more about other cultures."

"... Famous sites such as forts and castles."

4.6.2 Part Two: The Impact of Islamic Teachings on Travel Behaviour

The second part of the interview contained three questions. The first question asked whether Islam prohibited travel to any specific destinations. This premise was specifically rebutted by several respondents, who stated that the opposite was true, and that Islam encouraged travel abroad to learn and better understand the world. Two respondents referred to the view that travel also provided opportunities where it might be possible to bring others to Islam, or certainly help others better understand Islam. Figure 4.7 shows the output derived from the software package CatPac for the most common 25 words. The right hand side of the dendogram (highlighted in black) shows clearly that respondents reject the premise as being incorrect, but rather believe Islam actively encourages travel. The left hand side of the dendogram (in blue) indicates a concern that corrupt and immoral activities should be avoided during the holiday while the centre of the dendogram relates more to the exploration of cultures. Additionally self-control is seen to be important as a means to avoid involvement in prohibited activities during the holiday. These results were used to design questions for the questionnaire survey. Examples of this last point can be clearly found in the text. For example:

I do not think that there is religious evidence preventing Muslims from travelling to a particular country. I think that the individual personality … determines where to travel and one is not affected by the manifestations of corruption prevalent there.

This is not the case - Islam encourages visiting other countries, in order to learn their language, and even non-Muslim countries. The Muslim should keep away from places of corruption, and not participate in proscribed activities.

Figure 4.7 Dendogram for the Question –Does Islam prohibit travel to any specific destinations?

```
A E C C I V C P C B C M T M N R V C C E T O I I I
C N O E S I O E U E O U H U O E I O U N R T N . S
T C R R L S R R L L U S I S N L S U L C A H C . L
I O R T A I R S T I N L . I I N T O V E O . A
V U E A M T U O U E T I K I . G T T U U E R R . M
I R C I I I P N R V R M . M . I . R R R L S R . .
T A T N C N T . E E Y S . . . O . I E A . . E . .
I G . . . G I . S . . . . . . N . E . G . . C . .
E E . . . . O . . . . . . . . . . S . E . . T . .
S D . . . . N . . . . . . . . . . . . S . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . AAA . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . AAAAA . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . AAAAAAA . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . AAAAAAAAA . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . AAAAAAAAAAA . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . AAAAAAAAAAAAA .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
. . . . . . . . . . . AAA . . AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAA . . . . . . . . . AAA . . AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAA . . . . . . . . . AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAA . AAA . . . . . . AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAA . . . . . . AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAA . . . . . AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAA . . . AAA AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAA AAA . . AAA AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAA AAAAA . . AAA AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAA AAAAA AAA AAA AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAAAAAAA AAA AAA AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAA AAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAA AAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
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After a further cleaning of the text revealed at the CatPac stage, the textual analysis program Leximancer produced the graph shown in Figure 4.8. Essentially this may be interpreted as themes whereby those of the Islamic faith are encouraged to travel into the non-Islamic world to better understand others – whether other people or other

cultures. Personality is important and determines the fact that one should not be attracted to inappropriate behaviour. America emerges as a theme with one respondent referring to the fact that those who did not travel to the United States after 9/11 did so out of fear, and that it was fear that deterred them, not Islam, nor indeed, in his experience, the actuality of the United States. The two top circles related to participants (people) who met non-Muslim people during their previous travels, and it was these processes that led to learning, and possibly opportunities to make others more aware of Islam and its adherents. Reference to the support material generated by the program illustrated that, not surprisingly, the relationships between the Islamic and non-Islamic world dominated the themes to this question.

Figure 4.8 The Perceptual Map of Islamic Teachings and Visiting non-Muslim Countries
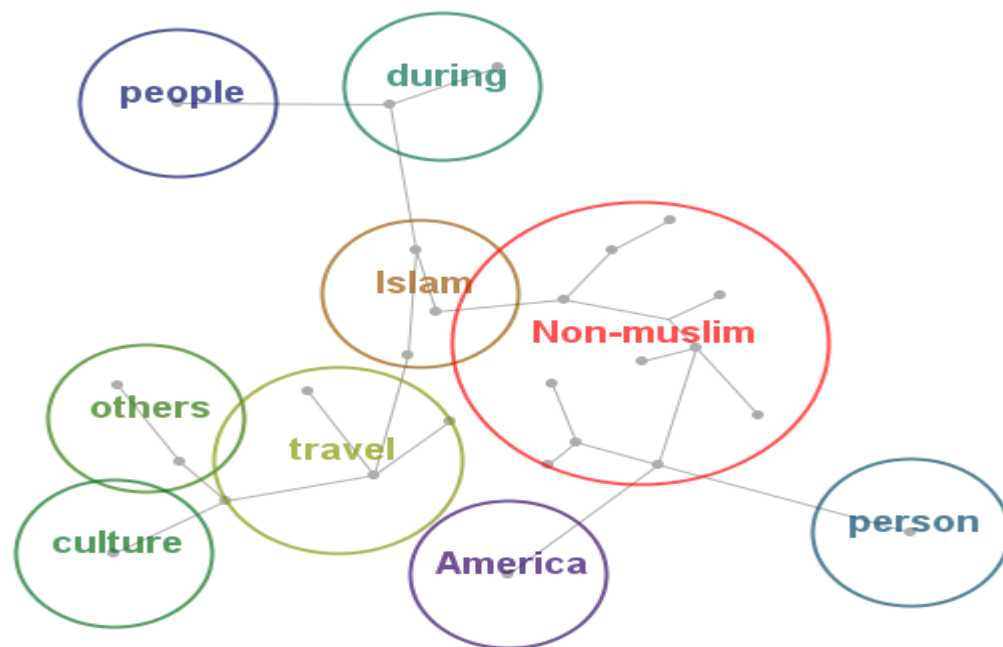
To be more specific, the interview transcripts showed that respondents commonly used the following expressions which strongly support the above analysis:

Three prominent themes were identified from the above analysis.

❖ Islam does not prohibit travel to any specific destinations.

"...Islam encourages Muslims to travel and benefit from other cultures."

"... Religion encourages Muslims to travel to all countries."

"... a Muslim must travel and see others' cultures in order to develop his thoughts."

❖ Immoral activities should be avoided during the holiday.

"... Muslims should not be affected by moral corruption."

"... Muslims must avoid participation in prohibited activities."

"... Muslims have to keep away from places, where immoral things are committed."

❖ Self-control is important to avoid involvement in prohibited activities.

"... I travelled abroad, but I had never participated in unacceptable activities."

"... depends on the ability of person, if he can control his desires."

"... I am maintaining my Islamic values even if I am abroad."

The second question in this part was designed to investigate the impact of Islamic teachings on the choice of a pleasure travel destination. Here the question asked was: Does Islam affect your destination choice? (if yes) please describe this effect?

Opinions differed on this question, with some saying that it made no difference to them in terms of choice of country, while others stated they would at least try to travel to countries where Islam was respected and it was easy to obtain halal food, while a couple stated they would primarily consider only those countries that were Islamic. However, nearly everyone reflected upon the fact that adherence to Islam would affect their behaviour. Travelling to a non-Islamic country would mean that, even if halal food were not available, they could eat alternative foods that were not contrary to good Islamic practice. For female respondents, they wished to feel comfortable when wearing a veil in public. Only one respondent had encountered some hostility when travelling overseas, but even then a local person had intervened to say how peaceful Oman was. The word frequency table shown in Figure 4.9

identifies the commonly used words, but in this case does not wholly catch the nuances and differences in the statements.

Figure 4.9 Commonly Used Words Regarding the Impact of Islam on Destination Choice

```
          DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                          CASE CASE
WORD                FREQ PCNT FREQ PCNT
----------------    ---- ---- ---- ----
I                    46 17.8  143 56.1
AFFECT               16  6.2   60 23.5
FOOD                 16  6.2   64 25.1
TRAVEL               16  6.2   56 22.0
HALAL                15  5.8   58 22.7
RELIGION             15  5.8   56 22.0
COUNTRIES            14  5.4   54 21.2
MUSLIMS              11  4.3   41 16.1
COUNTRY              10  3.9   40 15.7
ME                    9  3.5   30 11.8
CHOICE                8  3.1   28 11.0
RELIGIOUS             8  3.1   32 12.5
AVAILABILITY          7  2.7   27 10.6
OPTIONAL              7  2.7   28 11.0
PLACES                7  2.7   28 11.0
ASPECTS               6  2.3   23  9.0
MUSLIM                6  2.3   21  8.2
VISIT                 6  2.3   24  9.4
YES                   6  2.3   24  9.4
DESTINATION           5  1.9   18  7.1
ISLAM                 5  1.9   20  7.8
PEOPLE                5  1.9   17  6.7
SPANISH               5  1.9   16  6.3
STATE                 5  1.9   18  7.1
AM                    4  1.6   16  6.3
```

Dendogram 4.10 generated by CatPac indicates some of the themes. On the right hand side can be seen a cluster of words relating to the themes of religious travel (specially pilgrimages), that merge into a theme of halal food. To the left of this are groups of words relating to optional foods and places, while on the extreme left there is simply a series of words indicating where respondents talked about the degree to which Islam affected their travel decision.

Figure 4.10 Dendogram for the Question - Does Islam affect your destination choice?
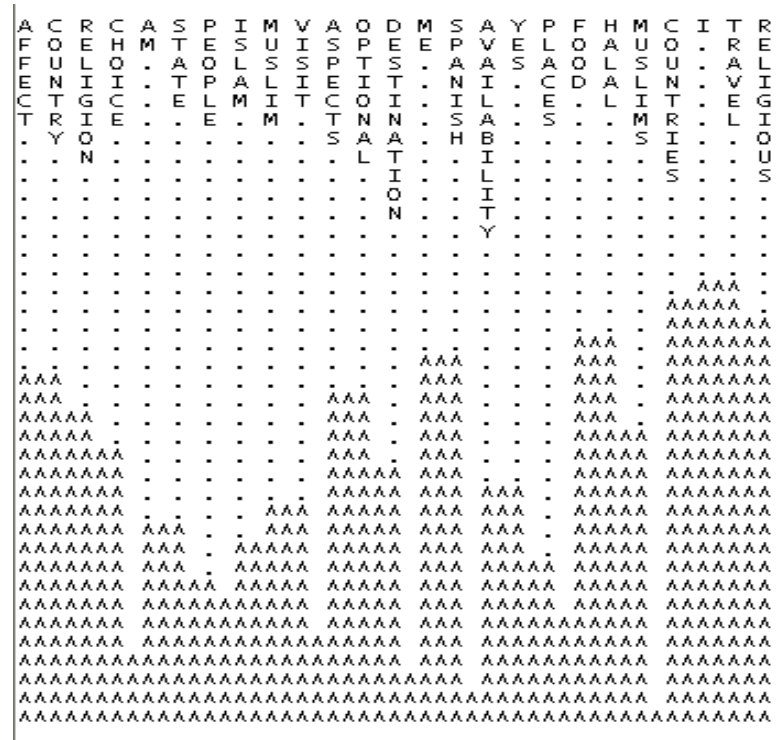
Figure 4.11 The Perceptual Map of the Impact of Islamic Teachings on the Choice of Destination
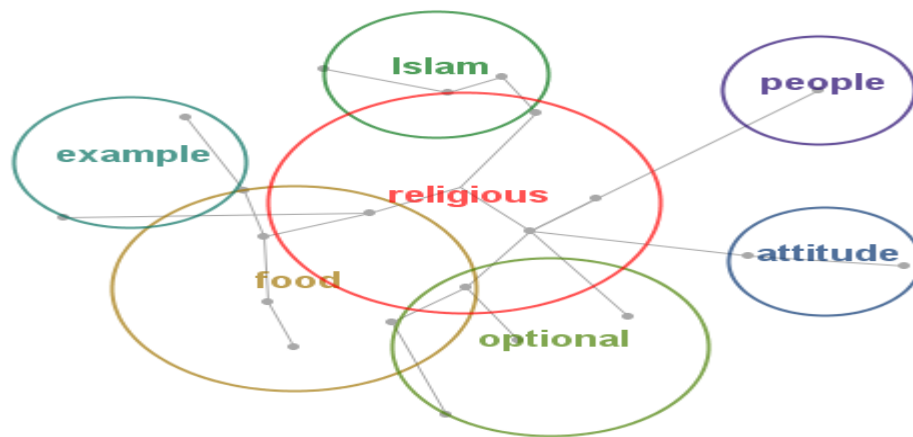
The perceptual map generated by the Leximancer program shows the centrality of religious belief, as shown in Figure 4.11. The role of food and the alternatives to halal emerge, while of importance are people's attitudes toward those of the Islamic faith and their customs.

According to the interview transcripts, three main themes could be clearly noted when participants described the effect of Islam on their destination choice. These were:

- ❖ **Religious travel:** Given pilgrimage to Mecca (Hajj) is the fifth pillar of Islam, Muslims are commanded to visit Mecca and perform a pilgrimage at least once during their lives, if they are physically and financially able to make the journey (Essoo & Dibb, 2004). Therefore, Mecca in Saudi Arabia is a potential destination for all Muslims, which can be deemed a direct religious effect on their destination choice.

"... I visited Saudi Arabia to perform a pilgrimage."

"... I visited Saudi Arabia two times for religious purposes."

" ... I travelled to perform a pilgrimage."

- ❖ **Halal food:** (Halal means lawful or legal): Muslims are only allowed to eat food that is permissible according to Islamic law (Shariah). For example: (1) Muslims cannot eat any food that contains alcohol; (2) they also are not allowed to eat pork or any animal that consumes meat, for example, dog; and, (3) they cannot eat meat over which the name of Allah has not been pronounced or mentioned at the time of slaughter (Islam Q&A, 2011). Thus, it is not surprising that this issue of halal food was explicitly present as an influential element in choosing destinations when participants were speaking about the impact of Islam on their choice of destination.

"... I choose countries that respect Muslims, and I can get the halal food."

"...There are many places (shops) in non-Muslim countries where we can buy the halal food."

"... We can eat the sea foods as alternative solution, if we could not obtain or find the halal food in non-Muslim countries."

- ❖ **Islam** has no effect on destination choice: According to the interview transcripts, 17 of the 27 participants (63%) clearly confirmed that Islam has no effect on their destination choice:

"... As a moderate person, the religious factors do not affect my destination choice."

"... Religion does not influence my destination choice."

"... Religion does not affect my decision; the choice of destination depends on my real travel motivations."

However, eight participants (30%) declared that Islam does influence their choice of destination:

"... I prefer to visit countries that have similar religious cultures with my own culture."

"... Religion affects my destination choice; I am choosing destinations where the Islamic religion is available."

"... I care about the availability of halal food when choosing travel destination."

"... I choose countries that respect Muslims, and [where] I can get the halal food."

The rest of the sample (7%) stated that Islam affects their destination choice partially or not completely:

"...Religion affects my destination choice, but not significantly."

"... Yes, religion has effect on my destination choice, but not one hundred per cent."

127

Hence, it could be concluded that the majority of participants interviewed believe that Islam had no effect on their destination choice, based on these results. However, most of them confirmed that even if their choice of a pleasure travel destination was travelling to non-Muslim countries, they would obey Islamic teachings (internal control), and would avoid participation in activities prohibited by Islamic law, such as gambling or drinking alcohol.

"... I visited Thailand and everything was available, but I did not participate in unacceptable activities."

"... What does not please Allah; I will never do it, while I am abroad."

"... Muslims must not be affected by the manifestations of corruption that are prevalent there."

The third question in this part was designed to identify the impact of Islam on participation in leisure activities. Dendogram 4.12 clearly indicates that respondents are sensitive to the claims that Islam makes on personal behaviour, albeit some respondents indicated that Islam imposed no restrictions upon them. The two sets of sentiments are compatible in that respondents made references to the avoidance of undesirable behaviour such as drinking, gambling, and adultery, and thus if one was not wishing to do these things, in that sense, there was no restriction imposed on behaviour.

Figure 4.12 Dendogram for the Question – Does Islam affect your participation in leisure activities?
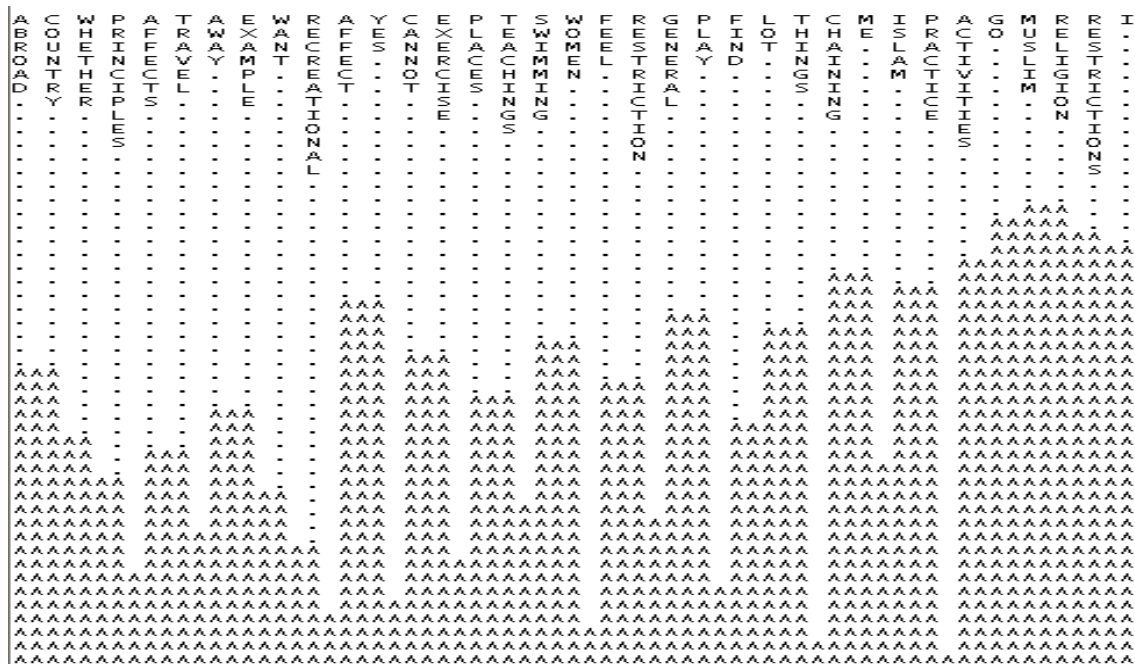
Again, the dendogram reflects a concern about the teachings of Islam, but some divergence of views emerged for males and females in terms of what women generally felt unable to do in terms of, for example, exercise. Thus one respondent noted that she felt unable to go swimming. These themes are reinforced by the analysis using Leximancer as shown in Figure 4.13.

Figure 4.13 The Perceptual Map of the Impact of Islamic Teachings on Participation in Leisure Activities
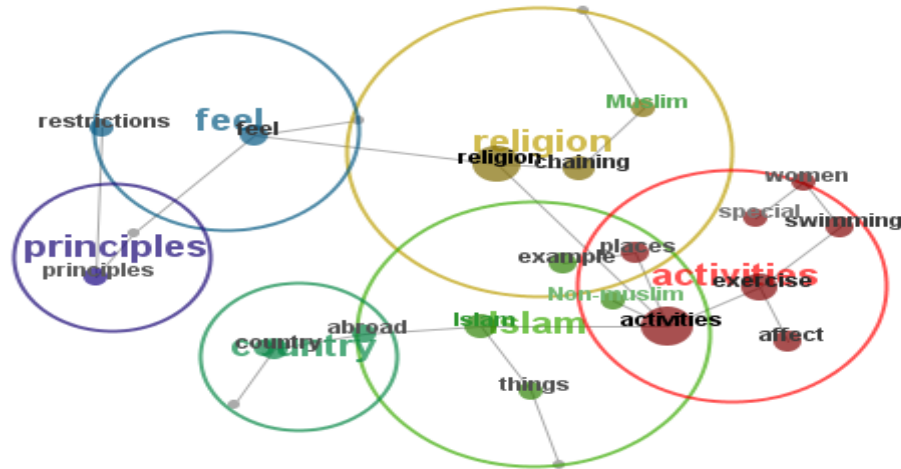
The circles "religion", "feel" and "principles" are linked via the word "feel" which in the initial text considers the theme of whether or not respondents felt restricted or "chained" by the principles of Islam. Thus, when overlapping the themes of "religion", "Islam" and "activities" the words "exercises" and "swimming" emerge as resulting from the comments made by female respondents. However, as commented above, further analysis using the links of words again shows other nuances. For example, one female respondent stated:

> (It) depends on the type of activities; example: overseas away from our country, where there is no control, and there are a lot of taboos, but this does not mean that I must do what they are doing and do things contrary to religion and Islam such as drinking alcohol and eating food that is not halal. When I find that the food slaughtered in a non-Muslim way, I ask for fish only.

According to the above analysis, one key theme emerged when participants described the influence of Islam on their participation in leisure activities. This was:

❖ Affected by the principles of Islam: Islam imposes restrictions on the participation in leisure activities. For example, according to Islamic law,

Muslims are not allowed to participate in leisure activities that require mixing of the genders (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2008; Islam Q&A, 2010). Therefore, participation in such activities would be contrary to the teachings of Islam, which could be considered as an indirect constraint.

"... Yes [it]affect[s] some things such as drinking and adultery are forbidden in Islam, and, therefore, I cannot do them."

"... Sometimes the religion affects my participation in desirable leisure activities, because they are prohibited by Islam."

"... There are criteria and restrictions concerning participation in leisure activities."

Despite these criteria and restrictions, the majority of participants did not feel that they are constrained by Islamic teachings. This belief could be attributed to the fact that participants are accustomed to such criteria and restrictions in their daily lives.

"... I had never felt that I am restricted."

"...I travelled abroad many times, and I did not feel any restrictions on my participation in leisure activities."

"... In general, I did not feel that there are obstacles to participation in leisure activities."

4.6.3 Part Three: Travel and Leisure Constraints

The third part of the interview questions was made up of four questions designed to collect data regarding travel and leisure constraints that impeded Omani residents from travelling abroad or participating in leisure activities. The first question was: Do you have a plan to travel abroad within the next year? Where? Why? As Figure 4.14 shows respondents certainly had plans for overseas travel.

Figure 4.14 Shows a Count of Key Words Used for Question 6

```
                DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                               CASE  CASE
        WORD           FREQ PCNT FREQ PCNT
        -------------- ---- ---- ---- ----
        I                57 19.5  199 68.9
        TRAVEL           33 11.3  119 41.2
        YES              23  7.9   89 30.8
        PLAN             17  5.8   67 23.2
        VISIT            15  5.1   54 18.7
        WANT             14  4.8   56 19.4
        COUNTRIES        13  4.5   46 15.9
        THAILAND          9  3.1   33 11.4
        MALAYSIA          8  2.7   30 10.4
        EGYPT             6  2.1   21  7.3
        LOT               6  2.1   22  7.6
        SPAIN             6  2.1   20  6.9
        BEAUTIFUL         5  1.7   20  6.9
        GO                5  1.7   20  6.9
        ME                5  1.7   20  6.9
        YEAR              5  1.7   18  6.2
        ARAB              4  1.4   16  5.5
        COUNTRY           4  1.4   16  5.5
        EUROPEAN          4  1.4   16  5.5
        FAMILY            4  1.4   16  5.5
        INTENTION         4  1.4   16  5.5
        SINGAPORE         4  1.4   16  5.5
        TOURIST           4  1.4   16  5.5
        ZEALAND           4  1.4   15  5.2
        CHOSE             3  1.0   12  4.2
        CHOSEN            3  1.0   12  4.2
        COAST             3  1.0    7  2.4
        ENCOURAGED        3  1.0   12  4.2
        EXPENSIVE         3  1.0    9  3.1
        HUSBAND           3  1.0   12  4.2
        LANDSCAPES        3  1.0   12  4.2
        MOROCCO           3  1.0    9  3.1
        TRAIN             3  1.0   12  4.2
        VISITED           3  1.0   12  4.2
        WILL              3  1.0   12  4.2
```

The countries that they planned to visit included Thailand, Malaysia, Egypt, Morocco, Greece (which was mentioned once in the interview transcripts) and Arab countries in general, while Spain and New Zealand were also mentioned – the last because a respondent had previously lived there and perceived it as having beautiful scenery. The reasons for visits varied and included reasons articulated in response to previous questions, but other reasons included "places where a family member worked" or "where study was to be undertaken".

More specifically, according to the interview transcripts, all participants had plans to travel abroad. The following phrases give examples of where they were planning to travel and why they specifically chose these destinations. Their motivations to choose these countries can be identified as follows:

1) To visit relatives and friends; and, 2) To see something new and exciting:

"... I'd like to visit Egypt, because my husband is studying there, it would a great chance to see the civilization of the ancient Egyptians."

3) To learn something new and increase my knowledge (education opportunities):

"... Yes, I have a plan to travel abroad, because my study for medicine requires that I spend 2 months in foreign country for training."

4) Safety and security at destination; and, 5) to visit a destination that most people think warrants a visit:

"... I'd like to visit Malaysia, because it is safe, and my friends encourage me to visit it."

6) To visit natural attractions (sea, beach, coral, mountain, lakes, rivers, streams, wildlife, birds):

"... I'd like to visit Syria or Lebanon, because they have beautiful sceneries."

"... I'd like to visit New Zealand, because I studied there,[it] has beautiful landscapes, and I miss it."

7) Local people have positive attitudes towards tourists:

".. I'd like to visit Thailand, because it is a very beautiful country, and its people are very friendly."

8) To see historical, military, and archaeological sites (i.e., fort, castle, or museums):

"... I'd like to visit Greece to see the civilization of ancient Greece."

"... I'd like to visit Spain, because it has a lot of historical monuments."

9) To travel for religious purposes.

"... I'd like to travel to Saudi Arabia to perform a pilgrimage."

133

10) To travel for medical treatment:

"... I'd like to go to Thailand to treat my daughter there (obtain a medical treatment).

11) To see how other people live and their way of life:

"... I'd like to travel to Western countries to learn about their lives, and see how they are living."

These reasons were used to develop items in the scale measuring push and pull travel motivations.

Figure 4.15 Most Commonly Used Words for Question 7

```
           DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                              CASE  CASE
WORD                 FREQ PCNT FREQ PCNT
----------------     ---- ---- ---- ----
TRAVEL                29  10.4   98 35.4
MONEY                 27   9.6   99 35.7
I                     26   9.3   85 30.7
LACK                  18   6.4   68 24.5
CHILDREN              15   5.4   55 19.9
FAMILY                15   5.4   60 21.7
ME                    15   5.4   56 20.2
SOMETIMES              9   3.2   33 11.9
COMMITMENTS            8   2.9   32 11.6
OBSTACLE               8   2.9   31 11.2
HUSBAND                7   2.5   21  7.6
LEAVE                  7   2.5   24  8.7
US                     7   2.5   26  9.4
WORK                   7   2.5   28 10.1
CHILDBIRTH             5   1.8   20  7.2
COUNTRIES              5   1.8   20  7.2
PREGNANCY              5   1.8   20  7.2
TRAVELING              5   1.8   20  7.2
UNREST                 5   1.8   20  7.2
WANT                   5   1.8   20  7.2
HEALTH                 4   1.4   16  5.8
POLITICAL              4   1.4   16  5.8
PROBLEM                4   1.4   16  5.8
REPRESENT              4   1.4   16  5.8
THINGS                 4   1.4   16  5.8
THINK                  4   1.4   16  5.8
YEAR                   4   1.4   16  5.8
ABROAD                 3   1.1   11  4.0
BARRIER                3   1.1   12  4.3
CARE                   3   1.1   12  4.3
CIRCUMSTANCES          3   1.1   12  4.3
FEEL                   3   1.1   12  4.3
HINDRANCE              3   1.1   12  4.3
LANGUAGE               3   1.1   12  4.3
LOT                    3   1.1   12  4.3
```

In the second question in this part of the interview, the participants were also asked about what inhibits them from travelling abroad. The analysis of the text related to this question revealed key words, as indicated in the list of most common words

identified in CatPac, as shown in Figure 4.15. The three dominant themes were: "A lack of money", "dependent children" and "family commitments". Other themes of some importance were the issues of "security" and "a lack of muharram" (Muharram is an Arabic word meaning companion, where Muslim women are not allowed to travel outside their country without having a male companion who is a relative, such as a husband, son, brother, father, or uncle). Therefore, it must be noted that this theme was mentioned as a travel constraint by female participants only.

Figures 4.16 and 4.17 indicate the output from the Leximancer program, in the form respectively the perceptual map and concept cloud. Taken together they confirm the inhibiting effect of a perceived "lack of money", "family commitments", "the unrest in the Arab world", and "work obstacles".

Figure 4.16 Perceptual Map for Inhibiting Travel
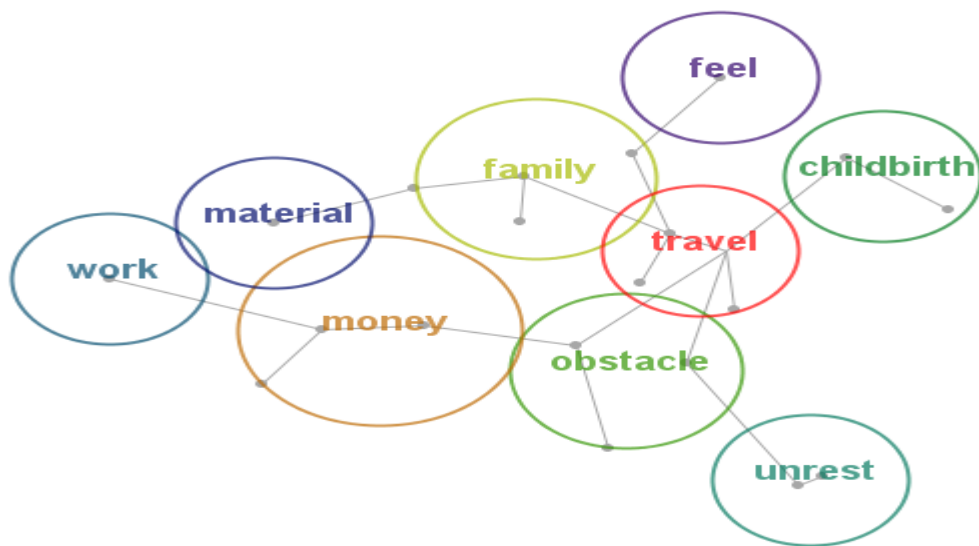
Figure 4.17 Concept Cloud' for Inhibiting Travel

The text reveals also that a perceived lack of money might be related to the size of the family, as travel for married couples with children can be expensive. The word "problem" also emerged, and is associated with family, but this word arose in two senses. First, there were those respondents who indicated that family commitments were a problem when developing travel plans, while there was a small minority who used the term as in "no problems" with reference to their family. One can conclude that life stage is a factor in generating the required discretionary income that permits travel for leisure purposes.

According to the analysis of the interview transcripts, six main travel constraints can be identified that inhibit Omani residents from travelling abroad:

❖ **Lack of money**

"... Lack of money, where the cost of travelling to some countries is very expensive and need so much money."

"... The biggest constraint to travel is the lack of money, where travelling to Europe countries as example is very expensive."

"... Lack of money prevents me from travelling."

136

❖ **Family commitments**

"... Family commitments prevent me."

"... Family commitments force me to stay shorter abroad."

"... I was constrained to travel by family commitments."

❖ **Security and safety problems** (political unrest)

"... The low level of security prevents me from travelling."

"... Sometimes, political turmoil inhibits me from travelling."

"... Unrest and political turmoil, as is the case in Yemen."

❖ **Not having appropriate companion (Muharram)**

"... Absence of [a]companion is [an]obstacle to my travel."

"... I will face the problem of not having[an] appropriate companion to travel with, soon."

❖ **Work commitments**

"... Work commitments prevent me from travelling."

" ... Work commitments are the biggest obstacle to my travel."

❖ **Children:** it again should be noted that this theme was referred to as a constraint on travel by female participants only. This result could be attributed to the Arabic culture, where women are responsible for looking after their children.

"... When my children travel with me, I feel fatigued, because they need my care at all times."

"... There is no one to take care of my children while I am abroad."

"We cannot travel together (parents and their children), because we will need so much money."

These constraints were used to develop the items of scale concerning travel constrains.

The third question in this part was designed to identify the types of leisure activities participated in by respondents both now and in the past. Figure 4.18 demonstrates the frequency of words in the responses and thus the more common leisure activities. This analysis indicates that walking is a popular form of exercise followed by physical exercises in a gym, swimming, going to the beach and camping, going for a picnic. (The literal translation of the Arabic word "Rahlah" is flight; however, figuratively it means "go for a picnic" when used in the Omani dialect); going to the cinema, gardening, and running.

"... Walking and going for a picnic with my friends."

"... I am going to the gym at university."

"... Swimming, walking, and going for a picnic."

"... Walking and running."

"... Swimming, it is my favourite activity."

"... Camping and going to the cinema."

One reference to football related to past activities as some respondents now felt too old to currently play football.

"... Age prevents me from playing football."

"... My age (55) does not encourage me to participate in physical activities such as playing football."

Figure 4.18 Most Commonly Used Words for Question 8

```
DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                          CASE CASE
WORD             FREQ PCNT FREQ PCNT
---------------- ---- ---- ---- ----
I                  15 13.0   52 46.4
WALKING            14 12.2   49 43.8
TRIPS              13 11.3   45 40.2
PRACTICE            8  7.0   31 27.7
ACTIVITIES          6  5.2   24 21.4
EXERCISE            5  4.3   17 15.2
YES                 5  4.3   16 14.3
GO                  4  3.5   15 13.4
GYM                 4  3.5   16 14.3
HOME                4  3.5   16 14.3
PLAY                4  3.5   16 14.3
SWIMMING            4  3.5   16 14.3
BEACH               3  2.6   12 10.7
CAMPING             3  2.6   12 10.7
FLIGHTS             3  2.6   12 10.7
ATTEND              2  1.7    8  7.1
CINEMA              2  1.7    8  7.1
EARTH               2  1.7    6  5.4
FOOTBALL            2  1.7    8  7.1
GARDENING           2  1.7    8  7.1
INTERNET            2  1.7    8  7.1
LIMITED             2  1.7    8  7.1
PARTICIPATE         2  1.7    8  7.1
RECREATIONAL        2  1.7    8  7.1
RUNNING             2  1.7    8  7.1
```

In the fourth question in this part, the participants were also asked about what inhibits them from taking part in leisure activities. The analysis revealed that for females a clear restriction lies in "the lack of opportunities and facilities", especially if they were resident outside of Muscat (the capital of Oman). Two areas that were particularly noted were swimming and the use of a gymnasium. More specifically, some female participants stated that their desire to go swimming is constrained by the lack of facilities. Therefore, they often had to undertake leisure activities within or close to their home. The other major inhibiting factor was "childcare and family related duties". Males tended to be less sensitive to inhibiting factors, but "lack of time", "work commitments", and "family obligations" were cited. These factors can be seen in dendogram 4.19, where on the right hand side women's comments relate to the availability of recreational facilities, and the extreme left hand side indicates the links of the words "cannot" and "swimming", "Family", "children" and "obligations" are linked in the centre of the dendogram.

Figure 4.19 Dendogram of Inhibiting Factors

```
A C I P S L T A C W M C F O A E E H R R W A W P S
C A . L W A I G O O E H A B P Q X O E E A V O R P
T N . A I C M E M R . I M L P U E M S C N A M A O
I N . C M K E . M K . L I I R I R E I R T I E C R
V O . E M . . . I . . D L G O P C . D E . L N T T
I T . S I . . . T . . R Y A P M I . E A . A . I S
T . . . N . . . M . . E . T R E S . N T . B . C .
I . . . G . . . E . . N . I I N E . T I . L . E .
E . . . . . . . N . . . . O A T . . I O . E . . .
S . . . . . . . T . . . . . N T . . . A N . . . .
. . . . . . . . S . . . . . S E . . . L . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . AAA . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. AAAAA . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. AAAAAAA . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
AAAAAAAAA . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
AAAAAAAAA . . . . . . . AAA . . . . . . . . . . .
AAAAAAAAA . . . AAA . . AAA . . . . . . . . . . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA . AAA . . AAA . . . . . . . . . . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA . . AAA . . . . . . . . . . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA . . AAA . . . . . . . AAA . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA . . AAA . . . AAA . . AAA . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA . . AAA . AAA AAA . . AAA . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA . . AAA . AAA AAA AAA AAA . .
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA . . AAA . AAA AAA AAA AAA AAA
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAAAA . AAA . AAA AAA AAA AAA AAA
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAAAA . AAA AAAAA AAA AAA AAA AAA
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA AAA AAA AAA AAA
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA AAAAAAA AAA AAA
AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA AAAAAAA AAAAAAA
AAAAAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAA AAAAAAA AAAAAAA
AAAAAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAAAA AAA AAAAAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAA
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AAAAAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAAAAAAAAAA AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
```

Figure 4.20 shows the perceptual map developed using the Leximancer program. This map strongly reinforces the above analysis, as can be seen, other than when the word "touch" appears. This mention of touch relates to a female respondent who was subjected to harassment at a cinema and who spoke at some length of feeling uncomfortable from "touches". The issue of "a lack of time" is also identified, but to some extent the use of time reflects prioritisation on the part of respondents, and thus simply other things such as "family restrict available time". It again should be noted that themes such as "the lack of opportunities and facilities", and "childcare" have to be considered as constraints to participation in leisure activities by female participants only. This constraint can be attributed to the fact that there is a lack of places where women can perform their favourite leisure activities privately. As previously noted

with reference to childcare, traditionally women are responsible for taking care of their children in Arabic culture.

Figure 4.20 Perceptual Map of Restrictions on Leisure Participation
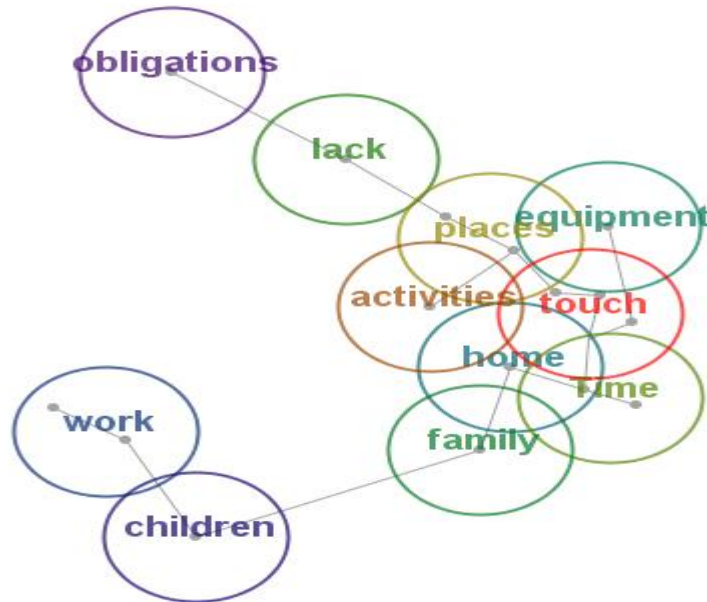
According to the above analysis of the interview transcripts, the most significant leisure constraints on Omani residents' participation in leisure activities were:

❖ **Lack of opportunities and facilities**

"... I do not have a swimming pool at home."

"... The facilities are not available where I am living."

"... The lack of appropriate equipment prevents me from performing my favourite activities."

❖ **Dependent childcare**

"... I cannot leave my children alone at home and go to the gym."

"... My children need my assistance to do their homework."

"... When my kids get sick, I cannot leave them."

❖ **Lack of time**

"... I do not have enough time to go to the gym."

"... Time is [was] available, but we did not manage it well."

"... Lack of time is the biggest constraint that inhibits me from taking part in leisure activities."

❖ **Work commitments**

"... I am constrained by work commitments."

"... Work commitments." (Three times were mentioned as leisure constraints)

❖ **Family obligations**

"... Family commitments only prevents me from taking part in leisure activities."

"... Family related duties is my leisure constraint."

"... I am constrained by family commitments."

These constraints were later used to develop the items of scale relating to leisure constraints.

4.6.4 Part Four: Travel and Leisure Negotiation Strategies

This part of the interview covered three questions. The first question was designed to identify the personal strategies which were adopted by participants to overcome travel constraints. A number of strategies were referred to by respondents with reference to given problems (see Table 4.2). Some of the words commonly used are shown in Figure 4.21. Children and a lack of money are noted as problems, but one respondent described how he dealt about the lack of money, and children:

(Our way) was to overcome the shortage of money by planning ahead for travel, and by saving. And look for someone from the family to care for the children during our travelling and we usually leave them with their grandmother.

Figure 4.21 Frequency of Word Usage for Question 10

```
              DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                                  CASE CASE
        WORD              FREQ PCNT FREQ PCNT
        ---------------   ---- ---- ---- ----
        TRAVEL             33  15.1  115 53.2
        I                  29  13.2   88 40.7
        CHILDREN           14   6.4   54 25.0
        LEAVE              12   5.5   44 20.4
        HUSBAND            11   5.0   41 19.0
        MONEY               9   4.1   36 16.7
        PROBLEM             9   4.1   36 16.7
        WILL                7   3.2   23 10.6
        TRIP                6   2.7   22 10.2
        US                  6   2.7   24 11.1
        WORK                6   2.7   19  8.8
        ABLE                5   2.3   17  7.9
        CARE                5   2.3   19  8.8
        EXPENSES            5   2.3   17  7.9
        OVERCOME            5   2.3   18  8.3
        PLANNING            5   2.3   17  7.9
        YEAR                5   2.3   19  8.8
        FAMILY              4   1.8   16  7.4
        ME                  4   1.8   13  6.0
        ORDER               4   1.8   16  7.4
        PARTICIPATE         4   1.8   16  7.4
        PREGNANCY           4   1.8   16  7.4
        SAVING              4   1.8   16  7.4
        SAVINGS             4   1.8   16  7.4
        USUALLY             4   1.8   15  6.9
        HEALTH              3   1.4   12  5.6
        HOUSE               3   1.4    9  4.2
        INCOME              3   1.4   11  5.1
        POSTPONE            3   1.4   12  5.6
        SAVE                3   1.4   12  5.6
```

Other ways of funding travel related to sales (one respondent talked of selling camels, another to land), but a more common way was through "borrowing money" or by "saving over a period of time" in which travel was a delayed purchase. These themes also emerged in the analysis undertaken using the software package Leximancer and its concept builder. For example, with reference to budgeting the following respondents' comments emerge:

(We) solved the problem of money through savings, and through preplanning, and cooperation with my husband to bear the travel costs. The children - we leave them with my parents, my children and the elderly.

Solved the problem of money by early planning and careful planning for all stages of the trip and choose hotels that fit our budget and early, and this helps. As well as determining who will travel and not travel, and the type of flight that we will use.

We also try to reduce the period spent abroad. On the problem of pregnancy, we postpone all travel.

Table 4.2 Encountered Travel Constraints and the Adopted Negotiation Strategies

Encountered Travel Constraints	Adopted Negotiation Strategies
Lack of Money	1) **Saving:** *"Saving is the best solution", "I saved the money monthly", and "I solved it through saving".* 2) **Cooperation between couples:** *"Cooperation between me and my husband", "This problem is solved in cooperation with my husband".* 3) **Borrowing:** *"I borrow to travel". "Borrowing money".* 4) **Travel in groups:** "I travel with my friends to reduce the cost of travel". 5) **Domestic travel:** *"When I do not have enough money to travel abroad, I visit other regions in Oman or visit The UAE, because it is very close to Oman".* 6) **Reducing the period of staying abroad:** *"I stay shorter to solve this problem".* 7) **Selling something:** ***"I sold my land to get money for travel", and "I am selling camels to get money for travel abroad".***
Family Commitments	1) **Time management:** *"It was solved through organising my time".* 2) **Choosing appropriate time:** *"I choose the appropriate time to travel"***.** 3) **Delaying:** *"We postponed the time of travel until the next year".* 4) **Travelling alone:** *"I travelled alone, and my wife took my responsibilities instead of me"***.**
Security, Safety, and Health Problems	1) **Persuasion:** *"I told my parents I will travel in a group, so there is no need to be worry about my safety"* 2) **Ignoring:** *"I ignored their objection regarding my travel".* 3) **Delaying:** *"Regarding my pregnancy, we delayed the travel that year".*
Not Having an Appropriate Companion (Muharram)	1) **Encouragement:** *"I took all the expenses to encourage my brother to travel with me".* 2) **Ignoring:** *"I ignore this problem in order to spend good time with my kids".*
Work Commitments	1) **Replacement:** *"looking for alternative person to do my work".* 2) **Coordination:** *"I coordinated my work with my co-workers".* 3) **Reducing the period of staying abroad:** *"Reduce the period that we spend abroad".* 4) **Persuasion:** *"I persuade them at work to give me my annual holiday in the summer".* 5) **Utilising the official vacations:** *"I travel only during the official vacations", "I finished my work first, and then travel abroad".*
Children	1) **Looking for alternative person:** *"I leave my children with their grandmother"; "I look for someone from my relatives to looks after them, while I am abroad".* 2) **Travel in turn:** *"We travel without our children once, and we travel with them once", "We only take the youngest of our children with us when we travel abroad".*
Language	1) **Alternative Solution:** *"We solved the problem of language through using sign language".*

According to the analysis of the interview transcripts, 24 strategies have been used by participants to overcome their seven perceived travel constraints. To overcome the lack of money, six strategies were adopted: savings, cooperation between couples, borrowing, travelling in groups, domestic travel, reducing the period of staying abroad, and selling something. In terms of the problems that are related to family commitments, participants used four strategies: time management, choosing an appropriate time, delaying, and travelling alone. Security, safety, and health problems were overcome through persuasion, ignoring, and delaying. Problems associated with not having an appropriate companion (Muharram) were solved through encouragement, and ignoring. Regarding work commitments, participants applied five strategies: replacement, coordination, reducing the period spent abroad, persuasion, and utilising the official vacations. Participants adopted two strategies to resolve problems that are related to children: looking for an alternative person (somebody to look after the children while we are away), and in turn (the children taking turns to go on holiday with us). Finally, language as a travel constraint was overcome by using alternative solutions. In more detail, Table 4.2 illustrates travel constraints the interviewees encountered, and the negotiation strategies that were adopted to overcome them. These strategies will be applied later to develop the items of scale with respect to adopted travel negotiation strategies.

The second question in this part was developed to identify the personal strategies which were adopted by participants to overcome perceived leisure constraints. What is evident from the analysis of the text, and is implied within the list of commonly used words (Figure 4.22), is that not all the respondents felt able to overcome the constraints, certainly not at all times. To be more specific, the reaction of 30% (N=8) of participants was negative to the leisure constraints that inhibit them from taking part in leisure activities.

"... I think that participation in leisure activities is not a priority for me".

"... I did not do anything to overcome these constraints, because I think that caring for my family, and doing my work's duties are more important than participation in leisure activities".

"... I could not do anything with regard to leisure constraints".

Some referred to the fact that they needed access to specific facilities and did not always have this access. Others indicated that they sought alternative activities or rescheduled activities as strategies to overcome encountered leisure constraints.

Figure 4.22 Frequency of Word Usage for Question 11

```
        DESCENDING FREQUENCY LIST
                                CASE  CASE
WORD                  FREQ PCNT FREQ  PCNT
----------------      ---- ---- ----  ----
I                       29 16.2  100  56.8
ACTIVITIES              19 10.6   75  42.6
TIME                    13  7.3   49  27.8
PRACTICE                10  5.6   38  21.6
EXERCISE                 8  4.5   29  16.5
OVERCOME                 6  3.4   24  13.6
RECREATIONAL             5  2.8   20  11.4
EQUIPMENT                4  2.2   16   9.1
GO                       4  2.2   13   7.4
POSTPONE                 4  2.2   16   9.1
SOMETIMES                4  2.2   16   9.1
SPECIAL                  4  2.2   16   9.1
WANT                     4  2.2   16   9.1
FAMILY                   3  1.7   12   6.8
FIND                     3  1.7   12   6.8
GYM                      3  1.7   12   6.8
HUSBAND                  3  1.7   12   6.8
ME                       3  1.7   12   6.8
NEED                     3  1.7   11   6.2
OBSTACLES                3  1.7   12   6.8
ORGANIZATION             3  1.7   12   6.8
PARTICIPATE              3  1.7   12   6.8
PROBLEM                  3  1.7   12   6.8
US                       3  1.7    7   4.0
ALTERNATIVE              2  1.1    8   4.5
CANNOT                   2  1.1    5   2.8
CHANGE                   2  1.1    8   4.5
DESIRE                   2  1.1    8   4.5
GOING                    2  1.1    8   4.5
HOME                     2  1.1    8   4.5
INTEREST                 2  1.1    6   3.4
LACK                     2  1.1    8   4.5
LEAVE                    2  1.1    8   4.5
LOCAL                    2  1.1    8   4.5
NECESSARY                2  1.1    8   4.5
OFTEN                    2  1.1    5   2.8
REQUIRE                  2  1.1    8   4.5
SCHEDULE                 2  1.1    8   4.5
SOLVE                    2  1.1    8   4.5
TAUGUENI                 2  1.1    8   4.5
```

Figure 4.23 Perceptual Map of Leisure Negotiation Strategies
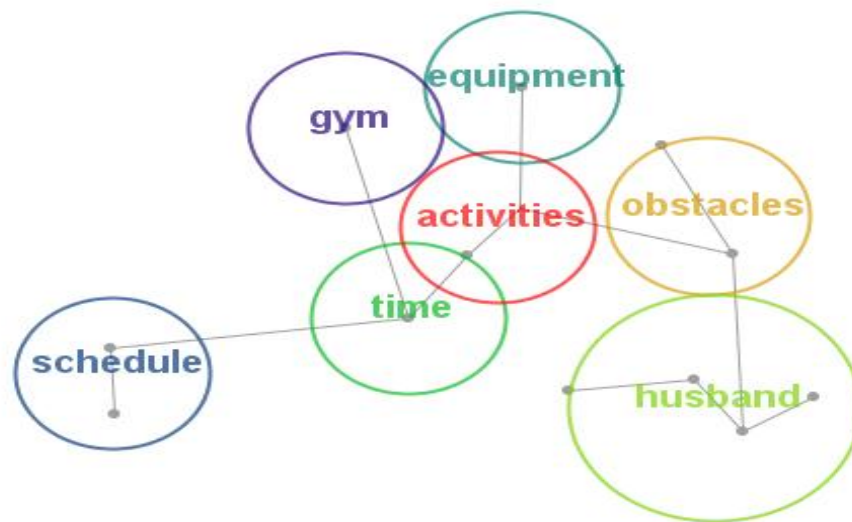
These themes are also evident in the perceptual map generated by Leximancer, as shown in Figure 4.23. This Figure highlights the issues of time and the "need for scheduling" if participation is to take place. The use of a gymnasium was mentioned by female respondents as being important for them, while others would simply use walking as an activity if other activities were not available. Husbands are mentioned in three contexts, which were (a) having access to a farm with one's parents, (b) working with one's husband to earn sufficient money to make leisure and travel possible, and, (c) rotating child care with one's husband to permit time for leisure.

Table 4.3 Encountered Leisure Constraints and the Adopted Negotiation Strategies

Encountered Leisure Constraints	Adopted Negotiation Strategies
Lack of opportunities and facilities	1) **Looking for alternative place:** *"I do the leisure activities at home".* 2) **Buying the equipment:** *"I bought some sport equipment to do my favourite sport activities at home".* 3) **Turn to alternative activities:** *"I choose activities that do not require special equipment".*
Childcare	1) **Rotation:** *"I rotate with my husband in child care".* 2) **Delaying or changing the time of leisure activities:** *"I change or delay the day of going to the gym, if one of my kids gets sick".*
Lack of time	1) **Time management:** *"I organise my daily schedule to do my activities", "Through organizing my time to find time to do my leisure activities".* 2) **Delaying or changing the time of leisure activities:** *"I postpone the time of doing my leisure activities until I get appropriate time"; "I do the leisure activities on a weekend".* 3) **Stop for a short period:** *"I stop doing any activities for a few weeks, and then I come back again".*
Work commitments	1) **Replacement:** *"I look for someone to replace me".* 2) **Utilising the official vacations:** *"I do my favourite activities on the weekend".*
Family commitments	1) **Choosing appropriate time:** *"I do my social visits in times do not conflict with the time which I allocated for doing leisure activities".* 2) **Be close to home:** *"I joined the gym that is close from my home".*

According to the analysis of the interview transcripts, 12 strategies have been used by respondents to overcome the five perceived leisure constraints. To overcome the lack of opportunities and facilities, three strategies were adopted: looking for an alternative place, buying the equipment, and turning to alternative activities. In regard to the problems that are related to childcare, participants used two strategies: rotation, and delaying or changing the time of leisure activities. The lack of time was overcome through time management, delaying or changing the time of leisure activities, and suspending them for a short period. Problems associated with work commitments were solved through replacement, and utilising the official vacations. Participants also adopted two strategies to resolve problems that are connected with

family commitments: choosing an appropriate time, and being close to home. In more detail, Table 4.3 shows encountered leisure constraints and the negotiation strategies that were applied to overcome them. These strategies were used to develop the items of scale with regard to adopted leisure negotiation strategies.

The third question in this part was used to investigate the influence of motivations and constraints on the use of negotiation strategies. More specifically, participants were asked if their adopted strategies were "triggered" by motivations and constraints.

Figure 4.24 Frequency of Word Usage for Question Twelve

```
            DESCENDING  FREQUENCY  LIST
                                    CASE   CASE
WORD                      FREQ  PCNT FREQ   PCNT
---------------           ----  ---- ----   ----
I                          73   22.6  222   69.4
TRAVEL                     60   18.6  195   60.9
OBSTACLES                  28    8.7  108   33.8
AM                         15    4.6   60   18.8
KIND                       11    3.4   44   13.8
ME                          9    2.8   36   11.2
OBSTACLE                    9    2.8   32   10.0
OVERCOME                    9    2.8   33   10.3
I'M                         8    2.5   32   10.0
SOLVE                       8    2.5   32   10.0
STRONG                      6    1.9   24    7.5
TYPE                        6    1.9   24    7.5
TRAVELED                    5    1.5   20    6.2
TRYING                      5    1.5   20    6.2
FACED                       4    1.2   16    5.0
ORDER                       4    1.2   13    4.1
RESOLVED                    4    1.2   16    5.0
COMFORTABLE                 3    0.9   12    3.8
CONDITIONS                  3    0.9   12    3.8
DEPENDS                     3    0.9   12    3.8
DESPITE                     3    0.9   12    3.8
EFFECTS                     3    0.9   12    3.8
EVERYTHING                  3    0.9   12    3.8
IMPOSSIBLE                  3    0.9   12    3.8
LACK                        3    0.9   12    3.8
PAST                        3    0.9   12    3.8
PROBLEMS                    3    0.9   12    3.8
SIMPLE                      3    0.9   12    3.8
WANT                        3    0.9   12    3.8
WILL                        3    0.9   12    3.8
AVAILABLE                   2    0.6    5    1.6
CHILDREN                    2    0.6    8    2.5
CIRCUMSTANCES               2    0.6    8    2.5
CLOSE                       2    0.6    8    2.5
CONFRONTS                   2    0.6    8    2.5
COUNTRIES                   2    0.6    8    2.5
DELAY                       2    0.6    8    2.5
DESIRE                      2    0.6    6    1.9
DISEASE                     2    0.6    8    2.5
DOING                       2    0.6    8    2.5
```

Figure 4.24 shows the common word list from an interim stage of the analysis, since at this stage there were distinctions between the words "obstacle" and "obstacles" that were thought to have some significance. There was a tendency for males to use the plural form and for females to use the singular, but the latter tended to be specific in referring to young children. Females would use the plural, however, when talking

about ways in which money might be secured to overcome "obstacles" just as their male counterparts did.

In terms of actual motives two broad categorisations emerged, being the religious motive for the Hajj (pilgrimage), and a more general statement that if one wishes to travel, then one will do so almost regardless of the obstacles (see Figure 4.25). One female respondent wrote:

> I love to travel and obstacles make me look for solutions. I will try to convince one of my brothers to travel with me or I will travel with my husband when I marry in the future. I will solve the problem of a lack of money by saving from my salary in the future when I work.

Figure 4.25 Perceptual Map of the Influence of Motivations and Constraints on the Use of Negotiation Strategies
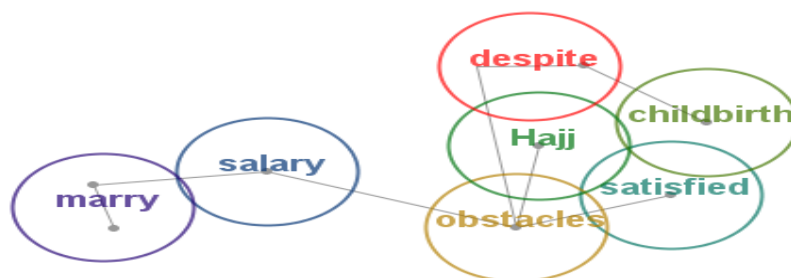
Another respondent travelled to Yemen in spite of security concerns, overcoming these obstacles by travelling in a group and avoiding going out at night. In some instances obstacles appear not to be in the destination but rather issues of family concerns, family commitments, and work responsibilities that appear to be more difficult to overcome. Figure 4.25 picks up some of these themes and adds another, namely: that a higher salary overcomes obstacles.

According to the analysis of the interview transcripts, participants showed a strong desire to do everything they can could to overcome the constraints that inhibit their participation in travel and leisure activities.

"...Yes, if I have a desire to travel, I will solve all obstacles. In the past, when I wanted to go to Mecca to perform Hajj, I saved money over a year to meet the expenses".

"...Yes, I am the kind who likes to travel, despite all obstacles, and do everything for travel; I travelled in the past for study despite the spread of swine flu; as all my colleagues did not travel at that time for fear of contracting the disease. I have a conviction and determination that helped me to overcome all obstacles".

"...Obstacles make me look for solutions".

However, their desire to overcome the obstacles that affect their participation in travel and leisure activities is limited by the level of obstacles.

"... Depends on the strength of obstacles, if they are strong, and could cause negative effects, I will not travel. But if they are normal, I will do my best to overcome them and travel".

"... Some obstacles conquer my desire to travel, I do not like to leave my children and travel without them, I will not be happy at all".

"... The strong obstacles prevent me from travelling, while the simple obstacles are easy to be overcome".

Therefore, it could be concluded that the influence of motivations and constraints on the use of negotiation strategies depends on the strength of the constraints. In other words, if the encountered constraints exceed the abilities of the person to surmount them, participation would not take place. In addition, the influence of motivations on the use of negotiation strategies is also subject to the strength of constraints. More specifically, the motivation to participate in travel and leisure activities will not lead to participation if the perceived constraints cannot be overcome.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented and discussed findings from the interviews conducted with 27 Omani residents. The results of the qualitative phase show that "the desire for getting away from daily routine"'; "the desire to experience another country"; and, "seeing the culture, traditions and customs of others" were the most important push motivations. Regarding the pull motivations, the participants reported that a "secure and safe destination"; "a desirable climate"; and, "attractive nature" were the most common pull motivations that attracted them to visit or choose a specific destination. This study has also found that Omani residents were strongly constrained by "lack of money"; "family commitments"; and, "security and safety problems" from travelling abroad. Similarly, the respondents affirmed that constraints such as "work and family commitments"; "dependent children"; "lack of time"; and, "lack of opportunities and facilities" impeded them from participation in leisure activities.

The analysis of the interview transcripts revealed that 24 strategies had been used by participants to overcome their seven perceived travel constraints. For example, in order to overcome the lack of money, six strategies were adopted: saving money, cooperation between married couples, borrowing money, travel in groups to reduce travel costs, switching from international to domestic travel, reducing the period of staying abroad, and selling something to provide money for travel. In relation to leisure negotiation strategies, 12 strategies have been adopted by respondents to overcome the five perceived leisure constraints. For instance, in order to overcome the lack of opportunities and facilities, three strategies were adopted: looking for alternative places, buying the equipment, and turning to alternative activities.

In terms of the impact of Islamic teachings on travel participation, the majority of participants interviewed believe that Islamic teachings had no direct effect on their destination choice. However, most frequently they confirmed that, even if their choice of a pleasure travel destination was travelling to non-Muslim countries, they would follow the Islamic teachings (internal control), and avoid participation in activities prohibited by Islamic law, such as gambling or drinking alcohol. Finally,

the influence of Islamic teachings on leisure participation was very clear, especially on female leisure participants. For example, according to Islamic law, Muslims are not allowed to participate in leisure activities that require mixing between genders. Therefore, participation in such activities would be contrary to the teachings of Islam, which could be considered as an indirect constraint. However, the majority of participants did not feel that they are constrained by Islamic teachings. This belief could be attributed to the fact that participants are accustomed to such criteria and restrictions in their daily lives. These findings were utilised in developing a self-completion questionnaire and, as will be shown, were consistent with the findings of the quantitative research.

Chapter Five: Phase Two: Self-completion Questionnaires

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter detailed the results of the first research phase. The current chapter builds on these results by focusing on the quantitative study. The structure of this chapter considers: (a) questionnaire design; (b) data collection; (c) the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, (d) general travel information for the respondents, and, (e) some basic descriptive statistics relating to the leisure patterns of the respondents.

5.2 Questionnaire Design

To avoid unexpected logical errors in data analysis, the process of scale development must be directed to creating a valid and reliable research instrument (Clark & Watson, 1995; Ayling, 2008).

In this context, a number of scale development guidelines have been proposed by different authors. These include different and varying stages of scale development (Churchill, 1979; De Vellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1995; Ayling, 2008). However, the common steps involved in scale development can be summarised as follows: (1) item generation, (2) scale development, and, (3) scale validation (De Vellis, 2003; Ayling, 2008). These stages have been adopted and applied in developing a self-completion questionnaire for the second phase of the research programme.

The nature of the questionnaire can be determined by reviewing both the objectives and propositions of the study (see Figure 5.1). In this case, the study questionnaire is clearly "analytical", since it is directed towards illustrating or exploring relationships between particular variables, such as the relationship between push and pull travel motivations, and the relationship between both these motivations and constraints on leisure and holiday taking and the use of negotiation strategies. The findings of the first phase (interview results), as well as a comprehensive review of previous studies

in this domain (see Chapter 2), were utilised to: (a) generate scale items, and (b) design the survey. In particular, the researcher sought, during these stages, to:

1) Generate sufficient item pools for each construct, based on the construct definitions;

2) Place each item within its appropriate dimension;

3) Formulate attitudinal statements consistent with the study's objectives;

4) Use seven-point scales to produce sufficient variance amongst the responses

   to permit discrimination;

5) Design the layout and construction of the survey to be consistent with the distribution method of the instrument (self-completion questionnaire);

6) Ensure that the statements and scale items are efficient, understandable, and attractively presented;

7) Provide respondents with a cover letter informing them of the nature of the research;

8) Write clear and accurate instructions about the best way to answer the questionnaire's sections;

9) Obtain ethical approval from the Waikato Management School Ethics Committee; and,

10) Receive special comments from the researcher's supervisors with respect to increasing the clarity of questionnaire content, as well as adopting the appropriate steps involved in conducting a pilot study.

In order to test the validity of the scale and obtain feedback on the clarity and appropriateness of the research instrument, a pilot test was conducted with 51 Omanis in Muscat before the questionnaire was more widely distributed. The number of 50 respondents is generally deemed appropriate for conducting a pilot study

(Oppenheim, 1966; Liu, 2008). Muscat was chosen as the location for this pilot study, because it is:

Figure 5.1 The Objectives and Propositions of the Study

Objectives of the Study	Propositions of the study
1. To examine the travel motivations of Omani tourists based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations;	**Proposition 1:** The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Omani outbound tourist market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions.
2. To determine whether there are significant differences in travel motivations which could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status;	**Proposition 2:** Socio-demographic variables have an influence on push and pull travel motivations.
3. To segment Omani tourists based on their push-pull motivations in order to identify their personal characteristics;	**Proposition 3:** It is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations.
4. To investigate the impact of Islam on participants' choice of a pleasure travel destination and their participation in leisure activities;	**Proposition 4:** The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination and participation in leisure activities.
5. To identify travel and leisure constraints that impede Omani residents from travelling outside Oman and participating in leisure activities.	**Proposition 5:** The three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation. **Proposition 6:** Travel and leisure constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables. **Proposition 7:** Omanis' participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel is a joint action of travel motivations and constraints.
6. To identify participants' travel and leisure negotiation strategies in order to overcome the travel and leisure constraints.	**Proposition 8:** Both motivation and constraints will "trigger" Omanis' use of negotiation strategies.

(1) the capital city of Oman containing people from across the various Omani regions, and (2) it is the largest and most important economic area in Oman. On the basis of the pilot test, some modifications were made to ensure respondents could better understand the items, and some repetitive items in the questionnaire were removed. During this phase, the scale was statistically tested by assessing the factor structure and construct validity of the items as a part of the overall scale development

process. The results of these statistical tests enabled the researcher to make decisions about which items would be retained, which would be deleted or reworded, and which items could be added to replace the deleted questions. In its final form, the questionnaire included 18 items relating to push motivations, 20 items considering pull motivations, 18 items relating to travel constraints, 18 items referring to leisure constraints, 23 items in relation to travel negotiation strategies, 25 items relating to leisure negotiation strategies, 10 items regarding the influence of Islamic teaching on the choice of a pleasure travel destination, 10 items on the influence of Islamic teaching on participation in leisure activities, and 8 items examining the relationships among variables.

The preliminary questionnaire was originally designed in English (see Appendix 1) and translated carefully into Arabic by the researcher. According to Tuncalp (1988, p. 18), "the cross-linguistic comparability of the English and the Arabic versions can be checked by a third person who is bilingual in English and Arabic". As previously noted, two Omani doctoral students with language skills in both English and Arabic were asked to check the correspondence of meaning between the two versions, and to make changes where necessary in the Arabic questionnaire. It must be noted that the information sheet was also translated into Arabic (see Appendix 2).

The questionnaire comprises 11 sections. The first section considers travel and leisure related general information. It contains two parts. The first part includes questions about respondents' past travel and plans for future travel. The second part contains questions about respondents' participation in leisure activities. Most questions in this section are considered to be dependent variables at the stage of data analysis. The first question in part one asks whether the respondents have been abroad for a holiday/sightseeing. This question was asked to divide respondents into two groups (travellers/non-travellers) for comparative purposes at the data analysis stage. Questions such as "Where did you spend your last trip away from home?"; "For how many nights were you away from home?"; "In total how many times have you travelled to another country in the last five years?"; "To what extent did you enjoy your last holiday?"; "To what extent did constraints affect your holiday plans?"; "Do

you have a plan to travel abroad within the next two years?"; "(if yes), Which destination/s do you want to go to?"; and "(if no) What is the main constraint that inhibits you from travelling abroad?" were asked in part one to obtain data relating to respondents' travel patterns. These responses were also used as an indicator of travel frequency. Furthermore, some of these questions can be used to determine whether there are significant differences in travel patterns which could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status.

The first question in part two asks respondents if they are currently participating in any types of leisure activities. Similarly, this question was asked to divide respondents into two groups (participant/nonparticipants) to permit comparisons at the data analysis stage. This part also included questions such as "What types of leisure activities do you participate in?", "What is the main constraint that inhibits you from taking part in leisure activities?", and "Do you agree or disagree with this statement: Islam prohibits travel to non-Muslim countries?". These questions were asked to generate data regarding the pattern of leisure participation among respondents, as well as being used as an indicator of leisure participation frequency. Likewise, some of these questions were examined to determine whether there are significant differences in leisure participation patterns that could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status.

The second section is about push travel motivations (reasons for travelling abroad). The push travel motivations construct is based on the idea that tourists go on holiday because there is a need to satisfy physical and social needs that are not satisfied by remaining at home (internal motivations) (Mehmetoglu, Dann, & Larsen, 2001; Correia, Valle, & Moco, 2007). As was mentioned earlier, the items in this construct were generated from two sources: (1) previous studies, and (2) in-depth interviews, where respondents were asked "Why did you take a pleasure trip abroad?" The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the 18 push travel motivations statements on a 7-point scale that ranged from 1(of no importance) to 7 (extremely important) (see Appendix 1).

The third section is about pull travel motivations (destination attributes). The pull travel motivations construct is based on the idea that tourists are attracted by attributes of the destination that pull them towards the destination (Mehmetoglu, et al., 2001; Correia et al., 2007; Kim, 2007a). As above, the items in this construct were generated from two sources: (1) the related literature, and, (2) the in-depth interviews, where respondents were asked "What attracts you to choose a particular destination?" The respondents were again asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the 20 pull travel motivations statements on a 7-point scale that ranged from 1 (of no attraction) to 7 (extremely attractive) (see Appendix 1).

The second and third sections were designed to achieve study objectives one, two, and three. Both push and pull travel motivation constructs can be treated as independent or dependent variables for analysis purposes (Zhang, 2008).

The fourth and fifth components of the questionnaire are about travel and leisure constraints respectively. These sections were designed to obtain data in terms of reasons for not travelling abroad, and reasons for not participating in leisure activities. They are closely related to study objective five. Similarly, the items for these constructs were drawn from the same two sources noted previously, that is: (1) related studies, and, (2) the in-depth interviews. In these interviews respondents were asked "What inhibits you from travelling abroad?", and "What inhibits you from participating in leisure activities?" The respondents were asked to indicate the level of their disagreement/agreement with each of the 17 and 18 travel and leisure constraints statements respectively on a 7-point scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) (see Appendix 1).

The sixth and seventh sections relate to travel and leisure negotiation strategies respectively. These constructs were intended to obtain data in relation to strategies and resources that help respondents to overcome or reduce the effect of travel and leisure constraints. They are closely related to study objective 6. Again the items were generated from previous studies, and in-depth interviews, where respondents were asked "What personal strategies did you use to overcome travel constraints?", and

"What personal strategies did you use to overcome leisure constraints?" As before, respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with each of the 23 and 25 travel and leisure negotiation strategies on a 7-point scale that again ranged from 1 (strongly not representative) to 7 (strongly representative) (see Appendix 1).

The eighth and ninth sections of the questionnaire were about the influence of Islamic teachings on the choice of a pleasure travel destination and participation in leisure activities. They are closely related to study objective 4. Again, the items in these sections were generated from two sources: (1) related literature, and (2) in-depth interviews, where respondents were asked "Does Islam affect your destination choice?" (If yes) please describe this effect", and "Does Islam affect your participation in leisure activities?" (If yes) please describe this effect". The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with each of the statements on the influence of Islamic teachings on the choice of a pleasure travel destination (10 items) and on the participation in leisure activities (10 items) on a 7-point scale that also ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) (see Appendix 1).

The tenth section was designed to explore the relationships amongst variables. This section is closely related to study proposition 8. As with the other sections, the items of this construct were generated from two sources: (1) previous studies, and, (2) the in-depth interviews, where respondents were asked "Were the strategies you used triggered by motivations and constraints?" The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the 8 relationships among variables statements on a 7-point scale as above.

The last section was designed to collect demographic data, including gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status. This demographic information was required for comparative purposes, to determine if socio-demographic variables have an influence on travel motivations, perceived travel and leisure constraints, and adopted travel and leisure negotiation strategies. This section also included the open-ended request "If you have any comments you would like to

make about holidays and leisure activities, please use the space below" (see Appendix 1).

5.3 Data Collection

The main purpose of this study is to examine the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists, including their travel motivations, travel and leisure constraints, travel and leisure negotiation strategies, and the influence of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure destination, as well as on their participation in leisure activities. Therefore, in order to collect sufficient data regarding the study objectives, 440 self-completion questionnaires were distributed over the course of 4 months. Data were collected from July to October, 2011. The target population for this study was defined as Omani outbound tourists from all Omani governorates who had travelled abroad in the previous 3 years, and also those who planned to travel abroad in the next 12 months. A self-completed questionnaire method was also applied in this study to gather data, since 7 (2.3%) respondents of the study sample were illiterate. In relation to this context, since the study questionnaire contains only closed questions, Jennings (2001) confirmed that any "researcher bias" will not have an effect on the data collection process.

The study followed procedures akin to those listed on page 105 both before and during the administration of the questionnaire survey to ensure the suitability of the distribution and collection mechanisms employed.

Data gained from the survey questionnaires were carefully input and analysed using SPSS software. Then, the data were cleaned and missing values were assessed. SPSS permits three basic means of dealing with missing values, one of which is the use of the mean item score to replace the missing response plus, in recent versions of the software, maximum extraction methods. An alternative method is "listwise", which means the computation is undertaken only for those respondents who completed all the variables used in the calculation. The final version, "pairwise" will mean statistics are calculated only where a pair of completed variables exists. Enders (2010) does not favour imputing mean scores, arguing that such a practice adversely affects the

correlation between variables. One of his suggestions is to use the expectation maximisation algorithm within missing likelihood estimation. Another is to undertake stochastic regression to calculate an option for the missing data. A series of comparisons was run and, in practice, many of the mean scores differed little from the imputed mean scores.

After that, data normality assumption tests and reliability tests were conducted to make sure that the collected data were normally distributed and reliable. These tests were separately conducted for each construct, as the mean response usually varies between the constructs of a questionnaire. In particular, the data analysis for this phase included four sequential steps: (1) descriptive data, (2) comparative analysis, (3) reduction analysis, and, (4) regression analysis. The results obtained from the data collected in this phase were then applied to test the study propositions.

5.4 Sociodemographic Profile of Respondents

To understand and generate the socio-demographic profile of the Omani outbound tourists, a descriptive analysis was undertaken comprising frequencies, percentages, means, sums, and cross-tabulation. This is a necessary step prior to examining the impact of the socio-demographic variables on travel motivations, perceived travel and leisure constraints, and the travel and leisure negotiation strategies adopted. Thus, this section will describe the demographic characteristics of respondents, as well as their general travel information.

The target population was people 18 years old or older who had been abroad for a holiday in the previous 3 years, or those who had plans to take an overseas vacation within the next 12 months. On this basis, a total of 440 questionnaires were distributed with the expectation of receiving at least 300 usable surveys. More specifically, to recruit a representative sample, 40 surveys were distributed in each Omani governorate. Out of the 440 questionnaires distributed, 355 were returned, but only 298 questionnaires proved valid for analysis. These represent a return rate of around 68% of the individuals originally approached. Table 5.1 indicates that there were more females 178 (59.7%) than males 120 (40.3%). According to the Ministry

of National Economy (2009), Omani males and females constituted 50.5% and 49.5% of the total population respectively. However, female respondents seem to be more willing to answer questionnaires (Strano, 2008). This result is also in accord with Mohsin and Alsawafi (2011) who examined the travel motivations of Omani university students and found that female respondents accounted for 56.5% of the sample, and male respondents, 42.5%. These results are also consistent with Liu (2008) who examined the travel behaviour and expenditure of Chinese university students and found that female respondents were more numerous at around 57%, while male respondents numbered 43%.

In terms of age, Table 5.1 shows that respondents between the ages of 26 and 35 years were the largest group in the sample (n=121, 40.6% of the sample). This group was followed by those aged 18-25 (n=85, 28.5%), while the respondents in the 36-49 s and 50-64 age groups made up 53 (17.8%) and 39 (13.1%) of the sample respectively. The present findings also seem to be completely consistent with Zhang's (2009) study of outbound Chinese tourists which found that respondents between 26 and 35 years of age represented the largest group in the sample, whilst the respondents in the over 65 group were the smallest group of respondents (n=2) (0.3%). This age distribution may be a characteristic of developing economies where younger, more highly educated people are the first beneficiaries of economic development. For that reason, Zhang's study combined the 65 year olds with the 50 to 65 year-old group. Likewise, in the current study, the researcher was forced to exclude the over 65 year-old group, since no responses from this group were obtained. This lack can be attributed to the fact that Omani people who are over 64 years old represent only a small part of the Omani community, accounting for 2.1% of the total population, while the 26-35 year-old group of comprised around 18.8% of the population in 2008 (Ministry of National Economy, 2009). Moreover, seniors may be generally less willing to travel out of the country for pleasurable travel owing to their health problems (Nyaupane, Mccabe, & Andereck, 2008).

Regarding relationship status, 228 (76.5%) respondents were married, while 70 (23.5%) respondents were single. One marginal contributory factor may result from

the fact that the proportion of spinsters in Oman is one of the lowest in Arabic countries (10%), compared with the UAE (68%), Qatar (35%), and Libya (30%) (Sahar, 2006).

As shown in Table 5.1, more than half of the respondents, 167 (56%), had graduated from universities or colleges with a bachelor's degree. This figure was followed by respondents who have a diploma (n=64, 21.5%), while the respondents in the sample having high school education, a master's and doctoral degree, and elementary school leaving certificate accounted for 10.7%, 6.4%, and 3% respectively. In this context, the results also indicate that 2.3% of the respondents were uneducated (i.e., have no formal education). These findings provide further support for the idea that the majority of outbound travellers are educated people (Zhang, 2009). A possible explanation for this situation might be that educated people generally hold more responsible positions and, therefore, receive higher salaries compared to people with less education. Another possible explanation for this phenomenon is that they, educated people, feel less constrained by language barriers, household expectations, and personal health and safety constraints than people who had less education (Arab-Moghaddam & Henderson, 2007; Zhang. 2009).

The results in Table 5.2 show that those with a monthly household income over OMR 500 up to OMR 1000 is the largest group (65.4%) in the sample, followed by those who earned less than OMR 500 (21.8%). Of the respondents, 9.7% had an average household monthly income ranging from over OMR1000 to OMR1500, while just 3% of the respondents claimed to have an average household income over OMR 1500 per month. It can be noted that the majority of the respondents belonged to the middle class. The annual income per capita in Oman was OMR 9849 (about NZ$34,000) in 2011, compared with OMR 7790 in 2008 (Ministry of National Economy, 2009; Haider, 2011).

In terms of the occupation of the respondents, more than half of the respondents (66.4%) were working in the public sector, followed by students (10.7%) who were mainly college and university students, and respondents who worked in the private

164

sector as company employees (9.4%). According to the Civil Service Minister, the total number of Omani employees in the public sector is 144,605 in 2012 ("144,605 citizens recruited", 2012). This result may be explained by the fact that Omani people tend to resort to the public sector for employment as they perceive it as offering better incentives such as higher earnings, better working conditions, and pension benefits at the end of service (Decent Work Country Programme, 2010), while migrant labour tends to occupy private sector posts – a position not too dissimilar to that found in other Gulf countries such as the United Arab Emirates (Henderson, 2007).

Finally, Table 5.2 illustrates that the majority of the respondents had children (62.1%), while 37.9% did not. According to the Ministry of National Economy (2009), the less than 18 years age group represented approximately 45% of the population in 2008. In a definition provided by the United Nations (1989), a child was defined as a human being below the age of 18 years old.

In conclusion, since the sample of the current study is generally consistent with the structure of the entire Omani community, it can be argued that the sample of the study is representative of the profile of potential Omani outbound tourists.

Table 5.1 The Demographic Profile of Respondents

Socio-demographic Variables	Frequency	Per cent
Gender		
Male	120	40.3%
Female	178	59.7%
Total	298	100%
Age Groups		
18-25 years old	85	28.5%
26-35 years old	121	40.6%
36-49 years old	53	17.8%
50-64 years old	39	13.1%
Total	298	100%
Marital Status		
Single	70	23.5%
Married	228	76.5%
Total	298	100%
Educational Levels		
No formal education	7	2.3%
Elementary School	9	3%
High School	32	10.7%
Diploma	64	21.5%
Bachelor's Degree	167	56%
Master's & PhD Degree	19	6.4%
Total	298	100%
Monthly Income		
Under OMR 500	65	21.8%
Over OMR 500 to OMR 1000	195	65.4%
Over OMR 1000 to OMR 1500	29	9.7%
Over OMR 1500	9	3%
Total	298	100%
Occupations		
Public Sector	198	66.4%
Private Sector	28	9.4%
Student	32	10.7%
Housewife	13	4.4%
Retired	9	3%
Businessman	13	6%
Total	298	100%
Children		
Yes	185	62.1%
No	113	37.9%
Total	298	**100%**

5.5 General Travel Information about the Respondents

The current study is aimed at exploring the potential Omani outbound market through examining its travel motivations, perceived travel and leisure constraints, the travel and leisure negotiation strategies adopted, and the influence of Islamic teachings on

the choice of a travel destination, and participation in leisure activities. To achieve this aim, both current and potential Omani outbound tourists were targeted to take part in an in-depth interview in the first stage and to complete a questionnaire in the second described previously stage.

It can be seen from the data in Table 5.2 that of the 298 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 82.6% had been abroad for a holiday at least once in the previous 3 years and, therefore, were regarded as current outbound tourists. On the other hand, 17% of respondents had never been overseas, and were considered as potential outbound tourists, as they expressed their intention to travel abroad in the next 12 months.

Table 5.2 Potential and Current Omani Outbound Tourists

Have you been abroad for a holiday	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	246	82.6%
No	52	17.4%
Total	298	100%

5.5.1 Travel Destination

The respondents were asked where they had spent their last trip away from home. In order to collect data regarding this question, countries of the world were divided into five categories based on their geographic location: Asia-bound, Europe-bound, North America-bound, Oceania-bound, and Africa-bound. As shown in Table 5.3, the majority of those who had been abroad at least once in the previous 3 years indicated that they had spent their last trip in destinations in Asia (67.1%), for example, Arabian Gulf countries, Thailand, China, and Malaysia. This category was followed by European countries such as the UK, France, Switzerland, and Germany (5.4%). African countries such as Egypt, Morocco, Zanzibar, and Tunisia came in third place (6.5%).

Table 5.3 Respondents' Travel Destinations

Destinations	Frequency	Per cent
Asia-bound	200	67.1
Europe-bound	19	6.4
Africa-bound	16	5.4
America-bound	6	2.0
Oceania-bound	5	1.7
Did not travel abroad	52	17.4
Total	298	100%

In order to identify the travel satisfaction of the respondents generally, they were asked to what extent they had enjoyed their last trip. The study revealed that 83% of those who had travelled overseas enjoyed their last trip; indeed only 4% had some degree of dissatisfaction. Table 5.4 provides more details in this regard.

Table 5.4 Travel Satisfaction of the Respondents

Statements	Frequency	Per cent
I enjoyed	118	48%
I definitely enjoyed	86	35%
I neither enjoyed nor did not enjoy	31	13%
I did not enjoy	5	2%
I definitely did not enjoy	5	2%
Missing	1	
Total	245	100%

Respondents were also asked to assess if their holiday plans had been affected by travel constraints. As shown in Table 5.5, over half of those surveyed indicated that their holiday plans had not been affected by travel constraints (58%), while just 22% (n=51) of respondents who had travelled believed that their last trip had been affected by travel constraints, whether internally or externally imposed.

Table 5.5 The Influence of Travel Constraints on Respondents' Holiday Plans

Statements	Frequency	Per cent
Did not affect my plans	89	36%
Definitely did not affect my plans	54	22%
Neither affected nor did not affect	51	20%
Affected my plans	42	17%
Definitely affected my plans	9	5%
Missing	1	
Total	**245**	**100%**

5.5.2 *Length of Stay*

The respondents were asked how many nights they were away from home. The responses were classified into five groups: 1 week or less, 1 to 2 weeks, 3 to 4 weeks, 4 weeks, and more than 4 weeks. Table 5.6 illustrates that the majority of travellers reported 7 days (45%) as the maximum length of stay in a destination, followed by those who stayed 2 weeks in a tourist destination (35%), while 3 weeks, 4 weeks, and more than 4 weeks as length of stay at a destination were indicated by only 10.5%, 7%, and 2.5% of respondents respectively.

Table 5.6 Respondents' Length of Stay in Destination

Length of Stay	Frequency	Per cent
One Week or Less	107	45%
Two to Three Weeks	83	35%
Three to Four Weeks	24	10.5%
Four Weeks	16	7%
More than Four Weeks	6	2.5%
Missing	9	-
Total	**236**	**100%**

5.5.3 *Travel Frequency*

In terms of travel frequency, respondents were also asked how many times they had travelled abroad during the previous 5 years. The current study found that 3 times was the mean number of trips taken in the previous 5years. Zhang (2009) suggested five

categories to classify respondents regarding their travel frequency. These categories can be listed as follows: potential traveller, occasional traveller, infrequent traveller, less than frequent traveller, and frequent traveller. It is apparent from Table 5.7 that 18% of respondents had never gone overseas in the previous 5 years. Infrequent travellers who travelled from 3-5 times in the previous 5years comprised 34.5% of respondents. Less than a third of those who responded (30.5%) were classified as occasional travellers whilst the less than frequent and frequent travellers accounted for 11% and 6% of travellers respectively.

Table 5.7 Respondents' Overseas Travel Frequency

Times	Category	Frequency	Per cent
0	Potential traveller	52	18%
1-2	Occasional traveller	88	30.5%
3-5	Infrequent traveller	99	34.5%
6-10	Less than frequent travellers	32	11%
>10	Frequent traveller	17	6%
Missing	10	-	-
Total		288	100%

In this context, a likelihood ratio test was conducted to determine which of the socio-demographic variables might have the greatest effect on the number of trips taken. The results, as shown in Table 5.8, indicate that only gender, age, and marital relationship are statistically significant variables. It was also found that a 84% fit between observed and actual distributions existed after allowing for missing data distribution.

170

Table 5.8 Likelihood Ratio Tests of Travel Frequency and Socio-demographics

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Squared	df	Sig.
Intercept	140.668[a]	0.000	0	.
Gender	**150.143**	**9.475**	**1**	**0.002**
Age	**149.601**	**8.933**	**3**	**0.030**
Marital status	**146.578**	**5.910**	**1**	**0.015**
Educational	148.845	8.178	5	0.147
Income	143.194	2.527	3	0.471
Occupation	142.091	1.423	5	0.922
Children	141.323	0.655	1	0.418

Table 5.9 The Respondents' Future Travel Destinations

Bounds	Frequency	Per cent
Asia-bound (includes Middle East)	145	70%
Europe-bound	30	14.5%
Africa-bound	15	7.5%
America-bound	9	4.5%
Oceania-bound	7	3.5%
Missing	9	-
Total	**206**	**100%**
Not holidaying	**92**	

5.5.4 Future travel plans

In order to explore respondents' future travel plans, they were asked three questions: (1) do you have an intention to travel abroad within the next 12 months, (2) (if yes), which destination (s) do you want to go to, and, (3) (if no), what is the main constraint that inhibits you from travelling abroad. The results show that the majority of respondents (72%) confirmed their intention to travel abroad, while 28% of respondents had no intention to travel abroad in the next 12 months. Of the respondents who confirmed their intention to travel abroad, 70% chose destinations in Asia and the Middle East to spend their next holiday, followed by those who intended

to visit destinations in Europe (14.5%). These findings further support the previous findings that Asian, Middle Eastern, and European destinations are still the favourite tourist destinations for Omani outbound tourists (see Table 5.3). Table 5.9 provides more details regarding this issue.

On the other hand, it can be seen from the data in Table 5.10 that "financial challenges", "work commitments" and "family commitments" are the main travel constraints that could conceivably inhibit the non-travellers from travelling abroad in the next 12 months.

Table 5.10 The Main Travel Constraints that Inhibit the Non-travellers from Travelling Abroad

Travel Constraints	Frequency	Per cent
Financial challenges	45	46%
Work commitments	13	13%
Family commitments	13	13%
Lack of interest	7	7%
Health problems	7	7%
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	4	4%
Having dependent children	4	4%
Lack of finding friend or family member to travel with	3	3%
Safety concerns (personal safety)	2	2%
Negative attitudes towards Muslims/Arabs	1	1%
Total	99	100%

Finally, respondents were asked to indicate their attitude towards this statement: "Islam prohibits travel to non-Muslim countries". Three possible responses were provided by the study: "Agree", "I have no idea", and "Disagree". The study found that the majority of respondents (67.4%) disagreed with this statement, while only 6.4% believed that visiting non-Muslim countries is prohibited by Islamic teachings, and the remainder (26.2%) indicated that they were unsure about the teachings of Islam about visiting non-Muslim countries.

5.6 General Leisure Information of the Respondents

In order to collect basic data about respondents' leisure behaviour, they were asked if they were currently participating in any type of leisure activities. The study found that of the 298 respondents who completed the questionnaire, just over half 152 (51%) were participating in leisure activities, while 146 (49%) respondents did not participate in any type of leisure activities.

Regarding their leisure activities preferences, respondents were asked in what type of leisure activities they participated. In this study, leisure activities were aggregated into two groups: outdoor and indoor activities. The results show that of the 150 respondents who participate in leisure activities, the majority (70%) preferred to engage in outdoor activities, whilst indoor activities were preferred by only 30% of the respondents.

Finally, nonparticipants were asked "What was the main constraint that inhibited you from taking part in leisure activities?" As shown in Table 5.11, "lack of time and opportunities to participate", "family commitments", and "lack of interest" were the main leisure constraints indicated.

Table 5.11 The Main Leisure Constraints that Inhibit the Nonparticipants from Participating in Leisure Activities

Leisure Constraints	Frequency	Per cent
Lack of time and opportunities to participate	46	34%
Family commitments	20	15%
Lack of interest	18	13%
Lack of facilities	15	11%
Work commitments	13	10%
Health problems	10	7.5%
Financial challenges	5	4%
Having dependent children	5	4%
Lack of skills or physical ability	2	1.5%
Total	134	100%
Missing	12	

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter the procedures of scale development were described and justified in detail. In order to generalise the results of the current study to the whole population, issues such as sampling bias and randomisation were carefully considered. Furthermore, the respondents' socio-demographic profile, general travel information, and general leisure information were collected. These results are utilised in subsequent chapters to examine their influence on research variables as well as the relationships among the study variables.

In general, the following conclusions can be drawn from the present chapter. First, the preliminary results strongly confirm the need for exploring further both travel and leisure constraints that inhibit Omani people from travelling abroad and taking part in leisure activities, and that exploration is undertaken in the following chapters. Moreover, these findings suggest that, in general, socio-demographic variables have an influence on the study variables and, therefore, must be examined. That examination will also be done in the next chapters by using T-tests as well as ANOVA. Finally, this initial information is important for understanding the study problems and paving the way to conducting more advanced analytical tests such as factor and cluster analysis.

Chapter Six: Push and Pull Motivations and Underlying Dimensions

6.1 Introduction

As detailed in Chapter 2, there is an extensive body of published studies describing the great influence motivations have on travel decision making, along with the influence of other related factors such as beliefs, preferences, and attitudes (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Crompton, 1995). Therefore, the primary objectives of this chapter are to: (1) examine the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists, based on the theory of push and pull travel motivations (research objective 1); and, (2) determine whether there are significant differences in travel motivations which could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status (research objective 2). Consequently, the study's propositions 1 and 2 will be tested in this chapter.

To achieve these objectives, the study questionnaire included two sections regarding "push motivations" (reasons for travelling overseas) and "pull motivations" (destination attributes). First, to ensure that the data are statistically appropriate for further analysis, both the split-half and the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient tests were employed. Then, means and standard deviations of both push and pull motivation items were utilised to identify separately the more important push and pull motivations for Omani outbound tourists. Furthermore, to test the first proposition, exploratory factors analysis followed by the Pearson bivariate correlation test, was undertaken. Finally, to identify the influence of socio-demographic variables, as well as certain travel behaviours on push and pull travel motivations, an independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were employed (the second proposition). More details regarding the statistical tests adopted are provided later in this chapter.

6.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Constructs

Reliability refers to the ability of the research instrument to yield the same or stable results each time it is run (Gatewood & Field, 1990). Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient is

widely used as a measure of the internal consistency or reliability of the measurement instrument. In general, Nunnally (1967) argued that a research scale with an alpha value of 0.70 or higher is deemed reliable and acceptable. However, Kline (1999) suggested that, in exploratory and psychological constructs such as in this research, an alpha value below 0.70 is sufficient as a result of the diversity of the constructs being tested. In this study, an internal consistency analysis was applied by using two models: Cronbach's alpha and split-half coefficient of correlation. In particular, since the study questionnaire includes subscales, reliability tests have been performed separately for these subscales (Field, 2005).

The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the 18-item measure of push motivations and 20-item scale of pull motivations were 0.810 and 0.855 respectively; these are greater than the acceptable alpha value (see Table 6.1, and Table 6.2). In this regard, Field (2005) suggested if the value of alpha reflects a reasonable degree of reliability, and the increase in the overall alpha value would not be "dramatic" if any item were deleted, there is no need to remove any item.

Table 6.1 Reliability Statistics of Push Motivations

Total Number of Items		18
Cronbach's Alpha		0.810
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.714
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.714
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.712

Next, a split-half method of reliability was conducted separately to test the internal consistency of both scales by randomly splitting the items into subscales. In terms of push items, the Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficients were 0.714 and 0.712 respectively. Regarding pull items, the results indicated that the Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficients were 0.749 and 0.712 respectively.

Table 6.2 Reliability Statistics of Pull Motivations

Total Number of Items		20
Cronbach's Alpha		0.855
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.749
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.749
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.749

In addition, the item-total correlation for push factors indicated that only 2 out of the 18 items were significantly below the standard of 0.4, specifically, "physically rest and relax" and "visit relatives and friends" (Appendix 3), while the item-total correlation for pull factors showed that only 1 out of the 20 items had a similar low correlation, namely, "nightlife and entertainment" (Appendix 4). This result might be due to the fact that nightlife and entertainment activities often include activities such as dancing, smoking, drinking alcohol, visiting strip clubs, gambling, and illicit sexual relations, which are clearly prohibited by the Holy Qur'an (Holy Qur'an, 5:90). Therefore, the majority of respondents score low on this item. However, these items were retained as they would maintain the conceptual integrity. In general, the rest of the items were over 0.4, thereby showing a high reliability of data.

6.3 The Importance of Push Motivations

The means, standard deviations, and ranking for push travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists are presented in Table 6.3. The push travel motivations ranged from the highest mean score of 5.66 to the lowest mean score of 2.63. The scores were clustered around 1.5 standard deviations. As shown in Table 6.3, the five most important push motivations for Omani outbound tourists to travel abroad were "experience another country" which received the highest mean score (M = 5.66), followed by " learn something new or increase my knowledge " (M = 5.42). The third most important push motivation that led Omani outbound tourists to travel abroad was "experience cultures that are different from my own" (M = 5.31). The fourth and fifth push motivations to Omani pleasure travellers were "escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home" (M = 5.29) and "see something new and exciting" (M = 5.13).

On the other hand, as shown in Table 6.3, the five least important push motivations for Omani outbound tourists in terms of travelling abroad were "participate in physical activities" which received the lowest mean score (M = 2.63), followed by "mix with fellow tourists" (M = 3.42). The third least important push motivation for Omani outbound tourists to travel abroad was "experience luxury things and nice food" (M = 3.50). The fourth and fifth least important push motivators for Omani pleasure travellers were "meet people who are interested in the same things" (M = 3.57) and "visit places friends haven't been to" (M = 3.81).

Table 6.3 Importance Rankings of Push Motivations

Rank	Push Travel Motivations	Mean	SD
1	Experience another country	5.66	1.57
2	Learn something new or increase my knowledge	5.42	1.50
3	Experience cultures that are different from my own	5.31	1.62
4	Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home	5.29	1.71
5	See something new and exciting	5.13	1.94
6	Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	5.04	1.84
7	See how other people live and their way of life	4.99	1.66
8	Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/ friends	4.95	1.89
9	Physically rest and relax	4.94	2.33
10	Visit relatives and friends	4.48	2.12
11	Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations	4.12	1.89
12	Visit a place recommended by friends	3.95	1.87
13	Talk about my travel experience after returning home	3.92	2.03
14	Visit places friends haven't been to	3.81	2.12
15	Meet people who are interested in the same things	3.57	1.86
16	Experience luxury things and nice food	3.50	1.98
17	Mix with fellow tourists	3.42	1.93
18	Participate in physical activities	2.63	1.73

The findings of the current study are, to a certain extent, consistent with those of Mohsin and Alsawafi (2011) who found that Omani students were strongly motivated by a desire to learn something new or increase their knowledge; to experience cultures that are different their own; to spend time without worrying about their study; to see something new and exciting; and, to escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home. Similarly, Mohsin and Alsawafi (2011) also found that push travel motivations such as "to participate in physical activities"; "to mix with fellow tourists"; and, "to meet people who are interested in the same things" were among the least important push motivations for Oman students to travel overseas.

However, the findings of the current study do not support their findings in some aspects. For instance, "to be mentally refreshed" and to "physically rest and relax" were highly rated by Omani students as motives to travel abroad, while in the current study, these motivators did not represent priorities. A possible explanation for this discrepancy might be that Mohsin and Alsawafi's (2011) sample included only college students who may prefer, mainly, to travel abroad to be mentally refreshed, physically rested and relaxed after a long academic year. Given that the sample of the current study included a variety of respondents, it sought to determine whether there are significant differences in travel motivations which could be attributed to gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status. The results of this analysis are reported in section 6.8 below.

In general, this study produced results which corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work in this field (e.g., Jang & Cai, 2002; Jang & Wu, 2006; Correia, et al., 2007; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Sangpikul, 2008; Liu, 2008; Jang, et al., 2009; Zhang, 2009). All of these studies confirmed that *"knowledge seeking", "escape from the ordinary life",* and *"relaxation"* were the most important push travel motivations stimulating tourists to travel overseas.

As shown in Table 6.4, it is encouraging to compare the findings of the quantitative phase (questionnaire), with the findings from the analysis of the qualitative phase (in-depth interviews), which also found that the "desire for getting away from daily routine"; "the desire to experience another country"; "seeing the culture, traditions and customs of others"; and, "visiting other people" were the major push motivations for Omani tourists to travel abroad. However, it must be noted that despite "see how other people live and their way of life" as a reason to travel abroad does not come within the first five most important push travel motivations, this motivation was rated around (M=5.0) by the respondents (see Table 6.3). Therefore, it can be clearly seen that the findings of the quantitative method (questionnaires) confirm, to a large extent, the results derived from the qualitative phase (in-depth interviews).

Table 6.4 A Comparison between the Findings of the Quantitative Phase and the Qualitative Phase Regarding Push Travel Motivations

Rank	Findings of the quantitative phase	Rank	Findings of the qualitative phase
4	Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home.	1	The desire to get away from the daily routine.
1	Experience another country.	2	The desire to experience another country.
3	Experience cultures that are different from my own.	3	Seeing the culture, traditions and customs of others.
7	See how other people live and their way of life.	4	Visiting other people.

6.4 The Importance of Pull Motivations

Regarding the pull travel motivations, the means, standard deviations, and rank for pull travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists are presented in Table 6.5. The pull travel motivations (destination attributes) ranged from a highest mean score of 6.31 to a lowest mean score of 3.37. The scores were again clustered around 1.5 standard deviations. As shown in Table 6.5, the five most attractive pull motivations for Omani outbound tourists to visit/choose a specific destination were "safety and security at a destination even when travelling alone" which received the highest mean score (M = 6.31), followed by "natural attractions (sea, beach, coral, mountain, lakes, rivers, streams, wildlife, birds)" (M = 6.08). The third most attractive pull motivation that encouraged Omani outbound tourists to visit/choose a specific destination was "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods" (M = 5.89).The fourth and fifth most attractive pull motivations were "ease of communication with local people (language)" (M = 5.75) and "availability of mosques (places of worship)" (M = 5.55).

Table 6.5 Importance Rankings of Pull Motivations

Rank	Pull Travel Motivations	Mean	SD
1	Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	6.31	1.33
2	Natural attractions	6.08	1.36
3	Availability of Arabic foods/halal foods	5.89	1.37
4	Ease of communication with local people (language)	5.75	1.59
5	Availability of mosques (places of worship)	5.55	1.71
6	Different climate than that at home	5.54	1.60
7	Positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination	5.51	1.60
8	Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination	5.39	1.56
9	A variety of shopping places	5.39	1.68
10	Reasonable priced goods and services	5.24	1.63
11	Favourable currency exchange rates	4.91	1.79
12	Availability of information about the destination	4.90	1.70
13	Historical. Military, or archaeological sites (i.e. fort and castle)	4.57	1.77
14	Museums/art galleries/ local crafts/ handiwork	4.47	1.76
15	Proximity to Oman (short distance)	4.26	1.86
16	Education opportunities	4.17	1.98
17	Unique/different cultural groups	4.11	1.82
18	Outdoor activities	3.91	1.90
19	Nightlife and entertainment	3.90	2.17
20	Facilities for physical activities	3.37	1.91

In contrast, as shown in Table 6.5, the five least attractive pull motivations for Omani outbound tourists to visit/choose a specific destination were "facilities for physical activities" which received the lowest mean score (M = 3.37), followed by "nightlife and entertainment" (M = 3.90). The third least attractive pull travel motivation for Omani outbound tourists to visit/select a specific destination was "outdoor activities" (M = 3.91). The fourth and fifth least attractive pull motivations were "unique/different cultural groups" (M = 4.11) and "education opportunities" (M = 4.17).

These findings are, noticeably, in agreement with Mohsin and Alsawafi's (2011) findings, which also showed that Omani students were strongly attracted to visit/choose a specific destination by the destination's attributes such as "safety and security"; "natural attractions"; "availability of mosques"; and, ease of communication with local people". Similarly, there are, to some extent, commonalities between the findings of the current study and Mohsin and Alsawafi's (2011) findings regarding the least attractive pull motivations. They found that factors

such as "ease of driving on my own"; "favourable currency exchange rate"; "nightlife and entertainment"; and, "facilities for physical activities" were, respectively, the least attractive pull motivations for Omani students.

In this study, respondents rated "nightlife and entertainment" as one of the least attractive pull factors. This result again may be explained by the fact that nightlife and entertainment activities often include activities clearly forbidden by Allah in the Holy Qur'an (Holy Qur'an, 5:90), and are, therefore, strictly considered major sins in Islam ("The Major Sins", 2012).

In the same context, it is worth noting that pull factors related to physical activities such as "facilities for physical activities"; and, "outdoor activities" did not represent attractive factors to induce Omani outbound tourists to choose a travel destination. It is difficult to explain these results, but they might be related to the fact that 49% of the respondents in this study did not participate in any type of leisure activities in their daily life. Thus, a general lack of interest or engagement in leisure activities even at home may have led to these results.

Furthermore, pull factors such as "availability of Arabic foods" (M= 5.55); and, "different climate than that at home" (M= 5.54) were clearly valued highly in the current study as attractive pull motivations when compared with Mohsin and Alsawafi's (2011) study. It seems possible that these results are due to college students caring less than older people about issues of weather and availability of Arabic food when they are abroad, since they could eat in global fast food restaurants such as the KFC, Pizza Hut, and McDonalds (Bladd, 2009). Thus, contrasting these two studies again sheds light on the importance of studying the possible differences among the respondents that could be attributed to the influence of their socio-demographic variables.

In general, these results also accord with previous research in this field (e.g., Hallab, et al., 2006; Sangpikul, 2008; Mohsin & Alsawafi, 2011), which showed that factors such as "safety and security", and "natural attractions" were among the most

182

attractive pull factors (destination's attributes) drawing outbound tourists when they are choosing a tourist destination.

In particular, it should be noted that Omani outbound tourists were strongly attracted to choose/visit a specific destination by cultural factors. The current study found that pull factors such as "availability of mosques (places of worship)"; "ease of communication with local people (language)"; "positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination"; and, "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods" represented a cornerstone for the perspective Omani tourists, when choosing a holiday destination. . There are similarities between the pull factors expressed by the respondents in this study and those described by Mohsin and Alsawafi (2011). In general, these results may reflect the influence of Islamic teachings on the participants' travel behaviour. According to the Holy Qur'an, Muslims, for example, are strongly recommended to eat only halal food (Holy Qur'an, 120:4-5), and pray as much as possible, and on time, at mosques (Holy Qur'an, 4:103).

As shown in Table 6.4, the present findings seem to be consistent with the findings that were derived from the in-depth interviews, which found that the respondents were attracted to choose/visit a specific destination by pull factors such as "secure and safe destination"; "a desirable climate"; "attractive nature"; "good shopping"; and, "an acceptable price". On the other hand, it should be noted that although "different climate than that at home"; "a variety of shopping places"; and, "reasonable priced goods and services" did not score within the top five most attractive pull travel motivations, they both received mean scores over (M = 5.0, see Table 6.5). Therefore, it can be clearly seen that the findings of the quantitative research again confirm, to a great extent, the results that were found in the qualitative phase of the study.

Table 6.6 A Comparison between the Findings of the Quantitative Phase and the Qualitative Phase Regarding Pull Travel Motivations

Rank	Findings of the quantitative phase	Rank	Findings of the qualitative phase
1	Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	1	Safe and secure destination
2	Natural attractions	2	Attractive nature
6	Different climate than that at home	3	A desirable climate
9	A variety of shopping places	4	Good shopping
10	Reasonable priced goods and services	5	An acceptable cost to get there

6.5 Principal Component Factoring of Push Motivations

In order to unearth the possible underlying factors of both push and pull travel motivations, principal component factor analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was applied. The main purpose of using factor analysis is to generate a smaller subset of measurement variables from a large set of data. Thus, any subsequent analysis, such as t-test or multinomial regression test, can be conducted on the factor scores rather than the complete set of original data (Field, 2005).

The 18 items related to push travel motivation were analysed. Missing values were replaced with variable mean. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant (p<0.001) and the calculation of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics was 0.781, which falls into the range of being "good" (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). This result shows that the sample adequacy is suitable for factor analysis. The anti-image correlation matrix was also examined. For these data, all values were found above 0.50, ranging from 0.65 to 0.85. In this respect, Field (2005) suggests that if any variable fails to obtain values above the bare minimum of 0.50, it must be excluded from the analysis. For further analysis, items with communality and factor loadings greater than 0.40 were the only ones kept. Kaiser (1974) suggests 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. From the results of the communality, one item "physically rest and relax = 0.274" was ruled out owing to low communality. The factor analysis was rerun after eliminating that item, with KMO statistics of 0.781, with a statistically significant chi-square (χ^2) value of

1759.275 with 136 degrees of freedom. Principal component factor analysis with a varimax rotation created five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 65.53% of the total variance (Table 6.7). Checking the scree plot also showed that a 5-factor solution was the most appropriate. The Cronbach's alpha within each factor was applied 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 first push factor, labelled "discovering new things", comprised five items: "experience cultures that are different from my own"; "see how other people live and their way of life"; "see something new and exciting"; "experience another country"; and, "learn something new or increase my knowledge". With an eigenvalue of 4.53, it explained 26.68% of the total variance. From Table 6.7 we can see that all 5 items had factor loadings of over 0.65, indicating a strong correlation between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong. Overall, it had a reliability alpha of 0.81.

The second push factor was labelled "friends and relaxation". As Table 6.7 shows, this factor captured 14.14% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 2.40. This factor included four items: "talk about my travel experience after returning home"; "visit places recommended by friends"; "spend my time without worrying about my study/work"; and, "visit places friends haven't been to". It had a reliability coefficient of 0.68. A good correlation was found between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong. The 4 items had a factor loading of over 0.60.

The third push factor was labelled "social and physical activities", and contained 4 variables: "mix with fellow tourists"; "meet people who are interested in the same things"; "meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations"; and, "participate in physical activity". From the data in Table 6.7, it is apparent that the correlation between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong was strong (0.65). This factor represented 9.53% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.62. The reliability of this factor was 0.72.

The fourth push factor was labelled "strengthen relationships", since it included motivations such as: "visit relatives and friends"; and, "strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends". The reliability of this factor was 0.72. It can be seen from the data in Table 6.7 that all items in this factor received factor loadings of over 0.80, showing a strong correlation between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong. This factor accounted for 8.66% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.47.

Table 6.7 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Push Motivations

Factor Names and Items	Load.[a]	Comm.[aa]	Eigen.[aaa]	% Var.[aaaa]
Discovering new things (α=0.81) (mean = 5.31)			4.53	26.68
Experience cultures that are different from my own.	0.860	0.755		
See how other people live and their way of life.	0.758	0.655		
See something new and exciting.	0.703	0.524		
Experience another country	0.696	0.757		
Learn something new or increase my knowledge.	0.668	0.667		
Friends & relaxation (α=0.68) (mean = 4.18)			2.40	14.15
Talk about my travel experience after returning home.	0.741	0.592		
Visit places recommended by friends.	0.671	0.622		
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work.	0.625	0.521		
Visit places friends haven't been to.	0.617	0.497		
Social & physical activities (α=0.72) (mean = 3.44)			1.62	9.53
Mix with fellow tourists.	0.691	0.622		
Meet people who are interested in the same things.	0.677	0.658		
Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/ nations.	0.654	0.722		
Participate in physical activity.	0.650	0.625		
Strengthen relationships (α=0.72) (mean = 4.72)			1.47	8.66
Visit relatives and friends.	0.849	0.766		
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends.	0.837	0.760		
Luxury & Escaping (α=0.50) (mean = 4.40)			1.10	6.50
Experience luxury things and nice food.	0.837	0.797		
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home.	0.627	0.701		

KMO = 0.781, Bartlett = 1759.275; (p < 0.01), Rotation converged in 8 iterations, Cumulative = 65.53%
[a]Factor loading. [aa]Communalities. [aaa]Eigenvalues. [aaaa]Percentage of Variance Explained.

The last push factor was labelled "luxury and escaping". This factor included two items: "experience luxury things and nice food"; and, "escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home". As shown in Table 6.7, this factor explained 6.50% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.10. It had a reliability coefficient of 0.50. This result may be explained by the fact that "the value of alpha depends on the number of items on the scale" (Field, 2005, p. 668). Thus, it is expected that the value of alpha will be small because the scale includes only a few items, rather than that it is unreliable. Furthermore, the reason for retaining this factor was the good correlation of the items with each other as well as with the factor grouping to which they belong, where the two items obtained a factor loading of over 0.60.

From the data in Table 6.7, it is apparent that "discovering new things" was the most important push factor as perceived by Omani tourists (M = 5.31), and it explained 26.68% of the total variance; followed by "strengthen relationships" (M = 4.72), and "luxury and escaping" (M = 4.40). On the other hand, "social & physical activities" (M = 3.44), and "friends and relaxation" (M = 4.18) appeared to be the least important push factors for Omani travellers. The present findings seem to be consistent with the rankings of the individual push motivation items (see Table 6.3 and 6.7). In particular, the most important push factor for Omani tourists, "discovering new things", included four of the top five push motivations, specifically, "experience another country"; "learn something new or increase my knowledge"; "experience cultures that are different from my own"; and, "see something new and exciting". In addition, the least important push factor for Omani tourists, "social and physical activities", also contained three of the five least important push motivations, namely, "participate in physical activities"; "mix with fellow tourists"; and, "meet people who are interested in the same things".

Omani tourists attached great importance to "discovering new things" through visiting new countries in order to learn new things, increase their knowledge, see something new and exciting, as well as experience cultures that are different from their own. This finding is in agreement with previous studies (i.e., Oh et al., 1995; Zhang & Lam, 1999; You et al., 2000; Jang & Cai, 2002; Jang & Wu, 2006; Zhang, 2009) that showed that tourists were motivated to travel abroad by the desire to increase their knowledge about people, nations, places, and things. From the Islamic perspective, seeking knowledge and learning useful skills is one of the great and noble reasons to travel abroad (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2003; Stodolska & Livengood, 2006; Hashim et al., 2007; Islamic Question & Answer (Islam Q&A), 2010).

Omani tourists also placed secondary importance on "strengthen relationships" by visiting their friends and relatives as well as travelling abroad with their spouses, families, or friends. According to the Holy Qur'an (V.47:22), Muslims are strongly commanded to strengthen the ties of kinship, and therefore, severing the ties of kith and kin is considered a major sin in Islam. This finding is consistent with the findings

of studies which found that tourists perceived "family togetherness" as one of the most important push factors (Kim et al., 2003; Bogari, et al., 2004). This finding again highlights the important role of Islamic teachings in travel behaviour in general, and destination choice in particular among Omani outbound tourists, although, as just noted, the ties of kinship as a travel motive are not unique to Muslims.

Seeking "luxury" and "relaxation" were of little importance to Omani tourists as motives for travelling abroad. This finding is in agreement with previous studies which also placed a low importance on factors such as "relaxation" and "luxury" as reasons to travel overseas (Bogari et al., 2004; Jang & Wu, 2006; Zhang, 2009). There are several possible explanations for this result. First, the majority of the survey respondents (65.4%) belong to the middle class, earn a monthly income of OMR 500 to 1000 and, therefore, seeking a luxurious life overseas may not fit within their budgets. Furthermore, there is a "fatwa", a juristic ruling relating to Islamic law issued by an Islamic scholar, forbidding travel to non-Muslim countries for purposes of seeking relaxation and indulging in the pleasures available there ("Ruling on travelling for fun", 2012). Again, the influence of Islamic teachings on travel behaviour of Omani tourists is clearly confirmed through this result. In this context, it is worth noting that many "fatwas" have been issued by different Muslim scholars regarding travel to non-Muslim countries which significantly vary in their tones of severity.

It can be seen from Table 6.7 that the desire to participate in "social and physical activities" (M = 3.44) was the least important among all push factors. As was explained previously, this result reflects a general lack of interest in participating in leisure activities among the respondents, where around the half of them did not participate in any type of leisure activities. Another possible explanation for this low importance is that because Oman is a developing country that has attracted people from different countries, social interaction between Omani and non-Omani people occurs daily. Therefore, travelling abroad for this reason is not a priority for Omani tourists. This result also accords with the results of Mohsin and Alsawafi (2011) who found that the least important push motivations for Omani college students were "to

watch sports events"; "to participate in physical activity"; and, "to mix with fellow tourists", which all fall under social and physical activities.

6.6 Principal Component Factoring of Pull Motivations

The 20 pull travel motivation items were also subjected to principal component factoring analysis with varimax rotation. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant (p<0.001). The calculation of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics was 0.822, with chi-square χ^2 value of 2491.042 and 190 degrees of freedom, which is described as a great value (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Therefore the sample is adequate for factor analysis. The anti-image correlation matrix was also considered. For these data, all values were found above 0.50, ranging from 0.660 to 0.900. The results of the communality and factor loadings indicated that all pull items were greater than 0.40. Therefore, they were retained for further analysis. The 20 pull items generated five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 63.03% of the total variance (Table 6.8). The scree plot also confirmed that a 5-factor solution was the most appropriate. In order to check the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach's alpha was calculated.

The first pull factor, labelled "security, religious and cultural factors", comprised six items: "positive attitude towards Islamic culture at destination"; "positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination"; "availability of Arab foods/halal foods"; "availability of mosques (places of worship)"; "safety and security at destination even when travelling alone"; and, "ease of communication with local people (language)". With an eigenvalue of 5.82, it explained 29.13% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.87.

The second pull factor was labelled "nature, weather and economic considerations" as it contained items that related to natural attractions as well as the price of goods and services at the destination. As Table 6.8 shows, it captured 12.87% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 2.57. This factor included five items: "different climate than that at home"; "natural attractions"; "a variety of shopping places";

"reasonable priced goods and services"; and, "favourable currency exchange rates". It had a reliability coefficient of 0.78.

Table 6.8 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Pull Motivations

Factor Names and Items	Load.[a]	Comm.[aa]	Eigen.[aaa]	% Var.[aaaa]
Security, religious and cultural factors (α=0.87) (mean = 5.74)			5.82	29.13
Positive attitude towards Islamic culture at destination.	0.862	0.781		
Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination.	0.841	0.747		
Availability of Arab foods/halal foods.	0.779	0.685		
Availability of mosques (places of worship).	0.772	0.645		
Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone.	0.647	0.676		
Ease of communication with local people (language).	0.564	0.555		
Nature, weather & economic considerations (α=0.78) (mean = 5.44)			2.57	12.87
Different climate than that at home.	0.811	0.691		
Natural attractions.	0.774	0.681		
A variety of shopping places.	0.713	0.593		
Reasonable priced goods and services.	0.488	0.511		
Favourable currency exchange rates.	0.427	0.562		
Cultural & heritage sites (α=0.74) (mean = 4.40)			1.83	9.16
Historical, military, or archaeological sites (i.e. fort and castle).	0.866	0.783		
Museums/art galleries/local crafts/handiwork.	0.825	0.710		
Unique/different cultural groups.	0.607	0.476		
Short distance & educational and physical opportunities (α=0.62) (mean = 3.94)			1.34	6.72
Education opportunities.	0.866	0.592		
Facilities for physical activities.	0.825	0.698		
Proximity to Oman (short distance).	0.607	0.615		
Entertainment & Information (α=0.52) (mean = 4.24)			1.02	5.13
Nightlife and entertainment.	0.788	0.650		
Outdoor activities.	0.508	0.471		
Availability of information about the destination.	0.403	0.486		

KMO = 0.822, Bartlett = 2491.042; (p < 0.01), Rotation converged in 7 iterations, Cumulative = 63.03%
[a]Factor loading. [aa]Communalities. [aaa]Eigenvalues. [aaaa]Percentage of Variance Explained.

The third pull factor was labelled "cultural and heritage sites", and contained three variables that related to visiting historical and heritage places at the destination: "historical, military, or archaeological sites (i.e., fort and castle)"; "museums/art galleries/local crafts/handiwork"; and, "unique/different cultural groups". From the data in Table 6.8, it is apparent that the correlation between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong was strong (0.60). This factor represented 9.16% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.83. The reliability of this factor was 0.74.

The fourth pull factor was labelled "short distance & educational and physical opportunities", since it included motivations such as: "education opportunities"; "facilities for physical activities"; and, "proximity to Oman (short distance)". The reliability of this factor was 0.62. It can be seen from the data in Table 6.8 that all items in this factor received factor loadings of over 0.60, showing a good correlation between the items and the factor grouping to which they belong. This factor accounted for 6.72% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.34.

The last pull factor was labelled "entertainment & information". This factor included three items: "nightlife and entertainment"; "outdoor activities"; and, "availability of information about the destination". As shown in Table 6.8, it explained 5.13% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.02. It had a reliability alpha of 0.52. This low Cronbach's alpha can be attributed to the fact of "Cronbach's alpha can be sensitive to the number of items in a scale" (Beerli & Martin, 2004, p. 628).

Table 6.8 illustrates that "security, religious and cultural factors" was the most important discriminatory pull factor for Omani tourists when choosing or visiting a specific destination (M = 5.74), and this factor "explained" 29.13% of the total variance. This grouping was followed by "nature, weather & economic considerations" (M = 5.44), and "cultural & heritage sites" (M = 4.40). In contrast, "entertainment & information" (M = 4.24), and "short distance & educational and physical activities" (M = 3.94) appeared to be the least important pull factors for Omani tourists. These findings further support the rankings of the individual pull motivation items (see Table 6.5 and 6.8). Particularly, the more important pull factors for Omani travellers, "security, religious and cultural factors" comprised four of the strongest five pull travel motivations, specifically: "safety and security at destination even when travelling alone"; "availability of Arabic foods/halal foods"; "ease of communication with local people"; and, "availability of mosques (places of worship)". Additionally, the least important pull factor for Omani tourists "short distance & educational and physical activities", also comprised two of the five least important pull travel motivations, namely: "facilities for physical activities"; and, "education opportunities".

As can be seen from the table above, the more important discriminant factors in the choice of a specific destination were religious and cultural factors, along with the level of safety and security at the potential destination. From the perspective of the respondents, the expected level of safety and security at the potential destination is determined, and affected, by the attitudes of local people towards the tourists' religion and culture. This finding corroborates the finding of Bogari et al. (2004), who found that the most important pull factors for Saudi travellers were "religious" and "cultural". It is very clear that religious and cultural issues/factors, such as positive attitudes towards the Islamic and Arabic cultures, availability of Arab/halal foods, availability of places for worship at the destination, and the ease of communication with local people (language) play a critical role in Omani tourists' destination choice.

"Nature, weather and economic considerations" were placed second in importance as a discriminator by Omani outbound tourists. This result can be explained by the fact that the climate of Oman is "subtropical dry", "hot desert climate with low annual rainfall", and "very high temperatures in summer" ("climate," 2012) which pushes Omani people to choose tourist destinations that have a different climate to that at home. Economic aspects of travel such as "a variety of shopping places"; "reasonable priced goods and services"; and, "favourable currency exchange rate" also play a considerable part in the decision when Omani tourists are choosing their holiday destinations. This result can be also confirmed by the fact that the majority of the questionnaire respondents (65.4%) belong to the middle class, receive monthly incomes of OMR 500 to 1000. Therefore, they have to choose their holiday destinations carefully as well as organising their holiday to fit their budgets. This result confirms that nature and weather are within the determining and discriminating pull factors for travellers (Jang & Cai, 2002; Cakici & Harman, 2007; Zhang, 2009).

Omani tourists assigned a medium importance to "cultural & heritage sites" and "entertainment & information" as pull factors. In terms of cultural and heritage factors, a possible explanation might be that Oman itself is rich in historical and

heritage sites. For example, four sites in Oman were added to the world heritage list by UNESCO, namely: "Aflaj irrigation systems of Oman"; the "archaeological sites of Bat Al-Khutm and Al-Ayn"; "Bahla fort"; and, the "Land of Frankincense" as well as two other sites which were submitted to the tentative list (UNESCO, 2012). Bogari et al. (2004) also found that the historical and cultural pull factor was of medium importance for Saudi tourists. Regarding entertainment, as mentioned earlier, Muslims are strongly encouraged to avoid forbidden activities which may be associated with entertainment activities such as dancing, drinking alcohol, freely mixing with the opposite sex, and gambling (Holy Qur'an, 5:90; Islam Q&A, 2012). Mohsin and Alsawafi (2011) also found that Omani college students were significantly less attracted to destinations with "nightlife and entertainment" activities. This result again reflects the influence of Islamic teachings on destination choice amongst the Omani tourists.

As shown in Table 6.8, "short distance & educational and physical activities" (M = 3.94) was one of the least influential pull factors. In other words, Omani outbound tourists tend not to consider their holiday destinations based on distance or availability of educational and physical opportunities in neighbouring countries. This result may be explained by the fact that all Oman's neighbouring countries have, to a great extent, the same environment, weather, level of development, culture, religion, and language. Therefore, these did not register as being of any importance to Omani tourists, who were strongly stimulated to travel abroad by the desire to "experience another country"; "learn something new or increase my knowledge"; "experience cultures that are different from my own"; and, "see something new and exciting".

6.7 The Relationship between Push Factors and Pull Factors

In order to examine the relationship between push and pull factor domains, the Pearson bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to confirm the relationship.

6.7.1 Correlation Analysis

The results obtained from the Pearson bivariate correlation analysis are presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9 Correlation Analysis of Push and Pull Factors

Push factor domains	Pull Factor domains				
	Security and religious and cultural factors	Nature, weather and economic considerations	Cultural and heritage sites	Short distance and educational and physical opportunities	Entertainment and information
1. Discovering new things.	0.39**	0.47**	0.22**	0.14*	0.32**
2. Friend and relaxation.	0.10	0.32**	0.19**	0.31**	0.36**
3. Social and physical activities.	0.11	0.15**	0.35**	0.45**	0.40**
4. Strengthen relationships.	0.20**	0.19**	0.21**	0.24**	0.09
5. Luxury and escaping.	0.11	0.30**	0.81	0.15**	0.30**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results indicated that push factor 1 "discovering new things" was significantly correlated with pull factor 1 "security and religious and cultural factors", $r = 0.39$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations", $r = 0.47$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 3 "cultural and heritage sites", $r = 0.22$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 4 "short distance and educational and physical opportunities", r = 0.14, (two-tailed) < 0.05, and pull factor 5 "entertainment and information", $r = 0.32$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01. However, it must be noted that in some cases these correlations were low. For instance, while the correlation involving push factor 1 "discovering new things" and pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations" was relatively high (0.47), the correlation with this push factor and the pull factor "short distance and educational and physical opportunities" was significant but represented a small effect. Regarding the measurement of the size of an effect, Field (2005) suggests that values of ±0.1be considered a small effect, that ±0.3 represents a medium effect, and that ±0.5 represents an effect. These results generally suggest that the desire to discover new things may be promoted by the

195

availability of security, positive attitudes towards Islamic and Arabic cultures, natural attractions, good weather, and reasonably priced goods and services at the holiday destinations.

The results also showed that there was a significant relationship between push factor 2 "friends and relaxation" and pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations", $r = 0.32$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 3 "cultural and heritage sites", $r = 0.19$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 4 "short distance and educational and physical opportunities", $r = 0.31$, (two-tailed) < 0.01, and pull factor 5 "entertainment and information", $r = 0.36$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01. It can be seen that the size of the effect between this push factor and these pull factors is a medium one, except with pull factor 3 "cultural and heritage sites". These results indicated that participating in entertainment activities, visiting natural attractions, experiencing reasonably priced goods and services at the tourism destinations, enjoying a good weather, may reinforce the desire for relaxation and visiting friends.

The results also illustrated that there was a positive correlation between push factor 3 "social and physical activities" and pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations", $r = 0.15$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 3 "cultural and heritage sites", $r = 0.35$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 4 "short distance and educational and physical opportunities", $r = 0.45$, (two-tailed) < 0.01, and pull factor 5 "entertainment and information", $r = 0.40$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01. In general, the size of the effect between this push factor and these pull factors is a medium one, except with pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations". These results showed that the desire to participate in social and physical activities might be facilitated by the availability of entertainment activities, as well as educational and physical opportunities at the tourist destinations.

The results also demonstrated that push factor 4 "strengthen relationships" was significantly related to pull factor 1 "security and religious and cultural factors", $r = 0.20$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations", $r = 0.19$, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 3 "cultural and heritage

sites", r = 0.21, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 4 "short distance and educational and physical opportunities", r = 0.24, (two-tailed) < 0.01. Although these values were significant, they represented a small effect. These results illustrated that the desire to strengthen relationships with relatives and friends may be facilitated by short distance travel as well as the availability of security, and positive attitudes towards Islamic and Arabic cultures at the destinations.

Interestingly, push factor 5 "luxury and escaping" was significantly correlated to only three pull factors. In particular, this factor was significantly correlated with pull factor 2 "nature, weather and economic considerations", r = 0.30, p (two-tailed) < 0.01, pull factor 4 "short distance and educational and physical opportunities", r = 0.15, (two-tailed) < 0.01, and pull factor 5 "entertainment and information", r = 0.30, p (two-tailed) < 0.01. These results confirmed that the desire for luxury and escaping from the ordinary or routine environment at home may be reinforced by the availability of entertainment activities, as well as visiting natural attractions, enjoying a good weather, and experiencing reasonably priced goods and services at the travel destinations.

In conclusion, according to these results, it is easy to conclude that the push and pull factors are primarily shown to be generally independent sets of motives with some peripheral overlaps.

6.8 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on Push and Pull Factors

To explore the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on push and pull travel motivation factors, an independent sample t-test and a one-way ANOVA were applied.

6.8.1 The Influence of Gender

The differences in the importance of the push and pull factors for genders was first examined using the independent sample t-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 6.10 that there was only one significant difference between male and female Omani

tourists in push factors: Omani male tourists were more motivated to travel abroad by "social and physical activities" (t=3.63, p<0.01), than were female Omani tourists. In terms of pull factors, the results revealed that there were three significant differences between male and female Omani tourists on pull factors: Omani female tourists were more motivated to travel abroad by "security and religious and cultural issues" (t=-2.62, p<0.01) as well as "nature, weather and economic considerations" (t=-2.30, p<0.05) than Omani male tourists were. On the other hand, Omani male tourists were more motivated to travel abroad by "short distance and educational and physical opportunities" (t=2.77, p<0.01) when compared with Omani female tourists.

Table 6.10 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Genders

	Mean Scores			
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178	*T*	*P*
Push Factors				
3.Social & physical activities	3.40	2.81	3.63	<0.001
Pull Factors				
1.Security, religious and cultural factors	5.15	5.54	- 2.62	0.009
2.Nature, weather & economic considerations	4.85	5.18	- 2.30	0.022
3.Short distance & educational and physical activities	3.91	3.44	2.77	0.006

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

In general, the present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found female and male tourists were motivated by different factors for travelling (e.g., McGehee, Loker-Murphy & Uysal, 1996; Cai & Combrink, 2000; Kleiven, 2005; Hallab, Price & Fournier, 2006; Schofield & Thompson, 2007; Liu, 2008). These findings further support the idea that male tourists are more likely to be motivated by physical and outdoor activities, whereas female tourists traditionally are attracted by the availability of nature, shopping opportunities, security, and cultural activities at the destination (McGehee, et al., 1996; Liu, 2008; Mohsin & Alsawafi, 2011). However, the idea that, compared with male tourists, female tourists are more likely to be attracted to visit or choose a specific destination by the desire to participate in social activities was not supported by the current study (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004). This finding may be attributed to the fact that, traditionally, Islamic teachings

put restrictions on Muslims' participation in sport and physical activities (Yuka, 2002). Particularly, Muslim woman are not allowed to engage in physical activities with the opposite sex or participate in sporting activities in public where men can see them (Beiruty, 2012). Only her husband and *Maharim* are excluded from this rule. Maharim are a woman's close family relatives who cannot marry her, such as her father, husband's father, brothers, sons, uncles, sister's/s' sons, or brother's/s' sons (Holy Qur'an 24:31). However, it also needs to be recognised that while within the Arab world some of these teachings are being challenged by some Muslim women, at this stage there is little doubt that such traditions still exert a powerful influence and will have affected the findings. For example, many Muslim female students now travel overseas to study for years without having a Mahram.

6.8.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 6.11 shows that there was only one significant difference ($p < .05$) between married and single Omani tourists in push factors. Omani married tourists were more motivated to travel abroad by "luxury and escaping" ($t=-2.00$, p<0.05) than unmarried Omani tourists. This result may be explained as a response to the fact that married people may suffer more from family pressure, have more family responsibilities, have more financial burdens, and have less time for rest and relaxation when compared with unmarried people. Therefore, they are more likely to be motivated to travel abroad by the desire to escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home and experience a "luxury life" at the holiday destination where luxury has connotations of relief from responsibilities. This finding confirms past findings that marital status has a significant influence on travel motivations (e.g., Lang & O'Leary, 1997; Kim, 2007; Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009).

Table 6.11 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Marital Status

| | Mean Scores | | | |
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228	*T*	*P*
Push Factors				
Luxury & Escaping	3.87	4.29	- 2.00	0.045

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

6.8.3 The Influence of Age

The ANOVA results in Table 6.12 indicated one push factor and three pull factors that appeared to have a statistically significant relationship with age. Only *F*-values that represent statistical significance below the 0.05 level are shown in Table 6.14. In terms of push factors, people aged between 50–64 years attach more importance to "friends and relaxation" (*F*=2.88, p<0.05) than people aged between 36-49 years . This result may be due the fact that senior people traditionally choose their holiday destination based on recommendations that are received from their friends, and prefer to enjoy the peace, beauty, and relaxation at holiday destinations compared with younger people, who are usually seeking entertainment, nightlife, and physical activities (Gilbert & Terrata, 2001; Carr, 2005). Regarding pull factors, the younger groups aged between18-25 and 26-35 attach more importance to "nature, weather and economic considerations" (*F*=4.56, p<0.01) than people between 36-49 years of age. However, people aged from 50-64 years attach more importance to "short distance and educational and physical activities" (*F*=4.41, p<0.01) than people between 18-25 and 27-35. It seems possible that this result is due to health considerations which may prevent older people from travelling long distances. Finally, people aged between 18 and 25, and 26 and 35 attach more importance to "entertainment and information" (*F*=4.49, p<0.01) than people between 36-49 years of age do. This result corroborates the idea that young tourists are more likely to be motivated to travel abroad by entertainment activities, compared with the older tourists. These findings were in line with previous research findings that tourists' travel motivations differ according to

their age (e.g., Gilbert & Terrata, 2001; Lee et al., 2003; Carr, 2006; Hsu et al., 2007; Liu, 2008; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Zhang, 2009).

Table 6.12 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Age Groups

	Mean Scores					
	18-25	26-35	36-49	50-64	F	P
Push Factors						
1.Friends & relaxation	3.70	3.94	3.52	4.33	2.88	0.036
Pull Factors						
1.Nature, weather & economic considerations	5.30	5.15	4.62	4.74	4.56	0.004
2.Short distance & educational and physical activities	3.63	3.39	3.64	4.35	4.41	0.005
3.Entertainment & information	4.25	4.05	3.43	3.71	4.49	0.004

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

6.8.4 The Influence of Education

Table 6.13 illustrates that there were significant differences among those with different levels of educational attainment on only two push factors. Only *F*-values that represent statistical significance below the 0.05 level are shown in Table 6.15. First, respondents from higher education backgrounds (master's and doctoral degrees) scored highest on "social and physical activities" (F=4.00, p<0.01) compared to people from lower education backgrounds, namely: the uneducated, high school graduates, and bachelor's degree holders. This result may be due to the fact that highly educated people have healthier behaviours through participating in social and physical activities than those who have received less education (Hellmich, 2012). On the other hand, the uneducated respondents scored highest on "strengthen relationships" (*F*=2.46, p<0.05) compared with respondents who have a bachelor's degree. This finding is in agreement with Tang and O'Leary (1997), Liu (2008), and Zhang (2009) who found that level of education plays a significant role in determining the travel motivations of tourists.

Table 6.13 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Education Groups

	Mean Scores							
	Uneducated	Elementary	High School	Diploma	Bachelor	Master & PhD	*F*	*P*
Push Factors								
1. Social & physical activities.	1.85	3.22	2.90	3.17	2.94	4.15	4.00	0.002
2. Strengthen relationships.	6.28	4.44	5.03	4.73	4.32	4.31	2.46	0.027

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

6.8.5 The Influence of Income

Table 6.14 shows that only one push factor appeared to have a statistically significant relationship with income. Again only *F*-values that represent statistical significance below the 0.05 level are shown in Table 6.16. The respondents with a monthly household income over OMR 1500 were more motivated to travel abroad for "friends and relaxation" ($F=3.95$, $p<0.01$) than were those with a monthly household income under OMR 500. One possible explanation for this result might be that people with a monthly household income over OMR 1500 are easily able to afford complete relaxation by staying in five-star hotels, relaxing in the hotel sauna, enjoying a pleasant massage, or ordering delicious meals. Again, this finding supports previous research that found that monthly income also has a significant influence on travel motivations (Liu, 2008; Zhang, 2009).

Table 6.14 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Income Groups

	Mean Scores					
	Under 500	Over 500 to 1000	Over 1000 to 1500	Over 1500	*F*	*P*
Push Factor						
Social & physical activities	2.69	3.06	3.41	4.11	3.95	0.009

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

6.8.6 The Influence of Occupation

Table 6.15 indicates that businessmen, as well as the respondents who were working in the private sector, were more motivated to travel abroad by "friends and relaxation" ($F=2.90$, $p<0.05$) than housewife respondents were. In terms of pull factors, the ANOVA results revealed that the private sector employees were more attracted to visit or choose a specific destination by "short distance and educational and physical activities" ($F=2.59$, $p<0.05$) compared with the respondents who were working in the public sector. This result may be explained by the fact that, in Oman, workers in the private sector get shorter annual holidays when compared with employees in the public sector, and as a result they tend to spend their holidays in neighbouring countries such as the UAE, Qatar, or the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. There is no doubt that the tourists' jobs determine their income as well as their available time for travel. In return, their level of education as well as their age determines their occupations. Therefore, occupation plays an important role in shaping tourists' travel behaviour in general and their travel motivations in particular (Lee et al., 2003; Zhang, 2009). Only *F*-values that statistical represented below the 0.05 level are shown in Table 6.17, all other potential determinants being found to be statistically insignificant.

Table 6.15 Comparison of Push and Pull Factors for Different Occupation Groups

	Mean Scores							
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Student	Housewife	Retired	Businessman	*F*	*P*
Push Factors								
Friends & relaxation	3.75	4.35	4.03	3.00	3.66	4.55	2.90	0.014
Pull Factors								
Short distance & educational and physical activities	3.46	4.32	3.62	3.53	4.22	4.16	2.59	0.026

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

6.9 Destination Comparison of Push and Pull Factors

The respondents were asked where they had spent their last holiday away from home. As previously stated, in order to gather data concerning this question, holiday destinations were divided into five categories based on geographical location: Asia-bound, Europe-bound, America-bound, Oceania-bound, and Africa-bound. Hence, in order to identify if there were any differences in push and pull factors that could lie behind choosing or travelling to a particular category of destination, an ANOVA test was conducted. The results revealed that there was no significant difference amongst the five destination regions on both push and pull factors. This result suggests that the travel motivations of the Omani tourists, such as "discovering new things" and "security, religious and cultural issues", are general desires which can be, to a certain degree, satisfied and found in all tourist destinations. A second potential explanation may lay in the degrees of knowledge possessed by tourists about destinations, and the specificity of their place perceptions. In this respect it is suggested that one parameter for future research might lie in the degrees of web usage prevalent among Omani travellers. Certainly, these results differ from Zhang's (2009) findings which indicated differences among five destination regions regarding push and pull factors. For instance, "knowledge seeking" was the most important push factor for Chinese outbound tourists when travelling to European countries, while they were more motivated by "adventure and explorations" when visiting American countries. In terms of pull factors, Zhang also found that Chinese travellers were more attracted by "facilities, weather & value for money" when choosing or visiting Europe, whereas "entertainment & activities" was the most attractive pull factor for the Chinese tourists to choose America. These distinctions did not seem to apply to their Omani counterparts.

6.10 Comparison between Travellers and Nontravellers Regarding their Push and Pull Factors

First, cross-tabulation with chi-squared was applied in order to assess whether significant demographic differences existed between travellers and non-travellers

(Table 6.16). The results indicate that these two groups indicated statistically significant difference in gender, age, marital status, monthly income, occupation, and educational level.

Then, to examine whether there were significant differences in push and pull factors between travellers and non-travellers, an independent sample -test was carried out. As shown in Table 6.17, there were two significant differences between travellers and non-travellers on push factors: travellers were more motivated to travel abroad by the desire to "discover[ing] new things" ($t= 3.39$, $p<0.01$) than non-travellers. However, surprisingly, non-travellers were more motivated to travel abroad by the desire to "strengthen relationships" (t=-2.05, $p<0.05$) compared with travellers. Regarding pull factors, interestingly, the study also found that non-travellers were more attracted to choose or visit a specific destination by their desire to visit "cultural and heritage sites" (t=-2.28, $p<0.05$) than travellers.

Table 6.16 The Demographic Difference between Travellers and Non-travellers

	Travellers	Non-travellers	X^2	*p*-value
Gender			4.66	0.021
Male	43.1%	26.9%		
Female	56.9%	73.1%		
Age			16.77	**0.001**
18-25 years old	27.6%	32.7%		
26-35 years old	43.9%	25.0%		
36-49 years old	18.7%	15.5%		
50-64 years old	9.8%	28.8%		
Marital status			7.85	**0.006**
Single	20.3%	38.5%		
Married	79.7%	61.5%		
Income			14.97	**0.002**
Under OMR 500	17.9%	40.4%		
Over 500 to 1000	69.1%	48.1%		
Over 1000 to 1500	9.3%	11.5%		
Over OMR 1500	3.7%	0.0%		
Occupation			13.22	**0.021**
Public Sector	70.3%	48.1%		
Private Sector	9.3%	9.6%		
Student	9.3%	17.3%		
Housewife	3.7%	7.7%		
Retired	2.0%	7.7%		
Businessman	5.3%	9.6%		
Education			18.42	**0.002**
Uneducated	1.6%	5.8%		
Elementary School	2.0%	7.7%		
High School	8.9%	19.2%		
Diploma	20.7%	25.0%		
Bachelor's	58.9%	42.3%		
Master's & PhD	7.7%	.0%		
Size of sample	82%	17.9%		

Table 6.17 Comparison between Travellers and Non-travellers Regarding their Push and Pull Factors

	Mean Score		*T*	*P*
	Travellers	Non-travellers		
Discovering new things	5.05	4.40	3.39	0.001
Strengthen relationships	4.44	5.00	-2.05	0.041
Cultural & heritage sites	4.04	4.55	-2.28	0.023
Size of sample	246	52		

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

Table 6.18 illustrates that there were three significant differences (p < .05) on push factors between respondents who had a plan to travel abroad within the next 12 months and those who did not. Respondents who had a plan to travel abroad were

more motivated to do so by the desire to "discover new things" (t=3.52, p<0.01); engage in "social and physical activities' (t=2.92, p<0.01); and, experience "luxury and escape" (t=2.28, p<0.05) than those who did not have such a plan. In terms of pull factors, respondents who had a plan to travel abroad were also more attracted to choose or visit a specific destination by "entertainment and information" (t=3.24, p<0.01) compared with others.

Table 6.18 Comparison between Respondents who have a plan to travel abroad and those who haven't regarding their Push and Pull Factors

	Mean Score			
	Have a plan	No plan	**T**	**P**
Discovering new things	5.10	4.53	3.52	0.000
Social & physical activities	3.19	2.67	2.92	0.004
Luxury & escaping	4.32	3.86	2.28	0.023
Entertainment & information	4.12	3.54	3.24	0.001
Size of sample	215	83		

*p<0.05   **p<0.01

6.11 Conclusion

Kim (2007) argues that travel motivation is a main factor in predicting and explaining travel behaviour. This chapter identified the most important push and pull motivations for Omani outbound tourists (Objective 1). The study found that the desire to "experience another country"; "learn something new or increase my knowledge"; "experience cultures that are different from my own"; "escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home"; and, "see something new and exciting" were the most important push motivations for Omani outbound tourists. In terms of their pull motivations, the study revealed that "safety and security at a destination even when travelling alone"; "natural attractions (sea, beach, coral, mountain, lakes, rivers, streams, wildlife, birds)"; "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods"; "ease of communication with local people (language)"; and, "availability of mosques (places of worship)" were the most attractive pull motivations for Omani outbound tourists to visit or choose a specific destination. It is easy to note that religious factors were strongly represented when it came to choosing destinations that provide easy access

to halal food and ease of access to centres of religious worship. This finding implies that Islamic teachings play a notable role in destination choice.

With reference to factor analysis, a principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation created five push factors (dimensions): "discovering new things"; "strengthen relationships"; "luxury & escaping"; "friends & relaxation"; and, "social & physical activities", which together explained 65.53% of the total variance. Regarding pull factors, the 20 pull items also yielded five pull factors (dimensions): "security, religious and cultural factors"; "nature, weather & economic considerations"; "cultural & heritage sites"; "entertainment & information"; and, "short distance & educational and physical activities", which together explained 63.03% of the total variance. Hence, these results confirm the idea that travel motivations are multidimensional. Given the above results, this study corroborates the idea that both the push and pull travel motivation dimensions are applicable to the Omani outbound tourist market. Therefore, the first half of Proposition 1 is supported.

In order to explore the relationship between the push and pull travel motivation dimensions, correlation analysis was applied. According to the results, it is easy to conclude that the push and pull factors are primarily shown to be generally independent sets of motives with some peripheral overlaps. However, the results showed that there is a weak relationship between some push and pull factor dimensions. For example, correlation analysis revealed that push factor1: "discovering new things" was significantly correlated with all the pull factors. Hence, the second half of Proposition 1 is partially confirmed by these results.

According to the findings of the independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA, socio-demographic variables have an influence on push and pull factors (Objective 2). Respondents across different genders, ages, marital status, income, educational levels, and occupation were motivated and attracted by different push and pull factors for travelling. For example, Omani male tourists were more motivated by "social and physical activities" to travel abroad than female Omani tourists were, while Omani female tourists were more likely to be attracted to choose or visit a specific

destination by "security and religious and cultural factors", as well as "nature, weather and economic considerations" compared with Omani male tourists. The high-income group were also more likely to be motivated by "friends and relaxation" to travel abroad than the low-income group. Thus, Proposition 2 was also supported by these results.

In order to identify if there are any differences in push and pull factors which could stand behind choosing or travelling to a particular region, an ANOVA test was conducted. The results revealed that there were no significant differences amongst the five destination regions on either push or pull factors.

To examine whether there were significant differences in push and pull factors between travellers and non-travellers, an independent sample t-test was carried out. The results revealed that there were significant differences between travellers and non-travellers. For instance, travellers were more motivated to travel abroad by the desire to "discover new things" than non-travellers were, whereas non-travellers were more motivated to travel abroad by the desire to "strengthen relationships", compared with travellers.

This chapter also found that respondents who had a plan to travel abroad within the next 12 months were more motivated to travel abroad by the desire to "discover new things"; partake in "social and physical activities"; and, enjoy "luxury and escaping" than those who did not have a plan to travel abroad.

Finally, to enhance our understanding of the travel motivations of Omani outbound tourists, a cluster analysis technique was applied to segment Omani tourists based on their push and pull motivation factors.

Chapter 7: Market Segmentation

7.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to segment Omani tourists based on their push and pull motivation factors in order to identify their psychographics (Research Objective 3). Tourists travel abroad for different reasons and choose their holiday destinations based on different needs and wants (Jang et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2004; Yuan et al., 2005). Therefore, segmenting the Omani outbound travel market by grouping tourists based on a similar motivational structure helps travel marketers to: (1) effectively market their particular destination to people in this market segment; (2) create and develop appropriate marketing strategies to attract this market segment; and, (3) meet and satisfy their unique desires and expectations (Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Sirakaya et al., 2003; Smith & Costello, 2009).

7.2 Cluster Analysis

The 10 push and pull factors extracted in the factor analysis were used as clustering variables. First, a hierarchical cluster analysis using the conventional Ward's method with squared Euclidean Distance as the distance or similarity measure was applied. This step helped to determine the optimum number of clusters. The agglomeration coefficient suggested that a four-cluster solution with 10 iterations was the most appropriate number of clusters. This suggestion was also supported by the dendogram. Second, a k-means cluster analysis was performed. According to Burns & Burns (2008), it is very common to use the hierarchical cluster analysis first, to obtain the optimum number of clusters, and then the clustering is rerun using k-means clustering, based on the optimal cluster number. K-means clusters of the 10 push and pull factors for the individuals of each cluster segment were computed and compared. The four clusters held 22 (9%), 105 (42%), 61 (25%), and 59 (24%) of the travellers respectively. The clusters were labelled: (1) quiet seekers, (2) seekers of new things, (3) multipurpose seekers, and, (4) seekers of culture and nature respectively (see Table 7.1). Third, in order to validate the four-cluster solution, a one-way ANOVA

test was used by taking cluster membership as an independent variable and using the 10 push and pull factors as dependent variables. The results revealed that the mean scores in each case were significantly different. This method was used to validate the distinctiveness and stability of the cluster solution as suggested by Churchill (1987), Burns and Burns (2008), Liu (2008), and Smith and Costello (2009).

- ❖ Cluster 1: This group was labelled "quiet seekers". They did not show any significant motive or intention to travel abroad. This cluster appeared to have the lowest mean scores on all push and pull factors. This cluster contained 22 tourists who made up the smallest portion of respondents (9%).

- ❖ Cluster 2: This cluster contained 105 travellers, and made up the largest portion of the respondents (42%). This group also had the third largest mean scores on all push and pull factors. Their motivations revolve around experiencing new things (nature, cultural and heritage sites, and weather) that differ from their ordinary environment. Thus, this cluster was called the "seekers of new things".

- ❖ Cluster 3: This group was labelled "multipurpose seekers", which is characterised by their high scores. This group have the highest mean scores across all push and pull factors. This cluster contained 61 tourists who made up 25% of the respondents. They were strongly motivated to travel abroad by the desire for "discovering new things"; "strengthen relationships", and "visiting friends and relaxation". On the other hand, they were significantly attracted to travel abroad by the availability of "security, religious and cultural factors"; "entertainment activities" as well as "nature, weather & economic considerations".

- ❖ Cluster 4: comprised 59 respondents, and made up the third portion of the travellers (24%). They notably placed a high value on pull factors such as the availability of "security, religious and cultural factors"; "nature, weather and economic factors"; and, "cultural & heritage sites" in destinations. Therefore, this group was labelled "seekers of culture and nature".

Table 7.1 Cluster Means of Push and Pull Factors among the Four Clusters

Motivation Factors	Cluster Segments				
	Cluster 1 (n=22)	Cluster 2 (n=105)	Cluster 3 (n=61)	Cluster 4 (n=59)	Mean (n=247)
Discovering new things	3.14	4.90	5.59	5.49	5.05
Friends & relaxation	2.05	3.49	5.28	3.86	3.89
Social & physical activities	1.95	2.92	4.49	2.47	3.11
Strengthen relationships	2.27	5.32	5.39	2.75	4.45
Experience luxury & escape	3.14	3.56	5.26	4.73	4.22
Security, religious and cultural factors	3.50	5.47	5.72	5.64	5.39
Nature, weather & economic considerations	2.86	5.05	5.67	5.34	5.07
Cultural & heritage sites	2.73	4.19	4.87	3.42	4.04
Short distance & educational and physical activities	2.23	3.39	4.98	2.98	3.58
Entertainment & information	2.45	3.53	5.23	4.14	4.00
Cluster name	Quiet seekers	Seekers of new things	Multipurpose seekers	Seekers of culture & nature	

Respondents were asked to choose from a 7-point scale where 1 = of no importance and 7 = extremely important.

7.3 Discriminant Analysis

The main purposes of discriminant analysis (DA) are to: (1) identify factors that are significantly discriminated amongst the identified clusters; and, (2) allocate respondents to clusters to validate the reliability of the derived clusters (Burns & Burns, 2008). The analysis can be used, therefore, to test the validity of the cluster solution. Table 7.2 (below) presents the results obtained from the discriminant analysis. It is apparent from this table that three discriminant functions were found. The chi-square test revealed that the three functions are statistically significant. Function 1, with an eigenvalues of 2.651, explained 62.5% of the variance. With an eigenvalues result of 1.279, function 2 explained 30.1% of the variation in the grouping variables. The remaining percentage of the variance (7.4%) was explained by function 3, with an eigenvalues of 0.312.

Table 7.2 Discriminant analysis results

Discriminant function	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Canonical correlation	Wilk's lambda	Chi-square	Sig.
1	2.651	62.5	0.852	0.092	571.231	<0.001
2	1.279	30.1	0.749	0.334	261.745	<0.001
3	0.312	7.4	0.488	0.762	64.905	<0.001

The structure matrix was analysed in order to interpret the functions. Basically, the structure matrix correlations show the importance of each factor to the discriminant functions, which are deemed more accurate than the Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients (Burns & Burns, 2008). According to Burns and Burns (2008), 0.30 is considered as the cut-off between important and less important variables. The results revealed that 7 of the 10 motivational factors made an important contribution to discriminant function 1, with "friends and relaxation"; "short distance and educational and physical opportunities"; "social and physical activities"; "entertainment & information"; "strengthen relationships"; "nature, weather & economic considerations"; and, "discovering new things" being the most important factors. Three of the 10 motivational factors represented an important contribution to discriminant function two, namely, "entertainment & information"; "strengthen relationships"; and, "experience luxury and escape". Regarding function 3, 5 of the 10 motivational factors made an important contribution here, specifically: "short distance and educational and physical opportunities"; "social and physical activities"; "nature, weather and economic considerations"; "security & religious and cultural factors"; and, "discovering new things" (see Table 7.3).

Table 7.3 The Structure Matrix

Motivational Factors	Function		
	1	2	3
Friends & relaxation	0.469	0.263	-0.111
Short distance & educational	0.445	0.019	-0.345
Social & physical activities	0.444	0.002	-0.429
Entertainment & information	0.398	0.315	-0.126
Cultural & heritage sites	0.284	-0.115	-0.010
Strengthen relationships	0.490	-0.610	0.189
Experience luxury & escape	0.237	0.383	-0.144
Nature, weather & economic considerations	0.357	0.186	0.592
Security & religious and cultural factors	0.244	0.110	0.582
Discovering new things	0.310	0.282	0.537

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardised canonical discriminant functions. Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

The classification matrix of respondents was also examined in order to provide information about whether the functions are valid predictors or not (Table 7.4). The classification matrices showed that 93.9% of respondents were correctly allocated into the four push and pull clusters solution. Cluster 1 achieved a 90.0% correct classification, while cluster 2 achieved a 98.1% correct classification. Clusters 3 and 4 achieved 88.5% and 93.2% correct classifications respectively. An examination of the territorial map and combined groups plot (Figure 7.1) (below) also showed that all four clusters were well defined and that there was a high level of coherence on both canonical functions.

Table 7.4 Classification Results

	Predicted Group Membership				Total
	1	2	3	4	
Cluster 1	**20**	2	0	0	22
	90.0%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Cluster 2	0	**103**	1	1	105
	0.0%	**98.1%**	1.0%	1.0%	100.0%
Cluster 3	0	6	**54**	1	61
	0.0%	9.8%	**88.5%**	1.6%	100.0%
Cluster 4	0	3	1	**55**	59
	0.0%	5.1%	1.7%	**93.2%**	100.0%

Note: 93.9% of original grouped cases correctly classified

Figure 7.1 Canonical Discriminant Functions
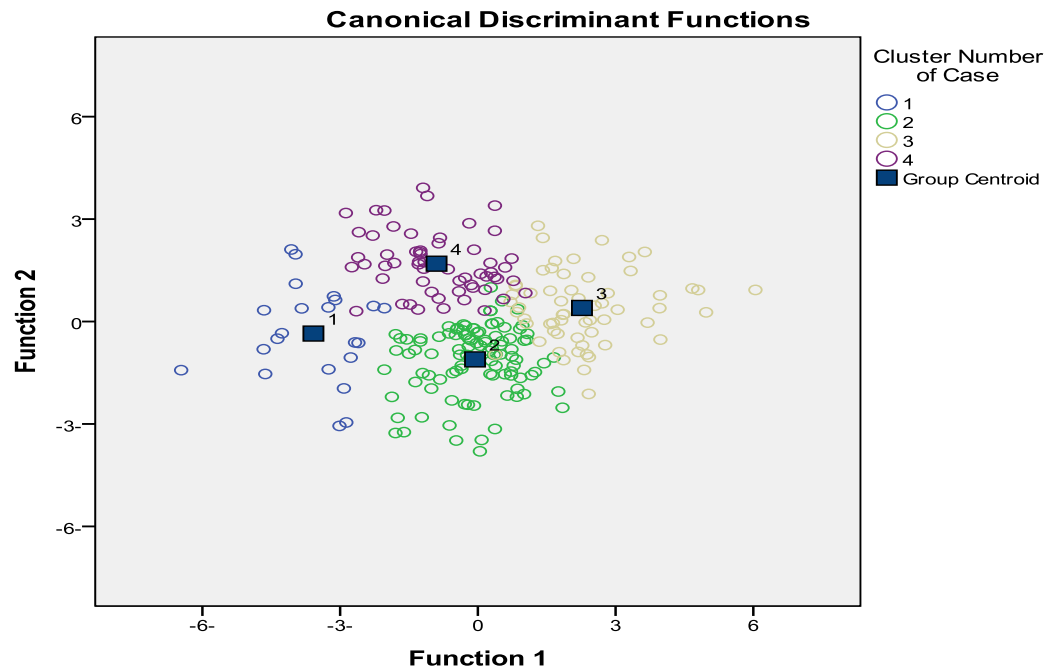
7.4 Segment Profiles

A demographic profile of each cluster was compared through cross-tabulations. The chi-square statistic was applied to identify any statistically significant differences amongst the four clusters regarding selected demographic characteristics. The chi-square statistic revealed that the four clusters were only significantly different in relation to age, occupation, and educational background. Table 7.5 presents the results of chi-squared analysis.

Table 7.5 Socio-demographic Profile of Four Clusters

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	X²	*p*-value
Gender					4.576	0.206
Male	45.5%	39.0%	54.1%	37.3%		
Female	54.5%	61.0%	45.9%	62.7%		
Age					30.106	**0.000**
18-25 years old	9.1%	28.6%	29.5%	30.5%		
26-35 years old	40.9%	41.0%	37.7%	55.9%		
36-49 years old	45.5%	21.0%	11.5%	11.9%		
50-64 years old	4.5%	9.5%	21.3%	1.7%		
Marital status					2.226	0.527
Single	13.6%	22.9%	23.0%	15.3%		
Married	86.4%	77.1%	77.0%	84.7%		
Income					13.678	0.134
Under OMR 500	4.5%	22.9%	19.7%	11.9%		
Over 500 to 1000	77.3%	68.6%	60.7%	76.3%		
Over 1000 to 1500	18.2%	6.7%	13.1%	6.8%		
Over OMR 1500	0.0%	1.9%	6.6%	5.1%		
Occupation					32.305	**0.006**
Public Sector	95.5%	69.5%	57.4%	76.3%		
Private Sector	0.0%	4.8%	19.7%	10.2%		
Student	0.0%	6.7%	14.8%	10.2%		
Housewife	4.5%	6.7%	1.6%	0.0%		
Retired	0.0%	3.8%	0.0%	1.7%		
Businessman	0.0%	7.6%	6.6%	1.7%		
Education					25.596	**0.042**
Uneducated	0.0%	3.8%	0.0%	0.0%		
Elementary School	0.0%	1.0%	3.3%	3.4%		
High School	0.0%	10.5%	16.4%	1.7%		
Diploma	31.8%	23.8%	14.8%	18.6%		
Bachelor's	63.6%	54.3%	52.5%	71.2%		
Master's & PhD	4.5%	6.7%	13.1%	5.1%		
Children					0.778	0.855
Yes	72.7%	64.8%	62.3%	64.4%		
No	27.3%	35.2%	37.7%	35.6%		

In examining the observed cell frequencies, it can be concluded that cluster 3 "multipurpose seekers" had more male tourists (54.1%) compared with other clusters, while cluster 4 "cultural and nature seekers" had more female tourists (62.7%) compared with other clusters. It can also be seen that cluster 4 "seekers of culture and nature" had more respondents aged 18-25 (30.5%) and 26-35 (55.9%) (the youngest groups) compared with the other clusters, whereas cluster 3 "multipurpose seekers" had more senior respondents aged from 50-64 years (21.3%) compared with the other clusters. In the same context, cluster 1 "quiet seekers" included the highest percentage of respondents who are aged from 36 to 49 (45.5%). In terms of educational level,

respondents who had a bachelor's degree and diploma certificate comprised the highest percentage in all clusters. However, cluster 3 "multipurpose seekers" included the highest proportion of respondents (13.1%) who had master's and doctoral degrees compared with the other clusters. On the other hand, all uneducated travellers (3.8%) were found only in cluster 2 "seekers of new things". Regarding occupation, the demographic profile of each cluster also showed that cluster 1 "quiet seekers" contained the highest percentage of respondents who work in public sector (95.5%) compared with other clusters, while cluster 3 "multipurpose seekers" had more university students (14.8%) than other clusters. In general, the largest group for all clusters was public sector employees.

Cross-tabulations were also used to determine if there were any statistically significant differences amongst the four clusters in terms of trip-related characteristics. The results of the chi-square analysis showed two significant differences in relation to length of stay and travel frequency, while the travel destinations did not show any significant differences among clusters. When examining the expected count and actual count in each cell, it was shown that cluster 4 "seekers of culture and nature" included the highest percentage of "less than frequent travellers" (16.9%) and "frequent travellers" (10.2%) compared with other clusters, while cluster 2 "seekers of new things" had the highest percentage of occasional travellers (48.6%) compared with other clusters. It also can be concluded that "one week" as length of stay comprised the highest percentage in all clusters, whereas "more than four weeks" as length of stay was found to have the lowest percentage in all clusters. Finally, Asian destinations were found to be the main destinations in all clusters. Table 7.6 shows the results of the chi-square analysis.

Table 7.6 Trip-related Profile of Four Clusters

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	X²	p-value
Destinations					11.778	0.464
Asia-bound	77.3%	81.9%	77.0%	86.4%		
Europe-bound	18.2%	8.6%	4.9%	5.1%		
America-bound	0.0%	1.9%	4.9%	1.7%		
Oceania-bound	0.0%	1.9%	4.9%	0.0%		
Africa-bound	4.5%	5.7%	8.2%	6.8%		
Length of stay					22.442	**0.033**
one week	40.9%	52.4%	50.8%	39.0%		
Two weeks	45.5%	33.3%	18.0%	45.8%		
Three weeks	4.5%	6.7%	21.3%	5.1%		
Four weeks	4.5%	5.7%	8.2%	6.8%		
More than four weeks	4.5%	1.9%	1.6%	3.4%		
Travel frequency					18.685	**0.028**
occasional travellers	45.5%	48.6%	23.0%	40.7%		
infrequent travellers	45.5%	33.3%	57.4%	32.2%		
less than frequent travellers	9.1%	13.3%	9.8%	16.9%		
Frequent travellers	0.0%	4.8%	9.8%	10.2%		

In order to build a clear understanding of the Omani travel market, the profile of each cluster is summarised as follows:

❖ Cluster 1 (quiet seekers): Despite having travelled abroad, they did not reveal their major reasons for the travel. They also represented the smallest group (9%). As expected, female tourists comprised more than half in this cluster (54.5%). Compared with the other clusters, this cluster had the highest percentage (45.5%) of respondents aged 36-49 years old, the highest percentage (18.2%) of travellers who visited European destinations, and the highest percentage (95.5%) of respondents who are working in the public sector. It was also found that this cluster did not include any respondents from the high income group (over OMR 1500).

❖ Cluster 2 (seekers of new things): This cluster was the largest group. Travellers in this cluster were strongly motivated to travel abroad by the desire to experience new things (nature, culture, heritage, and weather). They were also attracted to destinations that offer suitable prices for tourism products and services. The majority of travellers in this cluster were female

(61.0%). Around 70% of respondents were between 18-25 and 26-35 years old (the youngest groups). The majority belonged to the middle class (68.6%) who earn between 500 and 1000 OMR monthly. Around 77.1% of the travellers who belong to this cluster were married, and exactly 64.8% of them had children. The majority of respondents were working in the public sector (69.5.6%), followed by businessmen (7.6%). The vast majority of the respondents in this cluster were well educated. Approximately 85% of them had a diploma, a bachelor's, master's or a doctoral degree. They preferred to spend their previous vacations in destinations in Asia (81.9%), followed by destinations in Europe (8.6%). Most of them (52.4%) reported 1 week as the average length of stay in their chosen destinations.

- ❖ Cluster 3 (multipurpose seekers): There were many reasons behind their pleasure travel. They were strongly motivated to travel abroad by the desire for "discovering new things"; to "strengthen relationships" and "visiting friends and relaxation". On the other hand, they were significantly attracted to travel abroad by the availability of "security, religious and cultural factors", "entertainment activities" as well as "nature, weather & economic considerations" in destinations. Compared with other clusters, this cluster included the highest percentage of senior respondents (21.3%) as well as the highest percentage of travellers who earned over OMR 1500 (6.6%).

- ❖ Cluster 4 (seekers of culture and nature): They were clearly motivated to travel abroad by pull factors such as the availability of "security, religious and cultural factors"; "nature, weather and economic factors"; and, "cultural & heritage sites" in travel destinations. This cluster had the highest percentage of female travellers (62.7%), the highest percentage of travellers aged 18-25 (30.5%) and 26-35 (55.9%) (the youngest groups), the highest percentage of respondents who hold bachelor's, master's and doctorate degrees (76.3%), and the lowest percentage of senior respondents (1.7%) who were between 50-64 years old, compared with other clusters.

7.5 Conclusion

Segmenting Omani outbound tourists and understanding their characteristics based on their travel motivations are of critical importance in developing appropriate marketing strategies to meet their needs/desires. This chapter identified four motivational clusters for Omani outbound tourists, using cluster analysis: quiet seekers, seekers of new things, multipurpose seekers, and seekers of culture and nature. Discriminant analysis was applied to the data to ensure that the four clusters offer an optimal framework for addressing the research objective. The chi-square statistic revealed that the three functions are statistically significant. This chi-square statistic was also performed to examine if there were any statistically significant differences amongst the four clusters regarding socio-demographic and trip-related characteristics. The chi-square test found that the four clusters were only significantly different in terms of age, occupation, educational level, length of stay, and travel frequency. It was found that the psychographic profiles, while overlapping with socio-demographic variables, also tended to represent a different quality of measure, i.e., being based on motivational items, they represented significantly diverse psychological differences between respondents. The fact that people travel abroad for different reasons and choose their holiday destinations based on different needs and wants was confirmed by the current study. Therefore, travel and destination marketers should consider these differences when targeting this market segment. Finally, by applying a factor-cluster segmentation approach, this study confirmed that it is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivation factors, and, consequently, Proposition 3 is supported.

Chapter 8: Travel Constraints

8.1 Introduction

Previous studies have reported that travel motivation is only one of the factors that affect and shape people's travel behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1989; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). Perceived travel constraints also play an essential role in shaping people's travel behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1989; Moutinho, 1987; Jackson, 1988; Crompton & Mckay, 1997; Corroll & Alexandris, 1997; Stanis, Schneider & Russell, 2009). However, what we know about travel constraints is largely based upon empirical studies that were carried out in non-Muslim communities. Therefore, the current study attempts to identify travel constraints that inhibit Omani people from travelling abroad for pleasure purposes. Furthermore, the influence of socio-demographic variables on perceived travel constraints was examined. Factor analysis was then applied to test study Proposition 5: that the three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation. A comparison between travellers and non-travellers regarding their travel constraints was performed. Finally, this chapter also explored the influence of motivations and travel constraints on individuals' travel participation (Proposition 7). Therefore, in order to examine the role of motivations and travel constraints in explaining participation, binary logistic regression analysis was conducted.

8.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Construct

In this study, an internal consistency analysis was examined by applying two methods: Cronbach's alpha and split-half coefficient of correlation.

The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the 18-item measure of travel constraints was 0.881, which is greater than the acceptable alpha value. Therefore, the scale is a sufficiently reliable measure.

Then, the split-half method of reliability was separately performed to test the internal consistency of the scale by randomly splitting the items into subscales. The

Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficients were 0.700 and 0.690 respectively (see Table 8.1).

Table 8.1 Reliability Statistics of Travel Constraints

Total Number of Items		18
Cronbach's Alpha		0.881
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.700
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.700
Guttman Split- Half Coefficient		0.690

8.3 Travel Constraints for Omani Outbound Tourists

The means, standard deviations, and rank of perceived travel constraints which inhibited Omani outbound tourists are presented in Table 8.2. Descriptive statistics showed that the travel constraints that had the most influence on Omani residents' decisions not to travel abroad for pleasure purposes were "lack of money" (M = 5.45), "travel cost is too high" (M = 5.40), "work commitments" (M = 5.30), "family commitments" (M = 5.07), and "lack of time" (M = 4.94). The present findings seem to be consistent with those of other research which found that money, lack of time, work, and family commitments were the most important perceived travel constraints (e.g., Jackson, 2000; Gilbert & Terrata, 2001; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Huang & Hsu, 2005; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Sparks & Pan, 2009).

Table 8.2 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Constraints

Rank	Inhabiting Factors	Mean	SD
1	Financial challenges (a lack of money)	5.45	1.70
2	Travel cost is too high	5.40	1.60
3	Work commitments	5.30	1.67
4	Family commitments	5.07	1.76
5	Lack of time and opportunities to travel	4.94	1.82
6	Others do not have the money	4.89	1.92
7	Safety concerns (personal safety)	4.60	2.08
8	Having dependent children	4.56	2.21
9	Others do not have the time	4.54	1.91
10	Lack of skills (language barrier)	4.07	2.08
11	Negative attitudes towards Muslims & Arabs	3.96	2.02
12	Visa procedure	3.88	1.85
13	Difficulty of finding friends or family member to travel with	3.76	2.24
14	Health problems	3.70	2.15
15	Lack of information	3.58	1.98
16	Stress and anxiety	3.55	1.91
17	My partner is not interested in travelling	3.27	2.17
18	Lack of interest	3.21	2.07

On the other hand, the travel constraints which had the least influence on Omani residents' decisions not to travel abroad for pleasure purposes were "lack of interest" (M = 3.21), "My partner is not interested in travelling" (M = 3.27), "stress and anxiety" (M = 3.55), "lack of information" (M = 3.58), and "health problems" (M = 3.70). These findings are also consistent with those of Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002), and Zhang (2009) who found that health problems, lack of information, and lack of a travel companion were the travel constraints which had the least influence on travel decisions.

As can be seen from Table 8.3 (below), it is encouraging to compare the findings of the quantitative phase (questionnaire) with the findings of the qualitative phase (in-depth interviews), which also found that lack of money, family commitments, and work commitments were the most important travel constraints for Omani travellers. However, those interviewed also indicated that travel constraints such as security and safety, lack of a travel companion, and children impeded them from travelling outside Oman. It is important to note that despite these constraints not coming within the first five important travel constraints on the questionnaire, they still have an influence on individuals' participation in overseas travel because they were scored at above 4.50.

The comparison results confirm that financial challenges as well as work and family commitments were clearly the biggest obstacles preventing Omani people from travelling.

Table 8.3 a Comparison between the Findings of the Quantitative Phase and the Qualitative Phase Regarding Travel Constraints

Rank	Findings of the quantitative phase	Rank	Findings of the qualitative phase
1	Financial challenges (a lack of money)	1	Lack of money
4	Family commitments	2	Family commitments
7	Safety concerns (personal safety)	3	Security and safety problems
9	Others do not have the time	4	Not having appropriate companion
3	Work commitments	5	Work commitments
8	Having dependent children	6	children

8.4 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on Travel Constraints

To examine the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on perceived travel constraints (Proposition 6), independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were performed.

8.4.1 The Influence of Gender

The differences in the influence of the travel constraints for gender were first examined using the independent sample t-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 8.4 that there was only one significant difference ($p < .05$) between male and female Omani tourists regarding their travel constraints: Omani male tourists were more likely to be constrained by "visa procedure" ($t=2.794$, $p<0.01$), than female Omani tourists were. This difference may be attributed to the fact that, within the Omani family, applying for visas is usually considered as a male's responsibility. For example, when any family decides to go on holiday abroad, the husband usually completes all the procedures related to applying for visas. Therefore, women are more likely to experience difficulty in obtaining visas. In general, the present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that female and male tourists

reported different travel constraints preventing them from travelling overseas (e.g., Raymore at el., 1993; Hudson, 2000; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008; Son & Mowen, 2008).

Table 8.4 Comparison of Travel Constraints for Different Gender

Travel Constraints	Mean Scores		T	P
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178		
Visa procedure	4.25	3.64	2.794	0.006

8.4.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 8.5 indicates that there were three significant differences (p< .05) between married and single Omani tourists in travel constraints. Omani married tourists were significantly more likely to experience travel constraints such as "health problems" (t=-2.395, p<0.05), "visa procedure" (t=-2.400, p<0.05), and "having dependent children" (t=-7.079, p<0.01) than unmarried Omani tourists were. This result may be explained by the fact that unmarried people who have no children to take care may be younger, while, in addition, they do not have the family responsibilities of their married counterparts.

Table 8.5 Comparison of Travel Constraints for Different Marital Status

Travel Constraints	Mean Scores		T	P
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228		
Health problems	3.17	3.87	- 2.39	0.017
Visa procedure	3.42	4.03	-2.40	0.017
Having dependent children	3.04	5.02	-7.07	<0.001

8.4.3 The Influence of Age

The ANOVA results in Table 8.6 indicate five travel constraints have a statistically significant relationship with age. Only F-values that represent statistical significance below the 0.05 level are shown in Table 8.6. Senior people aged 50–64 rated "lack of

interest" (F=9.85, p<0.01) as an influential travel constraint on travel abroad, compared with all other age groups. This difference can be explained in part by the idea that older people are much more likely to suffer disability problems that influence their desire to travel, or indeed simply feel less need to travel, being more content with being at home. The results also revealed that older people aged 50–64 tend to be more constrained by "lack of information" (F=5.08, p<0.01) than people between 18 and 25 years old are. This result also can be explained by the idea that, in Oman, younger internet users are notably more likely than older ones to look online for travel information. As shown in Table 8.6, 50–64 year-olds perceived "stress & anxiety" (F=5.44, p<0.01) as a more influential travel constraint on travel abroad than all other age groups do, whereas younger groups (18-25 and 26-35 years) were more likely to be prevented by "others do not have money" (F=6.42, p<0.01). This finding is in agreement with Nyaupane at el.,'s (2008) findings which showed that senior people experienced greater constraints from health issues, while younger age groups were more likely to be constrained by lack of money. Finally, the results also indicated that "negative attitudes towards Muslims and Arabs" (F=3.31, p<0.05) seemed to be a serious travel constraint for older people aged 50-64 years, compared with the youngest group (18-25 year-olds).

Table 8.6 Comparison of Travel Constraints for Different Age Groups

Travel Constraints	Mean Scores				F	P
	18-25	26-35	36-49	50-64		
Lack of interest	2.78	3.07	3.03	4.79	9.85	0.000
Lack of information	3.04	3.75	3.43	4.43	5.08	0.002
Stress & anxiety	3.20	3.59	3.26	4.58	5.44	0.001
Negative attitudes towards Muslims and Arabs	3.54	3.95	4.15	4.69	3.31	0.026
Others do not have the money	4.97	5.33	4.05	4.51	6.42	<0.001

8.4.4 The Influence of Education

Table 8.7 indicates that there was only one significant difference among different educational levels regarding travel constraints. Only F-values that represent statistical values below the 0.05 level are shown in Table 8.7. Uneducated respondents were

more likely to be constrained by "lack of interest" (F=3.678, p<0.01) than bachelor's degree holders were. This result may be due to the fact that respondents with a higher level of education, in general, have more travel skills, such as speaking a foreign language, which encourage them to travel abroad with more confidence. This finding is consistent with that of Zhang (2009) who found that people from different educational levels were constrained by different travel constraints.

Table 8.7 Comparison of Travel Constraints for Different Education Groups

Travel Constraints	Mean Scores							
	Uneducated	Elementary	High School	Diploma	Bachelor's	Master's & PhD	*F*	*P*
Lack of interest	5.42	4.66	3.71	3.25	2.92	3.26	3.67	0.003

8.4.5 The Influence of Income

Table 8.8 shows that only one travel constraint appears to have a statistically significant relationship with income. The respondents with a monthly household income under OMR 500, from OMR 500 to 1000, and from OMR 1000 to 1500 viewed "Others do not have time" (*F*=3.415, p<0.05) as more important travel constraints on overseas travel than did those with a monthly household income over OMR 1500. Again, this finding supports previous research which found that monthly income also has a significant influence on perceived travel constraints (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2008; Zhang, 2009).

Table 8.8 Comparison of Travel Constraints for Different Income Groups

Travel Constraints	Mean Scores					
	Under 500	From 500 to 1000	From 1000 to 1500	From 1500	*F*	*P*
Others do not have time	4.63	4.58	4.56	2.55	3.415	0.018

8.4.6 The Influence of Occupation

Table 8.9 indicates that housewives and the retired respondents rated "health problems" (F=3.917, p<0.01) as a more important travel constraint than did student respondents. This result may be explained by the fact that college students aged 18-25 are less likely to suffer from health problems when compared with older respondents. The ANOVA results also revealed that retired respondents were more likely to be constrained by "negative attitude towards Muslims and Arabs" (F=2.951, p<0.05) compared to the student respondents.

Table 8.9 Comparison of Travel Constraints for Different Occupation Groups

Travel Constraints	Mean Scores						F	P
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Student	Housewife	Retired	Businessman		
Health problems	3.64	3.67	2.75	4.92	5.55	4.33	3.91	0.002
Negative attitudes towards Muslims and Arabs	3.91	4.35	3.12	4.76	5.55	4.05	2.95	0.013

These results again promote the idea that socio-demographic variables play a significant role in explaining travel behaviour in general and travel constraints in particular (Cotterell, 1993; Burnett & Baker, 2001). Hence, this study's Proposition 6 is supported by these results: Travel constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables.

8.5 Comparison between Travellers and Nontravellers Regarding Travel Constraints

First, cross-tabulation with chi-square was used in order to identify if there are significant demographic differences between travellers and non-travellers (Table 8.10 below). The results revealed that these two groups were significantly different in gender, age, marital status, monthly income, occupation, and educational level.

Table 8.10 The Demographic Difference between Travellers and Non-travellers

	Travellers N=246	Non-travellers N=52	X^2	*p*-value
Gender			4.66	0.021
Male	43.1%	26.9%		
Female	56.9%	73.1%		
Age			16.77	**0.001**
18-25 years old	27.6%	32.7%		
26-35 years old	43.9%	25.0%		
36-49 years old	18.7%	15.5%		
50-64 years old	9.8%	28.8%		
Marital status			7.85	**0.006**
Single	20.3%	38.5%		
Married	79.7%	61.5%		
Income			14.97	**0.002**
Under OMR 500	17.9%	40.4%		
Over 500 to 1000	69.1%	48.1%		
Over 1000 to 1500	9.3%	11.5%		
Over OMR 1500	3.7%	0.0%		
Occupation			13.22	**0.021**
Public Sector	70.3%	48.1%		
Private Sector	9.3%	9.6%		
Student	9.3%	17.3%		
Housewife	3.7%	7.7%		
Retired	2.0%	7.7%		
Businessman	5.3%	9.6%		
Education			18.42	**0.002**
Uneducated	1.6%	5.8%		
Elementary School	2.0%	7.7%		
High School	8.9%	19.2%		
Diploma	20.7%	25.0%		
Bachelor's	58.9%	42.3%		
Master's & PhD	7.7%	.0%		
Size of sample	82.6%	17.9%		

Second, to identify whether there were significant differences in travel constraints between travellers and non-travellers (potential travellers), the independent sample t-test was conducted. As shown in Table 8.11, there were nine significant differences between travellers and non-travellers in travel constraints: non-travellers were more likely to be impeded from travelling abroad by "lack of interest" (t=-5.13, p<0.01), "lack of information" (t=-2.22, p<0.05), "health problems" (t=-2.87, p<0.01), "safety concerns" (t=-2.18, p<0.05), "lack of skills" (t=-2.5, p<0.05), "lack of time" (t=-2.58, p<0.05), "stress and anxiety" (t=-3.01, p<0.01), "family commitments" (t=-2.73, p<0.01), and "visa procedure" (*t*=-2.05, p<0.05) than travellers were. Zhang (2009)

also found that non-travellers considered specific travel constraints as greater deterrents than travellers did. These findings further support the idea that non-travellers are usually inhibited by internal and external reasons from participation in travel activities (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Jackson & Witt, 2005).

Table 8.11 Comparison between Travellers and Non-travellers Regarding their Travel Constraints

Travel Constraints	Mean Score		T	P
	Travellers	Non-travellers		
Lack of interest	2.93	4.50	-5.13	<0.001
Lack of information	3.46	4.13	-2.22	0.027
Health problems	3.54	4.48	-2.87	0.004
Safety concerns	4.48	5.17	-2.18	0.030
Lack of skills	3.93	4.73	-2.50	0.013
Lack of time	4.82	5.53	-2.58	0.010
Stress & anxiety	3.40	4.26	-3.01	0.003
Family commitments	4.94	5.67	-2.73	0.007
Visa procedure	3.78	4.36	-2.05	0.041
Size of sample	246	52		

Binary logistic regression was also applied to identify which variables (travel constraints and socio-demographic characteristics) significantly predict and explain travel participation. The results of the binary logistic regression are shown in Table 8. 12. The overall goodness-of-fit was significant at a 0.05 level. Three out of 25 variables were found significant in the model, including lack of interest, travel cost being too high, and gender (male). Two of the coefficients were positive, and only one was negative. The positive coefficients indicate that Omani people are more likely to travel abroad, whereas the negative coefficient indicates that they are less likely to travel abroad. The full results can be seen in Appendix 5. The findings indicate that interest and cost, and being male, are the primary determinants of travel, with travel cost having the highest beta coefficient.

Table 8. 12 Determinants of Travel Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Constraints			
Lack of interest	0.265	0.014	1.303
Travel cost is too high	0.422	0.033	1.525
Socio-demographics			
Gender (Male)	-1.432	0.005	0.239

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001
N= 298; Constant = -1.554***; -2 Log Likelihood = 196.334; Chi-square = 79.582***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.388; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 9.924; (Cox & Snell) = 0.234; Percentage Correct = 87.2%

8.6 The Combined Role of Constraints and Motivation

This part was designed to explore the influence of motivations and travel constraints on individuals' travel participation (Proposition 7). Therefore, in order to examine the role of motivations and travel constraints in explaining participation, binary logistic regression analysis was applied. As mentioned in Chapter 5, due to the nature of the study, both travellers and potential travellers were targeted in the quantitative phase (self-completion questionnaire). The first question in part one of the questionnaire asks whether the respondents have been abroad for a holiday/sightseeing. This question was asked to divide respondents into two groups (travellers/ non-travellers) for comparison purposes at the data analysis stage. This question was used as a dependent variable (the variable to be predicted) in this analysis. Then: (a) travel motivation, (b) travel motivations and socio-demographics variables, (c) travel constraints, (d) travel constraint and socio-demographics variables, and, (e) motivations and constraints were separately applied as independent variables (predictors) in five steps (five models). The variables which showed significant influence on participation are presented in Tables 8.13, 8.14, 8.15, 8.16, and 8.17. The full results can be seen in Appendix 6.

The first mode revealed that motivations such as "mix with fellow tourists", "experience another country", "natural attractions", and, "availability of mosques" play a significant role in travel participation. The overall goodness-of-fit was significant at a 0.05 level. Four out of 38 variables were found significant in model one. Four of the coefficients were negative, and only one was positive. The positive coefficients show that Omani people are more likely to travel overseas, whereas the

negative coefficient indicates that they are less likely to travel overseas. The results of the binary logistic regression are shown in Table 8. 13. Hence this table shows the important role of a destination's natural resources, but, interestingly, here social, experiential, and religious reasons as measured by the possessing of halal food are negative, something counter-intuitive to earlier results and which deserves more consideration in the final chapter.

Table 8.13 The Role of Motivations in Explaining Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Motivations			
Mix with fellow tourists.	-0.316	0.032	0.729
Experience another country.	-0.518	0.004	0.595
Natural attractions.	0.496	0.032	1.642
Availability of mosques (place of worship).	-0.402	0.011	0.669

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 298; Constant = -1.554***; -2 Log Likelihood = 214.210; Chi-square = 61.705***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.310; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 4.226; (Cox & Snell) = 0.187; Percentage Correct = 84.9%

In the second step travel motivation and socio-demographics variables were together used as independent variables (Model 2). The variables which showed significant influence on travel participation are presented in Table 18.14. The results of the binary logistic regression indicated that 7 out of 45 variables were significant in the model, including physical rest and relaxation, mixing with fellow tourists, experiencing another country, natural attractions, availability of mosques, gender (male), and age (36-49 years old). Six of the coefficients were negative, and only one was positive.

Table 8.14 The Role of Travel Motivations and Socio-demographics Variables in Explaining Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Motivations			
Physically rest and relax.	-0.289	0.016	0.749
Mix with fellow tourists.	-0.596	0.003	0.551
Experience another country.	-0.898	0.000	0.407
Natural attractions.	0.733	0.038	1.151
Availability of mosques (place of worship).	-0.785	0.000	0.456
Socio-demographics			
Gender (male).	-1.579	0.016	0.206
Age (36-49 years old).	-2.102	0.045	0..122

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 298; Constant = -1.554***; -2 Log Likelihood = 160.778; Chi-square = 115.137***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.531; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 22.804; (Cox & Snell) = 0.320; Percentage Correct = 89.3%

When travel constraint variables were entered by themselves as independent variables (Model 3), the results showed that constraints such as lack of interest, travel cost is too high, and having dependent children significantly influence travel participation. As shown in Table 8.15, two of the coefficients positively influence travel participation, while one variable was found to negatively affect participation. The full results can be seen in Appendix 6.

Table 8.15 The Role of Travel Constraints in Explaining Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Constraints			
Lack of interest.	0.289	0.003	1.335
Travel cost is too high.	0.387	0.023	1.472
Having dependent children.	-0.185	0.044	0.831

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 298; Constant = -1.554***; -2 Log Likelihood = 230.596; Chi-square = 45.319***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.234; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 4.521; (Cox & Snell) = 0.141; Percentage Correct = 83.9%

In the fourth step travel constraint and socio-demographics variables were together employed as independent variables (Model 4). The variables which indicated significant effects on travel participation are shown in Table 18.16. The results of the binary logistic regression revealed that 3 out of 25 variables were significant in the

model, including lack of interest, travel cost is too high, and gender (male). Two of the coefficients were positive, and only one was negative.

Table 8.16 The Role of Travel Constraints and Socio-demographics Variables in Explaining Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Constraints and Socio-demographics			
Lack of interest.	0.265	0.014	1.303
Travel cost is too high.	0.422	0.033	1.525
Gender.	-1.432	0.005	0.239

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 298; Constant = -1.554***; -2 Log Likelihood = 196.334; Chi-square = 79.582***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.388; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 9.924; (Cox & Snell) = 0.234; Percentage Correct = 87.2%

Finally, motivation and travel constraints items were together applied as independent variables (Model 5). The results of the binary logistic regression are shown in Table 8. 17. The overall goodness-of-fit was significant at 0.05. Seven out of 56 variables were found significant in the model, including mixing with fellow tourists, experiencing another country, availability of mosques, lack of interest, my partner not being interested in travelling, travel cost being too high, and having dependent children. Two of the variables had a positive influence on participation, whereas five variables had a negative impact on travel participation.

Table 8.17 The Role of Travel Motivations and Travel Constraints in Explaining Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Motivations			
Mix with fellow tourists.	-0.491	0.009	0.612
Experience another country.	-0.536	0.014	0.585
Availability of mosques (places of worship).	-0.419	0.039	0.658
Travel Constraints			
Lack of interest.	0.305	0.040	1.356
My partner is not interested in travelling.	-0.286	0.044	0.751
Travel cost is too high.	0.528	0.023	1.696
Having dependent children.	-0.293	0.021	0.746

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 298; Constant = -1.554***; -2 Log Likelihood = 175.646; Chi-square = 100.269***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.473; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 7.387; (Cox & Snell) = 0.286; Percentage Correct = 87.2%

The findings regarding the role of travel motivations in travel participation suggested that if individuals' motivations to travel overseas or participate in leisure activities are not strong enough, these individuals may not be able to overcome any travel and leisure constraints that face them, and vice versa (Carroll & Alexandris, 1997; Gladwell & Bedini, 2004). According to the conceptual research framework in Chapter3, lack of or weak travel motivations could lead to nonparticipation (negative effect), while strong motivations could stimulate the use of negotiation strategies to overcome the constraints that impede participation (positive role), which then raise the level of participation and satisfaction. In this context, Hubbard and Mannell (2001) argue that highly motivated people are less likely to perceive a high level of constraints, and are more likely to participate in travel and leisure activities. In addition, White (2008) also suggested that higher motivation to participate encourages the adoption of negotiation strategies and resources to overcome constraints.

The evidence from this analysis suggests a strong relationship between constraints and negotiation constraint strategies. The research's conceptual framework described travel constraints as motivators to use different negotiation strategies to achieve participation in travel activities. Therefore, the present study provides additional evidence with respect to the idea that perceived travel constraints are "negotiable" and can be successfully overcome. Hence, the relationship between constraints and travel participation is not always negative, as was assumed in the past (Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Little, 2002; Ayling, 2008; Du, 2008; Lee & Scott, 2009; Koca et al., 2009). Zhang (2009) argued that both forces (motivations and constraints) have a significant effect on whether to participate or not in travel or leisure activities.

Finally, from these data we can see that three travel motivations and four travel constraints variables were found to be determinants of travel participation. Taken together, these results suggest that participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel is an outcome of the joint action of travel motivations and constraints.

8.7 Factor Analysis

The most widely adopted theoretical framework of leisure constraints was first suggested by Crawford and Godbey (1987), and later explained and developed by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991). As stated in the literature review, these authors posited that leisure constraints can be categorised into three hierarchically organised groups: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, and (3) structural constraints. The current study proposes that the three-dimensional leisure constraints model is applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation (Proposition 5). To examine this proposition, the travel constraints 18items were analysed by employing principal component factors with varimax rotation. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant (p<0.001). The calculation of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics was 0.852, with a chi-square χ^2 value of 1970.218 and 153 degrees of freedom, which was described as a great value (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Therefore, sample adequacy is appropriate for factor analysis. The anti-image correlation matrix was also considered. For these data, all values were found to be above 0.50, ranging from 0.720 to 0.912. A cut-off of 1 was chosen. The results of the communality and factor loadings indicated that all travel constraints items were greater than 0.40. Therefore, they were retained for further analysis. The 18 travel constraints items generated four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 57.45% of the total variance (Table 8.18). In order to check the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach's alpha was performed.

The first travel constraints factor, labelled "internal constraints", comprised seven items: "lack of skills (language barrier)"; "negative attitude towards Muslims and Arabs"; "safety concerns (personal safety)"; "health problems"; "lack of information"; "stress & anxiety"; and, "difficulty of finding friend or family member to travel with". With an eigenvalue of 6.042, this labelling explained 33.56% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.845, with a factor mean of 3.89.

The second travel constraints factor was named "structural constraints" as it contained items that related to financial challenges, family commitments, work

commitments, obtaining a visa, and having dependent children. As Table 8.18 shows, it captured 10.90% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.96. This factor included six items: "travel cost is too high"; "family commitments"; "work commitments"; "having dependent children"; "financial challenges (a lack of money)"; and, "visa procedure". It had a reliability coefficient of 0.780, with a factor mean of 4.94.

The third travel constraints factor, labelled as "time & social constraints", contained three variables that related to lack of time and also to others who do not have money or time to travel: "others do not have the money"; "others do not have the time"; and, "lack of time and opportunities for travel". This factor represented 7.35% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.32. The reliability of this factor was 0.68, with a factor mean of 4.79.

The fourth travel constraints factor was labelled as "lack of interest constraints", since it included constraints such as "my partner is not interested in travelling" and "lack of interest". The reliability of this factor was 0.56, with a factor mean of 3.24. This factor accounted for 5.62% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.01. This low value of Cronbach's alpha can be explained by the fact of "Cronbach's alpha being sensitive to the number of items in a scale" (Beerli & Martin, 2004, p. 628). However, it is still above the minimum acceptable reliability value of 0.50 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 8.18 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Travel Constraints

Factor Names and Items	Load.[a]	Comm.[aa]	Eigen.[aaa]	% Var.[aaaa]
Internal constraints (α=0.84)			**6.042**	**33.56**
Lack of skills (language barrier).	0.751	0.636		
Negative attitudes towards Muslims & Arabs.	0.748	0.615		
Safety concerns (personal safety).	0.712	0.608		
Health problems.	0.616	0.543		
Lack of Information.	0.613	0.522		
Stress & anxiety.	0.592	0.545		
Difficulty of finding friends to travel with.	0.515	0.525		
Structural constraints(α=0.78)			**1.96**	**10.90**
Travel cost is too high.	0.722	0.572		
Family commitments.	0.721	0.624		
Work commitments.	0.675	0.514		
Having dependent children.	0.638	0.464		
Financial challenges (lack of money).	0.591	0.652		
Visa procedure.	0.552	0.574		
Time & social constraints (α=0.68)			**1.32**	**7.35**
Others do not have the money.	0.766	0.657		
Others do not have time.	0.751	0.673		
Lack of time and opportunities to travel.	0.506	0.513		
Lack of interest constraints (α=0.56)			**1.01**	**5.62**
My partner is not interested in travelling.	0.670	0.576		
Lack of interest.	0.589	0.526		

KMO = 0.852, Bartlett = 1970.218; (p < 0.01), Rotation converged in 8 iterations, Cumulative = 57.45%
[a]Factor loading. [aa]Communalities. [aaa]Eigenvalues. [aaaa]Percentage of Variance Explained.

This finding did not support the three-dimensional constraints model; therefore, Proposition 5 is not confirmed by this study. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Zhang (2009) who also found that the three-dimensional leisure constraints model was not applicable to Beijing's outbound travel market. She revealed that travel constraints of Beijing outbound tourists fall into only a two-dimensional model. In this context, Hung and Petrick (2010) concluded that "given the differences between travel and leisure constraints, it is unknown whether these measurements are equally applicable to a specific travel context" (p. 212).

8.8 Conclusion

This chapter was designed to determine the travel constraints that impeded Omani residents from travelling abroad (Objective 5). The study found that "lack of money"/"travel cost is too high"; "work commitments"; "family commitments"; and, "lack of time" scored the highest and were the most important travel constraining factors. An analysis of travel constraints for different socio-demographic variables revealed that perceived travel constraints were influenced by socio-demographic characteristics (Proposition 6). For instance, Omani male tourists were more likely to be constrained by "visa procedure" than were female Omani tourists. Cross-tabulation with chi-square as well as the independent sample t-test were applied in order to identify if there are significant demographic differences between travellers and non-travellers regarding travel constraints. The results found that these two groups were significantly different in gender, age, marital status, monthly income, occupation, and educational level. In this context, the results of binary logistic regression also indicated that lack of interest, travel cost being too high, and gender (being male) all have an influence on travel participation. The role of motivations and travel constraints in explaining travel participation was examined (Proposition 7). Three travel motivations and four travel constraints variables were found to be determinants of travel participation. Therefore, the results of this research support the idea that participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel derives from the joint action of travel motivations and constraints. Finally, to examine Proposition 5, the 18 travel constraints items were placed into the principal component factoring analysis with varimax rotation. Four travel constraints factors which together explained 57.45% of the total variance were identified. Therefore, the three-dimensional leisure constraints model is not applicable to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation. This result supports the idea that travel and leisure constraints are not homogenous (Nyaupany et al., 2008).

Chapter 9: Leisure Constraints

9.1 Introduction

It is very important to examine the factors that keep individuals from participating in leisure activities (Nyaupane et al., 2004). Therefore, this chapter was designed to determine the leisure constraints which prevented Omani residents from participation in leisure activities. This chapter also attempts to determine whether significant differences in leisure constraints could be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between participants and nonparticipants regarding their leisure constraints was made. Finally, factor analysis was conducted to test whether leisure constraints followed the three-dimensional leisure constraints model.

9.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Construct

As mentioned earlier, the internal consistency of a scale is usually tested using two methods: Cronbach's alpha and split-half coefficient of correlation. The results for the leisure constraints scale are shown in Table 9.1 and are regarded as appropriate for further analysis using the scale.

Table 9.1 Reliability Statistics of Leisure Constraints

Total Number of Items		18
Cronbach's Alpha		0.875
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.754
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.754
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.754

9.3 Leisure Constraints for Omani Residents

The means, standard deviations, and rank of perceived leisure constraints which inhibited Omani residents are shown in Table 9.2. Descriptive statistics indicated that the leisure constraints which had the most influence on Omani residents' participation in leisure activities were "lack of facilities" (M = 5.02), "work commitments" (M = 4.96), "household expectations" (M = 4.91), "family commitments" (M = 4.76), and "lack of time" (M = 4.59). In contrast, the leisure constraints which had the least influence on Omani residents' participation in leisure activities were "stress and

anxiety" (M = 3.28), "My partner is not interested in participating" (M = 3.30), "others do not have the money" (M = 3.47), "clothing and equipment are too expensive" (M = 3.51), and "fear of injury" (M = 3.56).

Table 9.2 Descriptive Statistics for Leisure Constraints

Rank	Inhibiting Factors	Mean	SD
1	Lack of facilities	5.02	1.76
2	Work commitments	4.96	1.75
3	Household expectations	4.91	1.78
4	Family commitments	4.76	1.87
5	Lack of time and opportunities to participate	4.59	1.86
6	Lack of interest	4.25	2.06
7	Difficulty of finding friends or family member to participate with	4.24	1.99
8	Lack of information	4.23	1.90
9	Financial challenges (a lack of money)	4.22	2.09
10	Traditional gender stereotype	4.17	2.16
11	Lack of skills or physical ability	3.99	1.89
12	Others do not have the time	3.98	1.89
13	Health problems	3.72	2.19
14	Fear of injury	3.65	1.96
15	Clothing and equipment are too expensive	3.51	1.96
16	Others do not have the money	3.47	1.90
17	My partner is not interested in participating	3.30	1.89
18	Stress and anxiety	3.28	1.88

Table 9.3 below illustrates that the quantitative phase (questionnaire) produced results which corroborate the findings of the qualitative phase (in-depth interviews). The interviewees also reported that lack of facilities, dependent children, lack of time, work commitments, and family obligations were the most important leisure constraints which inhibited them from taking part in leisure activities. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that time, work and family commitments were the most important perceived leisure constraints (e.g., Nadirova & Jackson, 2000; Brown et al., 2003; Arab-Moghaddam & Henderson, 2007; Silva & Correia, 2008; Stanis et al., 2009).

Table 9.3 a Comparison between the Findings of the Quantitative Phase and the Qualitative Phase Regarding Leisure Constraints

Rank	Findings of the quantitative phase	Rank	Findings of the qualitative phase
1	Lack of facilities	1	Lack of facilities
3	Household expectations	2	Dependent children
5	Lack of time	3	Lack of time
2	Work commitments	4	Work commitments
4	Family commitments	5	Family obligations

9.4 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on Leisure Constraints

Several studies have revealed that people usually encountered different leisure constraints according to their socio-demographic characteristics (e.g., Kristin & Festing, 2003; Arab-Moghaddam & Henderson, 2007; Koca et al., 2009; Lamb, 2012). Therefore, independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were conducted in order to examine the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on perceived leisure constraints (Proposition 6).

9.4.1 The Influence of Gender

The differences in the influence of the leisure constraints for gender were first examined using the independent sample t-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 9.4 that there were six significant differences ($p<0.05$) between male and female Omani residents regarding leisure constraints: surprisingly, Omani male residents were more likely to be constrained by "stress & anxiety" ($t=2.43$, $p<0.05$) than female Omani residents. On the other hands, Omani women were more likely to be impeded by "traditional gender stereotype" ($t=-2.71$, $p<0.01$); "difficulty of finding friend or family member to participate with" ($t=-3.23$, $p<0.01$); "others do not have the time" ($t=-2.99$, $p<0.01$); "family commitments" ($t=-2.95$, $p<0.01$); and, "work commitments" ($t=-2.30$, $p<0.05$) than were men. It is easy to note that Omani men encountered an internal force, in the form of "stress & anxiety", while Omani women

were prevented by external forces. In this context, Cotterell (1993) argued that female participation in leisure activities is more likely to be negatively influenced by "gender role constraints". In general, the present findings seem to be consistent with those of Walseth and Fasting (2003), Arab-Moghaddam and Henderson (2007), Koca et al. (2009), and Tekin (2001) who found that Muslim women reported traditional views, time, social support, and personal home expectations as the most important leisure constraints preventing them from participating in leisure activities.

Table 9.4 Comparison of Leisure Constraints for Different Genders

Leisure Constraints	Mean Scores		T	P
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178		
Stress & anxiety	3.59	3.07	2.34	0.020
Traditional gender stereotype	3.76	4.45	-2.71	0.007
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to participate with	3.80	4.55	-3.23	0.001
Others do not have the time	3.59	4.25	-2.99	0.003
Family commitments	4.38	5.02	-2.95	0.003
Work commitments	4.68	5.15	-2.30	0.022

9.4.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 9.5 showed that there were two significant differences (p <0.05) between married and single Omani residents in leisure constraints. Married Omani respondents were significantly more likely to experience "family commitments" (t=-2.48, p<0.05) as leisure constraints than unmarried respondents were. On the other hand, unmarried people were more likely to be constrained by difficulty of "finding an appropriate person to engage with" (t=2.334, p<0.05) when compared with married people.

Table 9.5 Comparison of Leisure Constraints for Different Marital Status

Leisure Constraints	Mean Scores		T	P
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228		
Family commitments	4.28	4.91	- 2.48	0.013
Finding appropriate person to engage with	5.04	4.40	2.334	0.020

9.4.3 The Influence of Education

Table 9.6 indicates that there was only one significant difference among different educational levels regarding leisure constraints. Only *F*-values that represent probability values less than the 0.05 level are shown in Table 9.7. Uneducated respondents were more likely to be constrained by "fear of injury" (*F*=2.747, p<0.05) than bachelor's degree holders were. The present findings seem to be consistent with Zhang's findings (2009) which found that more highly educated people are less anxious about their personal safety at the destination than are those with lower educational attainment.

Table 9.6 Comparison of Leisure Constraints for Different Education Groups

Leisure Constraints	Mean Scores							
	Uneducated	Elementary	High	Diploma	Bachelor's	Master's & PhD	*F*	*P*
Fear of injury	5.57	3.77	4.12	3.95	3.40	3.31	2.74	0.019

9.4.4 The Influence of Income

Table 9.7 shows that only one leisure constraint appears to have a statistically significant relationship with income. The respondents with a monthly household income under OMR 500, over OMR 500 and up to 1000, and over OMR 1000 and up to 1500 viewed "difficulty of finding friend or family to participate with" (*F*=4.147, p<0.01) as more important leisure constraint on participation in leisure activities than did those with a monthly household income over OMR 1500.

Table 9.7 Comparison of Leisure Constraints for Different Income Groups

Leisure Constraints	Mean Scores					
	Under 500	Over 500 up to 1000	Over 1000 up to 1500	Over 1500	*F*	*P*
Difficulty of finding friend or family to participate with	4.40	4.29	3.89	2.82	4.147	0.007

9.4.5 The Influence of Occupation

Table 9.8 indicates that retired respondents rated "fear of injury" ($F=4.542$, p<0.01) as a more important leisure constraint than did student respondents and employees of the public sector. This result may be explained by the fact that college students aged 18-25 and people who are still working are less likely to suffer from health problems compared to retired people (age-associated diseases). The ANOVA results also revealed that businessman respondents were more likely to be constrained by "fear of injury" ($F=4.542$, p<0.01) when compared with the student respondents.

Table 9.8 Comparison of Leisure Constraints for Different Occupation Groups

Leisure Constraints	Mean Scores						F	P
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Student	Housewife	Retired	Businessman		
Fear of injury	3.15	4.14	2.87	4.15	5.66	4.50	4.54	0.001

These results together confirm the idea that socio-demographic variables play a significant role in explaining leisure behaviour in general and leisure constraints in particular. Thus, the study's Proposition 6 is proved by these results: leisure constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables.

9.4.6 The Influence of Age

The ANOVA results in Table 9.9 show that five leisure constraints appear to have a statistically significant relationship with age. Senior people aged 50–64 were more likely to be prevented by "stress & anxiety" ($F=9.77$, p<0.01); "health problem" ($F=5.296$, p<0.01); and, "fear of injury" ($F=9.27$, p<0.01) compared with all other age groups, and this finding supports others' findings such as those of Nyaupane et al., 2008. The results also indicated that older people were more likely to be constrained by "my partner is not interested in participating" ($F=4.65$, p<0.01) compared with people between 18 and 25 years of age. Finally, the results revealed

that the youngest group (18-25) tend to be more constrained by "others do not have the time" (F=2.92, p<0.05) than people between the ages of 36 and 49. This finding is consistent with Wang et al.'s findings (2005) which found that age has a significant influence on perceived leisure constraints.

Table 9.9 Comparison of Leisure Constraints for Different Age Groups

Leisure Constraints	Mean Scores				F	P
	18-25	26-35	36-49	50-64		
Stress & anxiety	2.72	3.28	3.16	4.61	9.77	<0.001
Health problems	3.60	3.47	3.58	5.00	5.29	0.001
Fear or injury	3.45	3.35	3.50	5.12	9.27	<0.001
Partner is not interested in participating	2.84	3.33	3.30	4.25	4.65	0.003
Others do not have the time	4.21	4.03	3.32	4.29	2.92	0.034

9.5 Comparison between Participants and Nonparticipants Regarding Leisure Constraints

First, cross-tabulation with the chi-squared test was applied to identify potentially significant demographic differences between participants and nonparticipants (Table 9.10, below). The results revealed that these two groups were significantly different in gender, monthly income, and educational attainment level.

Table 9.10 The Demographic Difference between Participants and Nonparticipants

	Participants N=152	Nonparticipants N=146	X²	*p*-value
Gender			5.353	**0.014**
Male	46.7%	33.6%		
Female	53.3%	66.4%		
Age			3.385	0.336
18-25 years old	28.3%	28.8%		
26-35 years old	44.1%	37.0%		
36-49 years old	17.8%	17.8%		
50-64 years old	9.9%	19.4%		
Marital status			.037	0.478
Single	23.0%	24.0%		
Married	77.0%	76.0%		
Income			9.337	**0.025**
Under OMR 500	21.1%	22.6%		
Over 500 up to	62.5%	68.5%		
1000	10.5%	8.9%		
Over 1000 up to	5.9%	.0%		
1500				
Over OMR 1500				
Occupation			8.652	0.124
Public sector	65.1%	67.8%		
Private sector	11.2%	7.5%		
Student	12.5%	8.9%		
Housewife	5.3%	3.9%		
Retired	.7%	5.5%		
Businessman	5.3%	6.8%		
Education			11.876	**0.037**
Uneducated	2.0%	2.7%		
Elementary	2.0%	4.1%		
School	11.8%	9.6%		
High School	25.0%	17.8%		
Diploma	49.3%	63.0%		
Bachelor's	9.9%	2.7%		
Master's & PhD	51%	49%		
Size of sample (n)				

Second, to examine whether there were significant differences in leisure constraints between participants and nonparticipants, the independent sample t-test was carried out. As shown in Table 9.11, there were 11significant differences between participants and nonparticipants in leisure constraints: nonparticipants were more likely to be impeded from participating in leisure activities by "lack of interest" (t=-3.74, p<0.01), "stress and anxiety" (t=-3.04, p<0.01), "health problems" (t=-3.30,

p<0.01), "lack of skills or physical ability" (t=-2.56, p<0.05), "traditional gender stereotype" (t=-2.15, p<0.05), "my partner is not interested in participating" (t=-3.99, p<0.01), "others do not have the money" (t=-2.48, p<0.05), "others do not have the time" (t=-2.27, p<0.05), "financial challenges (a lack of money)" (t=-2.71, p<0.01), "family commitments" (t=-2.10, p<0.05), and "clothing and equipment are too expensive" (t=-3.13, p<0.01) than participants were. These differences closely explain the strongest reasons that led to nonparticipation in leisure activities with regard to the Omani community. This finding is consistent with that of Hudson and Gilbert (2001) who found that non-skiers encountered more leisure constraints compared to skiers.

Table 9.11 Comparison between Participants and Nonparticipants Regarding their Leisure Constraints

Leisure Constraints	Mean Score		*T*	*P*
	Participants	Nonparticipants		
Lack of interest	3.82	4.70	-3.74	<0.001
Stress & anxiety	2.96	3.61	-3.04	0.003
Health problems	3.32	4.15	-3.30	0.001
Lack of skills or physical ability	3.72	4.28	-2.56	0.011
Traditional gender stereotype	3.91	4.45	-2.15	0.032
My partner is not interested in participating	2.86	3.76	-3.99	<0.001
Others do not have the money	3.21	3.75	-2.48	0.014
Others do not have the time	3.74	4.23	-2.27	0.024
Financial challenges (a lack of money)	3.90	4.56	-2.71	0.007
Family commitments	4.54	5.00	-2.10	0.036
Clothing and equipment are too expensive	3.16	3.86	-3.13	0.002
Size of sample (n)	152	146		

Binary logistic regression was also used to find out which variables (leisure constraints and socio-demographic characteristics) significantly predict and explain leisure participation. The results of the binary logistic regression are presented in Table 9.12. The overall goodness-of-fit was significant at the 0.05 level. Ten out of

25 variables showed significant influence in the model, including lack of interest, fear of injury, a partner's lack of interest in participation, lack of time and opportunities to participate, lack of facilities, clothing and equipment being too expensive, age (26-35 years old), education, income, and occupation (students). Six of the coefficients were positive, and four were negative. The positive coefficients show that Omani people are more likely to participate in leisure activities, while the negative coefficients indicate that they are less likely to participate in leisure activities. The full results can be seen in Appendix 7.

Table 9.12 Determinants of Leisure Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Leisure Constraints			
Lack of interest	0.223	0.010	1.250
Fear of injury	-0.272	0.019	0.762
Partner not interested in participating	0.183	0.037	1.207
Lack of time and opportunities to participate	0.277	0.008	1.319
Lack of facilities	-0.283	0.007	0.754
Clothing and equipment too expensive	0.222	0.011	1.248
Socio-demographics			
Age (26-35 years old)	-1.677	0.015	0.187
Education	.	0.031	.
Income	.	0.048	.
Occupation (students)	-2.050	0.027	0.129

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 296; Constant = -0.041; -2 Log Likelihood = 320.124; Chi-square = 90.098***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.350; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 9.865; (Cox & Snell) = 0.262; Percentage Correct = 70.9%

9.6 Factor Analysis

In order to reveal the possible underlying leisure constraints factors, principal component factor analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was used. The 18-item leisure constraints scale was analysed. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant (p<0.001), and the calculation of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic was 0.845, which can be described as "great" (Field, 2008). This analysis shows that sample adequacy is suitable for factor analysis. The anti-image correlation matrix was also examined. For these data, all values were found to be above 0.50, ranging from 0.752 to 0.914. In this respect, Field (2005) suggests that if any variable failed to obtain values above the bar minimum of 0.50, it must be removed from the analysis. A cut-off of an eigenvalue of 1 was preselected as the criterion for further rotation. For further analysis, only items with communality and factor loadings greater than 0.40 were kept. Kaiser (1974) suggests that factors with eigenvalues less than 1 and items with factor loadings and communalities of less than 0.40 should be excluded from the final factor structure. From the results of the communality, two items: "clothing and equipment are too expensive = 0.358", and "traditional gender stereotype = .286" were ruled out owing to their low communality. The factor analysis was rerun after eliminating that item, with KMO statistics of 0.843 with chi-square χ^2 value of 1763.040 with 120 degrees of freedom. Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation produced four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 62.20% of the total variance (Table 9.13). Examining the scree plot also proved that a 4-factor solution was the most appropriate. The Cronbach's alpha within each factor was conducted in order to examine the internal consistency of the factors. Each factor was labelled according to the common characteristics of the variables it contained.

The first leisure constraints factor, which was labelled as "time & commitment constraints", contained five variables that related to lack of time, and family and work commitments: "household expectations"; "family commitments"; and, "work commitments"; "lack of facilities"; and, "lack of time and opportunities to

participate". This factor represented 34.03% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 5.445. The reliability of this factor was 0.80, with a factor mean of 4.85.

The second leisure constraints factor, labelled "health & money constraints", comprised five items that related to health problems and lack of money: "fear of injury"; "health problems"; "lack of skills or physical ability"; "stress and anxiety"; and, "financial challenges (a lack of money)". With an eigenvalue of 1.868, this constraints factor explained 11.672% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.77, with a factor mean of 3.77.

The third leisure constraints factor was named "lack of companion constraints" as it contained items that related to the difficulty of finding a friend or family member to participate with. As Table 9.13 shows, it captured 8.75% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.40. This factor included four items: "others do not have the time"; "others do not have the money"; "difficulty of finding friend or family member to participate with"; and, "my partner is not interesting in participating". It had a reliability coefficient of 0.746, with a factor mean of 3.75.

Table 9.13 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Leisure Constraints

Factor Names and Items	Load.[a]	Comm.[aa]	Eigen.[aaa]	% Var.[aaaa]
Time & commitment constraints (α=0.80)			**5.445**	**34.032**
Household expectations.	0.813	0.708		
Family commitments.	0.811	0.722		
Work commitments.	0.785	0.650		
Lack of facilities.	0.551	0.581		
Lack of time and opportunities to participate.	0.536	0.525		
Health & money constraints (α=0.77)			**1.868**	**11.672**
Fear of injury.	0.827	0.740		
Health problems.	0.714	0.562		
Lack of skills or physical ability.	0.648	0.489		
Stress & anxiety.	0.642	0.600		
Financial challenges (a lack of money).	0.456	0.535		
Lack of companion constraints (α=0.72)			**1.401**	**8.755**
Others do not have the time.	0.799	0.694		
Others do not have the money.	0.708	0.682		
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to participate with.	0.700	0.547		
My partner is not interested in participating.	0.490	0.482		
Lack of interest & information constraints (α=0.70)			**1.240**	**7.750**
Lack of interest.	0.799	0.648		
Lack of information.	0.785	0.742		

KMO = 0.843, Bartlett = 1763.040; (p < 0.01), Rotation converged in 6 iterations, Cumulative = 62.209%
[a]Factor loading. [aa]Communalities. [aaa]Eigenvalues. [aaaa]Percentage of Variance Explained.

The fourth leisure constraints factor was labelled as "lack of interest & information constraints", since it included constraints such as ""lack of interest", and "lack of information". The reliability of this factor was 0.70, with a factor mean of 4.24. This factor accounted for 7.75% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.140.

Crawford and Godbey (1987) suggested that leisure constraints can be categorised into three hierarchically organised groups: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, and, (3) structural constraints. The most striking result to emerge from the data is that this finding did not completely support their three-dimensional leisure constraints model. Therefore, the findings of the current study are not consistent with Samdahl et al. (1997) or Raymore et al. (2003) who confirm the three-dimensional leisure constraints model by applying confirmatory factor analysis. However, as shown in Figure 9.1, the current results converge with their model at many points.

Figure 9.1 A Comparison between the Three-dimensional Leisure Constraints and Leisure Constraints for Omani Residents
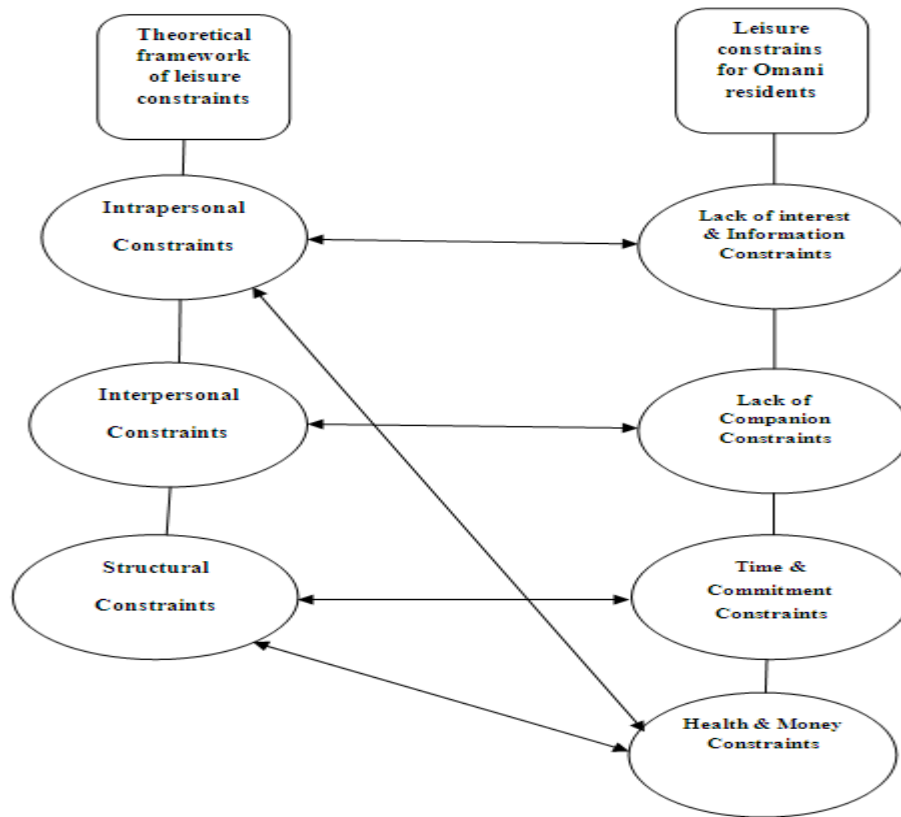
Figure 9.1 shows that the obtained dimensions: "lack of interest and information constraints", "lack of companion constraints", and "time and commitment constraints" match, to a great extent, the "intrapersonal constraints", "interpersonal constraints", and "structural constraints" respectively, while "health and money constraints" can also be found within both "intrapersonal constraints" and "structural constraints".

9.7 Conclusion

This chapter was intended to identify the leisure constraints that impeded Omani residents from participating in leisure activities (Objective 5). The study revealed that "lack of facilities", "work commitments"; "household expectations"; "family commitments"; and, "lack of time and opportunities to participate" were the most important perceived leisure constraints for Omani residents. An analysis of leisure constraints for different socio-demographic characteristics revealed that perceived

leisure constraints were affected by socio-demographic variables (Proposition 6). For instance, Omani married respondents were significantly more likely to experience "family commitments" as a constraint than unmarried respondents were. Cross-tabulation with chi-square and the independent sample t-test were performed in order to examine if there are significant demographic differences between participants and nonparticipants regarding their leisure constraints. The results revealed that these two groups were significantly different in gender, monthly income, and educational level. For example, the result shows that nonparticipants were more likely to be impeded from participating in leisure activities by "lack of interest" compared with other participants. In this context, the results of binary logistic regression also showed that lack of interest, fear of injury, my partner not being interested in participation, lack of time and opportunities to participate, lack of facilities, clothing and equipment being too expensive, age (26-35 years old), education, income, and occupation (students) play a significant role in leisure participation. Finally, the leisure constraints 18 items were subject to principal component factoring analysis with varimax rotation. Four leisure constraints factors, which together explained 62.20% of the total variance, were yielded. These findings overall did not completely support the three-dimensional leisure constraints model.

Chapter 10: Travel Negotiation Strategies

10.1 Introduction

On the grounds that travel constraints are "negotiable" and can be successfully overcome (Samdahl et al., 1997), this study aimed at identifying travel negotiation strategies used by Omani outbound tourists in order to overcome the encountered travel constraints (Objective 6). This chapter also seeks to determine whether there are significant differences in travel negotiation strategies that could be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between travellers and non-travellers regarding their adopted travel negotiation strategies was performed. Factor analysis was also conducted to test whether travel negotiation strategies can be classified into the four negotiation dimensions. Finally, this chapter explored the role of both travel motivations and constraints in triggering Omanis' use of negotiation strategies (Proposition 8).

10.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Construct

In this study, an internal consistency analysis was once again tested using two methods: Cronbach's alpha and split-half coefficients of correlation. In this case the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the 23-item measure of travel negotiation strategies was 0.901, while the Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficients were 0.737 and 0.729 respectively (see Table 10.1).

Table 10.1 Reliability Statistics of Travel Negotiation Strategies

Total Number of Items		23
Cronbach's Alpha		0.901
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.737
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.737
Guttman Split-half Coefficient		0.729

10.3 Travel Negotiation Strategies

The means, standard deviations, and rank of travel negotiation strategies used by Omani outbound tourists are presented in Table 10.2. Descriptive statistics revealed

that the most frequently used strategies and resources that assisted Omani outbound tourists to overcome the effect of travel constraints on participation in travel activities were "saving money" (M = 5.31), "finding companion to travel with" (M = 5.25), "thinking about the importance and advantage of travel" (M = 5.23), "learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints" (M = 5.22), and "budgeting my money" (M = 5.14). On the other hand, the strategies least frequently used by respondents in overcoming travel constraints were "borrowing money" (M = 2.52), "looking for someone to look after my children while I am abroad" (M = 3.69), "travelling alone or in group" (M = 3.83), "travel is a top priority" (M = 4.14), and "travelling with people of my own gender" (M = 4.14). This finding is in agreement with Stanis et al.'s (2009) findings which showed financial management, cognitive strategies, and time management were the most important strategies used by park visitors.

Table 10.2 Descriptive Statistics for Travel Negotiation Strategies

Rank	Negotiation Strategies	Mean	SD
1	Saving money	5.31	1.85
2	Finding companion to travel with	5.25	2.06
3	Thinking about the importance and advantages of travel	5.23	1.90
4	Learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints	5.22	1.87
5	Budgeting my money	5.14	1.75
6	Applying what I learned from travelling abroad	5.12	1.84
7	Organising my time early	5.03	1.89
8	Travelling with people who have similar interest	4.85	1.89
9	Planning ahead for travel	4.80	1.99
10	Choosing inexpensive destination	4.65	1.75
11	Compromising on my plan to travel abroad	4.60	1.82
12	Ignoring the community structure/cultural tradition	4.59	2.05
13	Reducing the period I spend abroad	4.48	1.78
14	Looking for alternative things to do instead of travelling	4.41	1.87
15	Ignoring disapproval of others	4.27	2.05
16	Changing my plans and travelling to closer countries	4.22	1.87
17	Travelling with person who speaks other languages	4.20	2.03
18	Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	4.15	2.11
19	Travelling with people of my own gender	4.14	2.18
20	Travel is a top priority	4.14	1.88
21	Travelling alone or in group	3.83	2.04
22	Looking for someone to look after my children	3.69	2.22
23	Borrowing money	2.52	1.85

The following conclusions can be drawn from the top five travel negotiation strategies adopted. Since the respondents were primarily impeded from travelling by financial constraints, "financial strategies" were strongly present at this stage through saving money or budgeting one's income. It is also easy to note that "interpersonal coordination" as a negotiation strategy was adopted through looking for a companion to travel with to overcome the difficulty of lacking a friend or family member with whom to travel. The results of this investigation also show that "skills acquisition" as a negotiation resource was used through learning new skills that assist respondents in overcoming constraints. "Time management" was also a common negotiation resource adopted by the respondents through organising their time early, or planning ahead for travel. Furthermore, the use of "cognitive strategies" appeared through a process of prior thinking about the importance and advantage of travel to assist Omani outbound tourists to overcome travel constraints by forward planning. Therefore, the results of the qualitative phase (in-depth interviews) are clearly supported by the current findings. The results of the qualitative phase indicated that saving money, finding a companion to travel with, and time management were the most important strategies used to overcome any travel constraints encountered. For example, the following quotations from the interviews illustrate some strategies: regarding lack of money,; some respondents said: "Saving is the best solution"; "I saved the money monthly"; and, "I solved it through saving". In terms of time management, some respondents declared: "It was solved through organising my time"; "I choose the appropriate time to travel"; and, "We postponed the time of travel until the next year". Concerning the need to find a companion with whom to travel, some female respondents said: "I took on all the expenses to encourage my brother to travel with me", and "I ignored this problem and I travelled with my children without my husband".

10.4 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on Travel Negotiation Strategies

Several studies suggest that individuals usually use different travel negotiation strategies in line with their socio-demographic characteristics (Samdahl &

Jekubovich, 1997; Koca et al., 2009). Therefore, independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were applied in order to investigate the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on the use of negotiation strategies.

10.4.1 The Influence of Gender

The differences in the influence of the use of travel negotiation strategies for gender were first examined using the independent sample t-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 10.3 that there was only one significant difference ($p < .05$) between male and female Omani residents regarding the use of negotiation strategies: males were more likely to adopt strategies such as "travelling alone or in a group" (t=2.59, p<0.05) to overcome the financial challenges than female residents were. This difference in using negotiation strategies was expected since Muslim women are not allowed to travel abroad alone without a Mahram (companion from their family) or travel in a group with strangers (Islam Q&A, 2010).

Table 10.3 Comparison of Travel Negotiation Strategies for Different Genders

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores		T	P
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178		
Travelling alone or in group	4.20	3.58	2.591	0.010

10.4.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 10.4 showed that there was only one significant difference ($p < .05$) between married and single Omani residents in travel negotiation strategies. Omani married respondents were significantly more likely to adopt "planning ahead for travel" (t=-2.28, p<0.05) as a strategy to overcome lack of time than were unmarried respondents. This result may be explained by the fact that married people have, in general, more work and family responsibilities than unmarried people. Therefore,

husbands need more time to prepare for their holiday trip to fit in with their wives' work holidays or their children's school holidays, for example.

Table 10.4 Comparison of Travel Negotiation Strategies for Different Marital Status

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores		T	P
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228		
Planning ahead for travel	4.32	4.94	- 2.28	0.023

10.4.3 The Influence of Age

The ANOVA results in Table 10.5 indicate that three travel negotiation strategies appear to have a statistically significant relationship with age. People aged 26–35 were more likely to use "saving money" ($F=2.748$, $p<0.05$) as a strategy to overcome lack of money compared with senior people aged 50-14. On the other hand, the results also indicated that older people were more likely to adopt "borrowing money" ($F=3.604$, $p<0.05$) to overcome a lack of money when compared with younger people aged between 26 and 35, and those who were between 36and 49 years old. Finally, the results revealed that the youngest groups significantly applied "finding a companion to travel with" ($F=5.321$, $p<0.01$) when compared with senior people between aged 50-64.

Table 10.5 Comparison of Travel Negotiation Strategies for Different Age Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores				F	P
	18-25	26-35	36-49	50-64		
Saving money	5.24	5.61	5.16	4.69	2.74	0.043
Borrowing money	2.49	2.42	2.18	3.38	3.60	0.014
Finding companion to travel with	5.58	5.33	5.37	4.07	5.32	0.001

10.4.4 The Influence of Education

Table 10.6 indicates that there was only one significant difference among different educational levels regarding the use of travel negotiation strategies. Diploma, bachelor's, and master's and doctorate degrees holders were more likely to adopt "thinking about the importance and advantage of travel" (F=3.929, p<0.01) as a reason to travel than were respondents with no formal education.

Table 10.6 Comparison of Travel Negotiation Strategies for Different Education Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores							
	Uneducated	Elementary	High School	Diploma	Bachelor's	Master's & PhD	*F*	*P*
Thinking about the importance and advantage of travel	3.00	4.11	4.62	5.29	5.46	5.42	3.92	0.002

10.4.5 The Influence of Income

Table 10.7 indicates that three travel negotiation strategies appear to have a statistically significant relationship with income. The respondents with a monthly household income over OMR 500 and up to 1000 adopted "ignoring the problem and not thinking about it" (F=4.319, p<0.01), and "ignoring disapproval of others" (F=4.643, p<0.01) more than did those with a monthly household income under OMR 500.

Table 10.7 Comparison of Travel Negotiation Strategies for Different Income Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores				F	P
	Under 500	Over 500 up to 1000	Over 1000 up to 1500	Over 1500		
Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	3.40	4.45	3.89	4.11	4.319	0.005
Ignoring disapproval of others	3.52	4.95	3.96	4.66	4.643	0.003
Changing my plans and travelling to closer countries	4.27	4.35	3.27	4.00	2.894	0.036

10.4.6 *The Influence of Occupation*

Occupation was found to be related to only three negotiation strategies and these are shown in Table 10.8.

Table 10.8 Comparison of Travel Negotiation Strategies for Different Occupation Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores						F	P
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Student	Housewife	Retired	Businessman		
Thinking about the importance and advantage of travel.	5.37	5.67	5.12	4.23	3.33	4.83	3.36	0.006
Finding a companion to travel with.	5.38	5.50	5.31	5.00	3.33	4.44	2.45	0.034
Applying what I learned from travelling abroad.	5.30	5.07	5.37	4.61	3.33	4.00	3.88	0.002

These findings together corroborate the idea that socio-demographic variables play a role in interpreting travel behaviour in general and travel negotiation strategies in particular, but given that in many instances the scores tended towards the moderate, it is necessary to carefully consider the implications of the individual scores.

10.5 Comparison between Travellers and Nontravellers Regarding Travel Negotiation Strategies

As mentioned in Chapter 8, cross-tabulation with chi-square was applied in order to determine if there are significant demographic differences between travellers and non-travellers (see Table 8.11, in Chapter 8). The results found that these two groups were significantly different in gender, age, marital status, monthly income, occupation, and educational level.

Then, to investigate whether there were significant differences in travel negotiation strategies between travellers and non-travellers (potential travellers), the independent sample t-test was carried out. As presented in Table 10.9, there were eight significant differences between travellers and non-travellers in travel negotiation strategies: travellers were more likely to adopt "ignoring the problem and not thinking about it" (t=-5.13, p<0.01), "ignoring disapproval of others" (t=-2.22, p<0.05), "ignoring the community structure/culture traditions" (t=-2.87, p<0.01), "travel is a top priority" (*I*=-2.18, p<0.05), "planning ahead for travel" (t=-2.5, p<0.05), "travelling with people of my gender" (t=-2.58, p<0.05), "travelling alone or in group" (t=-3.01, p<0.01), and "travelling with a person who speaks other languages" as negotiation strategies than non-travellers did. These differences closely highlight the important travel negotiation strategies that led to travel participation with regard to the Omani travel market.

Table 10.9 Comparison between Travellers and Non-travellers Regarding their Travel Negotiation Strategies

Negotiation Strategies	Mean Score		*T*	*P*
	Travellers	Non-travellers		
Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	4.37	3.11	4.00	<0.001
Ignoring disapproval of others	4.50	3.21	4.24	<0.001
Ignoring the community structure/culture traditions	4.82	3.50	4.34	<0.001
Travel is a top priority	4.36	3.09	4.54	<0.001
Planning ahead for travel	5.12	3.28	6.41	<0.001
Travelling with people of my gender	4.27	3.50	2.34	0.020
Travelling alone or in a group	3.96	3.23	2.38	0.018
Travelling with a person who speaks other languages	4.32	3.63	2.23	0.026

10.6 Factor Analysis

Travel negotiation strategies are generally classified into four types: (1) time management, (2) skill acquisition, (3) interpersonal coordination, and, (4) financial resources and strategies (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Therefore, in order to examine if the travel negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents fall into these four dimensions, principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed.

The 23-item travel negotiation strategies were analysed. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant (p<0.001). The calculation of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics was 0.891, with a chi-square χ^2 value of 3384.813 and 253 degrees of freedom, which is considered as a great value (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Thus, sample adequacy is appropriate for factor analysis. The anti-image correlation matrix was also examined. For these data, all values were found to be above 0.50, ranging from 0.616 to 0.930. A cut-off of 1 was preselected. The results of the communality and factor loadings revealed that all travel constraints items were greater than 0.40. Therefore, they were retained for further analysis. The 23 travel negotiation strategies items produced five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 62.81% of the total variance (Table 10.10). In order to check the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach's alpha was applied.

The first travel negotiation strategies factor, which was labelled as "time & financial management", contained seven variables that related to time and money strategies: "organizing my time early"; "planning ahead for travel"; "saving money"; "budgeting my money"; "compromising on my plan to travel abroad"; "choosing inexpensive destination"; and, "thinking about the importance and advantages of travel". This factor represented 34.74% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 7.992. The reliability of this factor was 0.89, with a factor mean of 4.96.

The second travel negotiation strategies factor, labelled "behavioural strategies", was comprised of six items: "looking for someone to look after my children while I am travelling abroad"; "reducing the period I spend abroad"; "travelling alone or in a group"; "borrowing money"; "changing my plans and travelling to closer countries"; and, "travelling with a person who speaks other languages". With an eigenvalue of 2.450, it explained 10.65% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.737, with a factor mean of 3.82.

The third travel negotiation strategies factor was named "cognitive strategies", as it contained items that related to ignoring the constraints. As Table 10.10 shows, it captured 7.11% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.63. This factor included four items: "ignoring disapproval of others"; "ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions"; "ignoring the problem and not thinking about it"; and, "travel is a top priority". It had a reliability coefficient of 0.801, with a factor mean of 4.29.

Table 10.10 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Travel Negotiation Strategies

Factor Names and Items	Load.[a]	Comm.[aa]	Eigen.[aaa]	% Var.[aaaa]
Time & financial management (α=0.89)			**7.992**	**34.747**
Organizing my time early.	0.832	0.785		
Planning ahead for travel.	0.807	0.777		
Saving money.	0.788	0.720		
Budgeting my money.	0.671	0.621		
Compromising on my plan to travel abroad.	0.669	0.585		
Choosing inexpensive destination	0.539	0.605		
Thinking about the importance and advantages of travel.	0.499	0.707		
Behavioural strategies (α=0.73)			**2.450**	**10.654**
Looking for someone to look after my children.	0.721	0.540		
Reducing the period I spend abroad.	0.715	0.623		
Travelling alone or in group.	0.656	0.486		
Borrowing money.	0.585	0.533		
Changing my plans and travelling to closer countries.	0.579	0.510		
Travelling with person who speaks other languages.	0.437	0.484		
Cognitive strategies (α=0.80)			**1.635**	**7.110**
Ignoring disapproval of others.	0.751	0.672		
Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions.	0.707	0.651		
Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it.	0.659	0.570		
Travel is a top priority.	0.610	0.600		
Skills acquisition (α=0.71)			**1.297**	**5.640**
Applying what I earned from travelling abroad.	0.755	0.751		
Learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints.	0.709	0.724		
			1.072	**4.663**
Looking for alternative things to do instead of travelling.	0.588	0.498		
Travelling with people who have similar interests.	0.551	0.592		
Interpersonal coordination (α=0.60)				
Travelling with people of my own gender.	0.750	0.682		
Finding a companion to travel with.	0.686	0.730		

KMO = 0.891, Bartlett = 3384.813; (p < 0.01), Rotation converged in 7 iterations, Cumulative = 62.813%
[a]Factor loading. [aa]Communalities. [aaa]Eigenvalues. [aaaa]Percentage of Variance Explained.

The fourth travel negotiation strategies factor was labelled as "skills acquisition", since it included strategies such as "applying what I learned from travelling abroad", "learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints"; "looking for alternative things to do instead of travelling"; and, "travelling with people who have similar interest". The reliability of this factor was 0.71, with a factor mean of 4.90. This factor accounted for 5.64% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.297.

The last travel negotiation strategies factor, labelled "interpersonal coordination", was comprised of two items: "travelling with people of my gender"; and, "finding a

companion to travel with". With an eigenvalue of 1.072, it explained 4.66% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.602, with a factor mean of 4.69.

Although these results did not exactly support these four dimensions, the travel negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents can be, to a large extent, classified into these four dimensions. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that this classification is partially supported by the current study. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Ayling (2008) who found that attendees and non-attendees to the Emirates Melbourne Cup used negotiation strategies along five dimensions, namely: time management, financial strategies, social relationship, activity compromise, and prior knowledge.

10.7 Direct Impact of Motivation and Constraints on Negotiation Strategies

Recent evidence suggests that travel motivations and constraints have a direct and positive influence on the use of travel negotiation strategies, which then affect travel participation (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Athinson & Mannell, 2007; Ayling, 2008). In this context, the relationships between these variables and negotiation strategies can be summarised as follows: (1) the relationship between travel motivation and negotiation strategies should be positive, as the more motivated an individual is towards travel participation, the more likely it is that the individual will use travel negotiation strategies to overcome perceived constraints; (2) the relationship between travel constraints and negotiation strategies should be negative, as the use of negotiation strategies is likely to reduce the influence of constraints on travel participation; and, (3) the relationship between travel motivation and perceived constraints should also be negative, as more motivated people are less likely to face strong constraints (Ayling, 2008). Therefore, the current study sought to examine the influence of both travel motivations and constraints on Omanis' use of travel negotiation strategies (Proposition 8), which then raise the level of travel participation. In order to test this proposition, two methods were adopted. First, partial least squares regression was performed to examine the existence and

magnitude of hypothesised impact of measured variables on travel participation. Then, MANOVA analysis was applied to determine whether respondents' travel participation status (potential travellers, occasional travellers, infrequent travellers, less than frequent travellers, and frequent travellers) differ in terms of motivations, perceived constraints, and negotiation strategies. These predictions are evident in the following statements:

(1) Frequent travellers will be significantly the most motivated, while potential travellers will be the least motivated.

(2) Potential travellers will be significantly the most constrained, while frequent travellers will be the least constrained.

(3) Frequent travellers will significantly use more negotiation strategies, while non-travellers will be less frequent in their use of negotiation strategies to overcome constraints.

Figure 10.1 Path Diagram for Participation with Path Coefficients
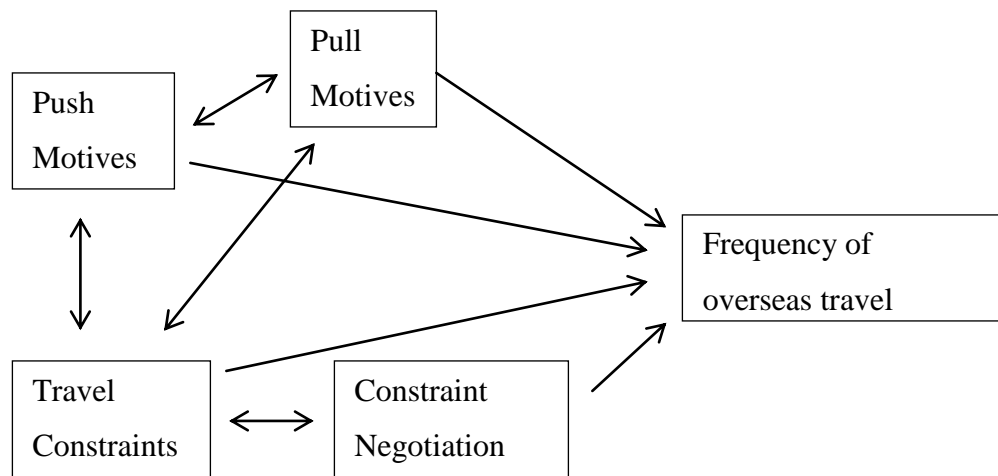
10.7.1 Partial least squares regression

As stated, an initial step to examine these three propositions was to conduct a partial least squares analysis (PLS). PLS regression is a useful means of analysing the relationship between factors because it is less rigorous in its assumptions than

structural equation modelling (see appendix 8) and permits the use of data derived from convenience or quota sampling (Bryman & Cramer, 2011). The path diagram for travel participation is presented in its testable form in Figure 10.1. The model describes both direct and indirect influence of variables on travel participation as postulated. In the first step, push and pull motives determine the frequency of overseas travel, but a relationship is also assumed to exist between pull and push motives on the basis that the attractiveness of a destination permits the fulfilment of push motives.

However, motives are not sufficient to generate overseas trips, and travel constraints need to be overcome. Those constraints adversely inhibit both push and pull motives, but can be overcome through constraint negotiation. Frequencies of travel are thus permitted through push and pull motives, and the overcoming of travel constraints. The standardised regressions are shown in Table 10.11–one reason for use of standardised regressions is that the determined frequencies of travel were based on categorical data derived from declared numbers of overseas trips.

All the regressions were statistically significant and the coefficient of correlation between push and pull factors was strong at 0.92, as envisaged in the model. The correlations between push and pull motives with constraints were 0.115 and 0.272 respectively, which implies that, while constraints are relatively weak with push motives, when it comes to the choice of a destination that permits the fulfilment of push motives, the practicalities of the selected destination may begin to impose more constraint upon the actual choice of destination or the time of travel. The coefficient of correlation between constraints and negotiation strategies was found to be weak and negative at -0.004, implying possibly a lack of specificity between a particular constraint and means of overcoming it. This is a possible explanation if the constraints and modes of overcoming them are more holistic than particularistic in nature.

A negative regression coefficient is found as expected between constraints and frequency of overseas travel, and a positive relationship between negotiation techniques and overseas travel.

Table 10.11 Standardised Regression Weights of Model

Determinants	Factor	Estimate
Discovering new places	Push	0.552
Reinforcing family and friends bonds	Push	0.597
Social motives	Push	0.604
Relationships	Push	0.321
Luxury	Pull	0.419
Security	Pull	0.442
Natural attractions	Pull	0.632
Cultural attractions	Pull	0.447
A short distance to travel	Pull	0.574
Entertainment facilities	Pull	0.686
Frequency of overseas trips	Push	0.213
Frequency of overseas trips	Pull	-0.035
Structural issues	Constraints	0.619
Time constraints	Constraints	0.615
No interest in travel	Constraints	0.596
Frequency of overseas trips	Constraints	-0.355
Internal	Constraints	0.762
Use of interpreters	Negotiation technique	0.544
Use of acquired skills from past travel	Negotiation technique	0.601
Cognitive reasoning	Negotiation technique	0.722
Behavioural adoption	Negotiation technique	0.412
Time management	Negotiation technique	0.837
Frequency of overseas trips	Negotiation technique	0.323

All standardised regression coefficients are statistically significant ($p \leq .01$), except the relationship between travel constraints and the use of negotiation strategies ($p > .05$).

The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Hubbard and Mannell (2001), Loucks-Athinson and Mannell (2007), White (2008), and Ayling (2008) who

found that motivations and constraints have positive and significant effects on participation.

Reasons for this lack of consistency are evident in the fitness measures of the model. The usual indices of good fit tended to be at about 0.7 rather than the desired 0.9, while RMSEA was 0.092 rather than the desired score of less than 0.05. On the other hand, the normed chi-square (NC) is 3.95 (i.e., the chi-squared statistic of 643.997 divided by 163 degrees of freedom). Kline (2005, p. 137) states that "… values of the NC of 2.0, 3.0, or even as high as 5.0 have been recommended as indicating reasonable fit", but equally the NC does not completely correct for the influence of sample size. Zeng (2010) for his part argues that GFI indices of about 0.8 are acceptable. Kline is of the view that GFIs of 0.7 need not necessarily be discounted where the research is of an exploratory nature, as samples and model specification can be varied.

On the other hand, the level of residuals is within acceptable limits, and this is indicated in Diagram 10.1 which is derived from the output generated by the statistical program *Statistica*.

Diagram 10.1 Normal Probability Plot
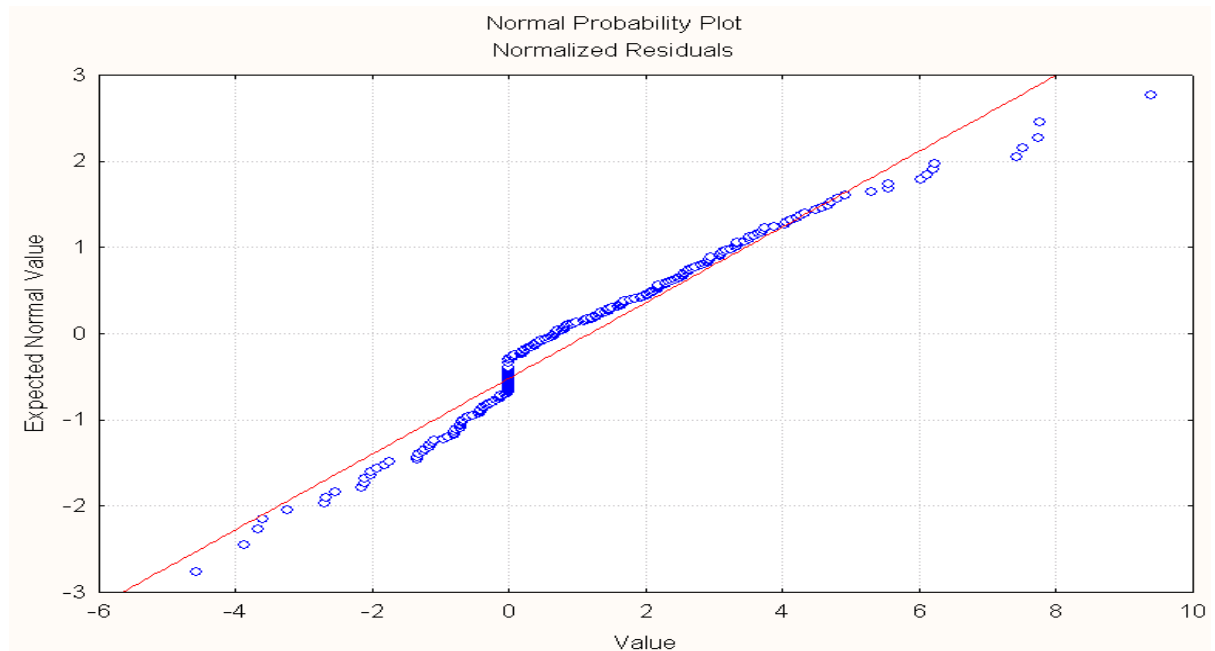
10.7.2 MANOVA Analysis

The second step to test the propositions listed on page 266 was to conduct a MANOVA analysis. As mentioned above, travel motivation, constraints, and negotiation were used as the dependent variables in the analysis, while respondents' travel participation status served as the independent variables (non-travellers, occasional travellers, infrequent travellers, less than frequent travellers, and frequent travellers). As shown in Table 10.12, the analysis revealed that individuals' motivations to travel abroad are significantly influenced by travel participation status (F (4,293) = 2.700, p < .05). An examination of the estimated marginal means of travel participation status indicated that frequent travellers were more motivated to travel abroad, while potential travellers were the least motivated (see Table 10.13). However, it is worth noting that post hoc tests failed to find any significant differences among the travel groups. Based on this finding, the proposition that frequent travellers will be significantly the most motivated, while non-travellers will be the least motivated, was partially supported.

As shown in Tables 10.12 and Table 10.13, the results also indicated individuals' perceived constraints were significantly influenced by travel participation status (F (4,293) = 7.318, p< .001). In particular, an examination of both estimated marginal means and post hoc tests of travel participation status showed that non-travellers were significantly more constrained, while less than frequent travellers were the least constrained. Based on this finding, the suggestion that non-travellers will be significantly the most constrained, while frequent travellers will be the least constrained, was also partially supported.

Finally, the results also indicated the use of travel negotiation strategies were significantly influenced by travel participation status (F (4,293) = 11.486, p< .001). Particularly, infrequent travellers used significantly more negotiation strategies; whereas non-travellers used the least number of travel negotiation strategies (see Tables 10.12 and 10.13). Based on this result, the notion that frequent travellers will

significantly use more negotiation strategies, while non-travellers use fewer negotiation strategies, was partially supported.

Table 10.12 Significant Multivariate of Travel Participation Status

	Multivariate[a]		
	Df	F	*P*
Travel participation status	12.000	7.357	<0.001
Motivation	4.293	2.700	0.031
Constraints	4.293	7.318	<0.001
Negotiation	4.293	11.486	<0.001

[a] Pillai's Trace multivariate test.

Table 10.13 Descriptive Statistics and Mean Differences

	Travel Participation Status									
	Potential Travellers (n= 62)		Occasional Travellers (n= 88)		Infrequent Travellers (n= 99)		Less than frequent Travellers (n= 32)		Frequent Travellers (n= 17)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Motivation	4.09	.803	4.11	.836	4.41	.833	4.31	.780	4.52	.717
Constraints	4.37*	1.19	4.02*	1.10	3.87*	1.23	3.00	1.04	4.17*	1.62
Negotiation	3.24	1.48	4.17*	.925	4.34*	.870	4.18*	.965	4.23*	.970

*significantly different at p < .05 level

10.8 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to identify the travel negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents to overcome perceived travel constraints (Objective 6). The study found that the most frequently used strategies and resources that assisted Omani outbound tourists to overcome the effect of travel constraints on participation in travel activities were: "saving money"; "finding a companion to travel with"; "thinking about the importance and advantage of travel"; "learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints"; and, "budgeting my money". An analysis of travel negotiation strategies for different socio-demographic characteristics revealed that use of negotiation strategies were affected by socio-demographic variables. For instance, men were more likely to adopt strategies such as "travelling alone or in a group" to overcome the financial challenges than were female residents. Cross-tabulation with chi-square and the independent sample t-test were performed to

272

examine if there are significant demographic differences between travellers and non-travellers regarding their travel negotiation strategies. The results found that there were eight significant differences between travellers and non-travellers in travel negotiation strategies. For example, travellers were more likely to adopt "ignoring the problem and not thinking about it" as a negotiation strategy than non-travellers were. The 23-item travel negotiation strategies were placed into the principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. Five travel negotiation strategies factors were yielded, which together explained 62.81% of the total variance. Finally, the influence of motivations and travel constraints on Omanis' use of travel negotiation strategies was examined (Proposition 8) using partial least squares regression. The study found that travel motivations and constraints positively trigger Omanis' use of travel negotiation strategies. Therefore, Proposition 8 is supported.

Chapter 11: Leisure Negotiation Strategies

11.1 Introduction

Raymore et al. (1994) argued that leisure constraints are not "absolute", and they can successfully be overcome or reduced by individuals. Therefore, this study also sought to identify leisure negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents to overcome perceived leisure constraints (Objective 6). This chapter also aimed to determine whether there are significant differences in leisure negotiation strategies that could be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between participants and nonparticipants concerning their adopted leisure negotiation strategies was conducted. Factor analysis was also applied to examine whether leisure negotiation strategies can be classified into the four negotiation dimensions.

11.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Construct

As before, the reliability of the data was first tested. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the 25-item measure of leisure negotiation strategies was 0.938 and the Spearman-Brown and Guttman split-half coefficients were 0.842 and 0.842 respectively (see Table 11.1). Again, such results permit further testing of the scales.

Table 11.1 Reliability Statistics of Leisure Negotiation Strategies

Total Number of Items		25
Cronbach's Alpha		0.938
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.842
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.842
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.842

11.3 Leisure Negotiation Strategies

The means, standard deviations, and rank of leisure negotiation strategies adopted by Omani residents are shown in Table 11.2. Descriptive statistics indicated that the most frequently used strategies and resources that assisted Omani residents to overcome the effect of leisure constraint on participation in leisure activities were "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities" (M = 4.78), "meeting my family responsibilities early" (M = 4.74), "applying what I learned from

previous participation" (M = 4.60), "finding appropriate person to engage with" (M = 4.55), and "looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities" (M = 4.55). In contrast, the strategies least frequently adopted by the respondents in overcoming leisure constraints were "borrowing money" (M = 2.43), "ignoring the community structural/cultural traditions" (M = 3.39), "looking for someone to look after my children while I am participating in leisure activities" (M = 3.70), "choosing inexpensive leisure activities" (M = 3.78), and "ignoring the problem and not thinking about it" (M = 3.80). The present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that looking for family support, coordinating time with others, and arranging family responsibilities were the most important strategies used by participants to overcome leisure constraints (e.g. Samdahl & Jekubovich, 2007; Koca et al., 2009).

Table 11.2 Descriptive Statistics for Leisure Negotiation Strategies

Rank	Negotiation Strategies	Mean	SD
1	Thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities	4.78	2.02
2	Meeting my family responsibilities early	4.74	1.94
3	Applying what I learned from previous participation	4.60	1.93
4	Finding appropriate person to engage with	4.55	2.01
5	Looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities	4.44	1.94
6	Changing some aspect of my lifestyle to fulfil requirements of participation in leisure activities	4.48	1.73
7	Participating with people of my own gender	4.38	2.14
8	Planning ahead for participation in leisure activities	4.38	2.01
9	Reappraisal of situation	4.36	1.91
10	Ignoring disapproval of others	4.36	2.03
11	Making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities	4.34	1.92
12	Compromising on my plan to participate in leisure activities	4.33	1.88
13	Participating with people who have similar interest	4.32	1.92
14	Organising my time early	4.27	1.96
15	Altering the timing and frequency of participation	4.26	1.76
16	Reducing the period I spend at work	4.06	1.79
17	Saving money	4.04	1.89
18	Budgeting my money	3.95	2.01
19	Participating in leisure activities is a top priority	3.91	1.86
20	Participating in leisure activities with my family members only	3.85	2.13
21	Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	3.80	2.21
22	Choosing inexpensive leisure activities	3.74	1.87
23	Looking for someone to look after my children	3.70	2.16
24	Ignoring the community structural/cultural traditions	3.39	1.94
25	Borrowing money	2.43	1.71

The top five adopted leisure negotiation strategies indicated that "cognitive strategies" were represented through adopting "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities" as a means to overcome constraints. "Time management" was also a common negotiation resource used by the respondents through meeting their family responsibilities early. In addition, it appears that "skills acquisition" was used as a negotiation resource through applying learning from previous participation. It is also easy to note that "interpersonal coordination" as a negotiation strategy was adopted by finding an appropriate person to engage with, as well as looking for family and social support to participate in leisure activities.

However, the findings of the qualitative phase highlighted, to some extent, different negotiation strategies to overcome encountered leisure constraints. For example, in order to overcome a lack of opportunities and facilities, three negotiation recourses were adopted by the participants: (1) looking for an alternative place: "I do the leisure activities at home"; (2) buying the equipment: "I bought some sport equipment to do my favourite activities at home"; and, (3) turning to alternative activities: "I choose activities that do not require special equipment". In addition, respondents also reported two negotiation strategies to overcome the problem of dependent children: (1) rotation: "I rotate with my husband in child care", and (2) delaying or changing the time of leisure activities: "I change or delay the day of going to the gym, if one of my kids gets sick".

11.4 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on Leisure Negotiation Strategies

Previous studies have reported that individuals usually adopt different leisure negotiation strategies according to their socio-demographic variables (Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Little, 2002). Hence again, the standard t-tests and ANOVA were conducted to assess whether relationships existed between these variables.

11.4.1 The Influence of Gender

The differences in the influence of the use of leisure negotiation strategies for gender were first examined using the independent sample t-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 11.3 that there were seven significant differences ($p< .05$) between male and female Omani residents regarding the use of negotiation strategies: females were more likely to adopt strategies such as "ignoring disapproval of others" (t=-2.547, p<0.01); "reappraisal of the situation" (t=-2.607, p<0.05); "ignoring the community structure/cultural tradition" (t=-2.572, p<0.05); "altering the timing and frequency of participation" (t=-2.048, p<0.05); "changing some aspect of my lifestyle to fulfil requirements of participation in leisure activities" (t=-2.703, p<0.01); "looking for family/social support for participation in leisure activities" (t=-4.113, p<0.01); and, "participating in leisure activities with my family members only" (t=-5.387, p<0.01) to overcome perceived leisure constraints than male residents were. This study revealed, in Chapter 9, that Omani women were likely to be impeded from leisure participation by "traditional gender stereotype". Therefore, these differences in using negotiation strategies were expected, since women, in general, are more likely to be prevented from participating in leisure activities by the disapproval of others and lack of family/social support. In terms of participation in leisure activities with their family members only, Muslim women are not allowed to participate in physical activities with males or engage in sport activities in public where men can watch them (Beiruty, 2012). Only a woman's husband and *Maharim* are excluded from this rule. Maharim are woman's close family relatives who cannot marry her such as her father, husband's father, brothers, sons, uncles, sister's/s' sons, or brother's/s' sons (Holy Qur'an 24:31).

Table 11.3 Comparison of Leisure Negotiation Strategies for Different Genders

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores		T	P
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178		
Ignoring disapproval of others.	4.00	4.60	-2.547	0.001
Reappraisal of the situation.	4.01	4.60	-2.607	0.010
Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions.	3.05	3.63	-2.572	0.011
Altering the timing and frequency of participation.	4.00	4.43	-2.048	0.041
Changing some aspect of my lifestyle to fulfil requirements of participation in leisure activities.	4.15	4.70	-2.703	0.007
Looking for family/social support for participation in leisure activities.	4.00	4.92	-4.113	<0.001
Participating in leisure activities with my family members only.	3.08	4.38	-5.387	<0.001

11.4.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 11.4 indicated that there was only one significant difference ($p < .05$) between married and single Omani residents in leisure negotiation strategies. Unmarried respondents were significantly more likely to adopt "finding an appropriate person to engage with" (t=2.334, p<0.05) as a leisure negotiation strategy compared with married people. This result may be explained by the fact that unmarried people in this study, Chapter 9, were found more likely to be constrained by difficulty of "finding an appropriate person to engage with" for participation in leisure activities than married people were.

Table 11.4 Comparison of Leisure Negotiation Strategies for Different Marital Status

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores		T	P
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228		
Finding an appropriate person to engage with	5.04	4.40	2.334	0.020

11.4.3 The Influence of Age

The ANOVA results in Table 11.5 show that four leisure negotiation strategies appear to have a statistically significant relationship with age. These are shown in Table 11.5.

Table 11.5 Comparison of Leisure Negotiation Strategies for Different Age Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores				F	P
	18-25	26-35	36-49	50-64		
Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it.	3.85	4.09	3.79	2.82	3.350	0.019
Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions.	3.71	3.51	3.30	2.48	3.918	0.009
Making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities.	4.67	4.54	4.11	3.35	5.113	0.002
Altering the timing and frequency of participation.	4.58	4.32	4.07	3.61	3.23	0.003

11.4.4 The Influence of Education

There exist two statistically significant relationships with reference to education, and these are shown in Table 11.6.

Table 11.6 Comparison of Leisure Negotiation Strategies for Different Education Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores						F	P
	Uneducated	Elementary	High School	Diploma	Bachelor's	Master's & PhD		
Thinking about the advantage of participation.	3.00	3.00	4.81	4.75	4.97	4.68	2.87	0.015
Reappraisal of the situation.	2.42	2.55	4.43	4.39	4.49	4.63	3.39	0.005

11.4.5 The Influence of Income

Table 11.7 shows that three leisure negotiation strategies appear to have a statistically significant relationship with income. The respondents with a monthly household income under OMR 500, over 500 up to 1000, and over 1500 adopted "planning ahead for participation in leisure activities" ($F=6.818$, $p<0.01$), as negotiation strategies more than did those with a monthly household income over OMR 1000 and up to 1500. Similar results were found for the variable "looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities" ($F=4.779$, $p<0.01$) and "participating in leisure activities with my family members only" ($F=5.914$, $p<0.01$) as negotiation resources compared with those who received over OMR 1000 up to 1500 monthly, as shown in Table 11.7.

Table 11.7 Comparison of Leisure Negotiation Strategies for Different Income Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores				*F*	*P*
	Under 500	Over 500 up to 1000	Over 1000 up to 1500	Over 1500		
Planning ahead for participation.	4.90	4.32	3.17	5.77	6.818	< 0.001
Looking for family/social support.	4.95	4.61	3.62	3.22	4.779	0.003
Participating in leisure activities with my family members only.	3.89	4.10	2.62	2.33	5.914	0.001

11.4.6 The Influence of Occupation

Table 11.8 shows that employees in the public and private sectors, students and housewives were more likely to adopt "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities" ($F=4.94$, $p<0.01$) and "ignoring disapproval of others" ($F=6.10$, $p<0.01$) as cognitive strategies more than retired and businessmen respondents were. Similarly, "reappraisal of the situation" ($F=4.25$, $p<0.01$) was more significantly used by students and employees in the public and private sectors than by retired and businessmen respondents. The ANOVA results also revealed that students were more likely to use "participating in leisure activities is a top priority" ($F=4.52$, $p<0.01$) as a

negotiation resource than retired and businessmen respondents were. In total, 11 further statistical relationships were found and these are shown in Table 11.8, and for the most part they concur with prior results.

Table 11.8 Comparison of Leisure Negotiation Strategies for Different Occupation Groups

Negotiation strategies	Mean Scores						F	P
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Student	Housewife	Retired	Businessman		
Thinking about the advantage of participation	4.87	4.75	5.50	4.84	2.33	3.66	4.94	<0.001
Ignoring disapproval of others	4.35	4.32	5.43	5.15	2.11	3.16	6.10	<0.001
Reappraisal of the situation	4.45	4.42	4.90	4.53	2.22	3.27	4.25	0.001
Participating in leisure activities is a top priority	3.85	3.78	5.12	3.92	2.33	3.44	4.52	0.001
Compromising on my plan to participate in leisure activities	4.31	4.14	5.09	4.84	2.77	3.94	2.76	0.018
Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions	3.46	3.03	3.87	4.23	1.66	2.66	3.15	0.009
Participating with people who have similar interests	4.30	4.67	4.78	4.53	2.55	3.83	2.40	0.037
Making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities	4.31	4.17	4.96	4.76	2.66	4.44	2.27	0.047
Applying what I learned from previous participation	4.56	4.25	5.50	5.15	2.55	4.66	4.02	0.002
Altering the timing and frequency of participation	4.23	4.42	4.46	4.53	2.44	4.61	2.31	0.044
Participating in leisure activities with my family members only	4.02	2.96	3.46	5.00	3.11	3.72	2.46	0.033

These results clearly prove the idea that socio-demographic variables play a role in shaping travel behaviour in general and leisure negotiation strategies in particular.

11.5 Comparison between Participants and Nonparticipants Regarding Leisure Negotiation Strategies

As mentioned in Chapter 9, cross-tabulation with chi-square was carried out in order to identify if there are significant demographic differences between participants and

nonparticipants (see Table 9.11, in Chapter 9). The results found that these two groups were only significantly different in gender, monthly income, and educational level.

In the current analysis six significant differences between participants and nonparticipants in leisure negotiation strategies were found, namely: participants were more likely to adopt "ignoring the problem and not think about it" (t=2.843, p<0.01), "ignoring the community structure/culture traditions" (t=2.607, p<0.05), "organising my time early" (t=4.526, p<0.01), "budgeting my money" (t=3.282, p<0.01), "participating with people of my gender" (t=2.492, p<0.05), and "reducing the period I spend at work" (t=4.156, p<0.01) as negotiation strategies than nonparticipants did. These differences strongly emphasise the main leisure negotiation resources that led to leisure participation with regard to the Omani community.

Table 11.9 Comparison between Participants and Nonparticipants Regarding their Leisure Negotiation Strategies

Negotiation strategies	Mean Score		*T*	*P*
	Participants	Nonparticipants		
Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	4.15	3.43	2.84	0.005
Ignoring the community structure/culture traditions	3.68	3.10	2.60	0.010
Organizing my time early	4.76	3.76	4.52	<0.001
Budgeting my money	4.32	3.56	3.28	0.001
Participating with people of my gender	4.69	4.07	2.49	0.013
Reducing the period I spend at work	4.47	3.63	4.15	<0.001

11.6 Factor Analysis

The most widely accepted classification of leisure negotiation strategies is Hubbard and Mannell's model. They proposed that negotiation strategies generally fall into four types: (1) time management, (2) skill acquisition, (3) interpersonal coordination, and (4) financial resources and strategies (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Hence, in order to examine whether leisure negotiation strategies can be classified according to

these four negotiation dimensions, principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted.

To examine this proposition, the 25-item leisure negotiation strategies were placed into the principle component factoring analysis with varimax rotation. The Bartlett test of sphericity was highly significant (p<0.001). The calculation of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics was 0.927, with a chi-square χ^2 value of 4472.059 and 300 degrees of freedom, which was described as a "superb" value (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Therefore, sample adequacy is appropriate for factor analysis. The anti-image correlation matrix was also considered. For these data, all values were found to be above 0.50, ranging from 0.652 to 0.957. A cut-off of 1 was chosen. The results of the communality and factor loadings indicated that all travel constraints items were greater than 0.40. Therefore, they were retained for further analysis. The 25 leisure negotiation strategies items generated five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which together explained 65.59% of the total variance (Table 11.10). In order to check the internal consistency of the factors, the Cronbach's alpha was applied.

The first leisure negotiation strategies factor was labelled as "interpersonal coordination and skills acquisition". It contained seven variables that related to coordination with others and learning new skills to overcome perceived leisure constraints, that is : "finding an appropriate person to engage with"; "participating with people who have similar interests"; "participating with people of my own gender"; "applying what I learned from previous participation"; "making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities"; "reducing the period I spend at work"; and, "altering the timing and frequency of participation". This factor represented 42.02% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 10.506. The reliability of this factor was 0.89, with a factor mean of 4.36.

The second leisure negotiation strategies factor, labelled "time and financial management", comprised six items: "compromising on my plan to participate in leisure activities"; "organising my time early"; "saving money"; "planning ahead for

participation in leisure activities"; "budgeting my money"; and, "choosing inexpensive leisure activities". With an eigenvalue of 2.081, it explained 8.32% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.871, with a factor mean of 4.122.

The third leisure negotiation strategies factor was named "cognitive strategies", as it contained items that related to ignoring the constraints. As Table 11.10 shows, it captured 5.72% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.432. This factor included six items: "ignoring disapproval of others"; "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities"; "reappraisal of the situation"; "ignoring the problem and not thinking about it"; "participating in leisure activities is a top priority"; and "ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions". It had a reliability coefficient of 0.84, with a factor mean of 4.10.

The fourth leisure negotiation strategies factor was labelled "family support", since it included strategies such as "participating in leisure activities with my family members"; "looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities"; "changing some aspect of my lifestyle to fulfil requirements of participation in leisure activities"; and, "meeting my family responsibilities". The reliability of this factor was 0.80, with a factor mean of 4.40. This factor accounted for 5.34% of the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 1.336.

The last leisure negotiation strategies factor, labelled "friends support", comprised two items: "borrowing money"; and, "looking for someone to look after my children while I am participating in leisure activities". With an eigenvalue of 1.045, it explained 4.18% of the total variance. It had a reliability alpha of 0.54, with a factor mean of 3.07. This low value of Cronbach's alpha can be explained by the fact of "Cronbach's alpha being sensitive to the number of items in a scale" (Beerli & Martin, 2004, p. 628).

Although the constraint negotiation model is not statistically supported by these results, the leisure negotiation strategies used by Omani residents can clearly be

classified into these four dimensions. Thus, it is possible to conclude that this model is partially supported by the current study.

Table 11.10 Principal Component with Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis for Leisure Negotiation Strategies

Factor Names and Items	Load.[a]	Comm.[aa]	Eigen.[aaa]	% Var.[aaaa]
Interpersonal coordination & skills acquisition (α=0.89)			**10.506**	**42.022**
Finding appropriate person to engage with.	0.758	0.708		
Participate with people who have similar interests.	0.744	0.686		
Participation with people of my own gender.	0.732	0.626		
Applying what I learned from previous participation.	0.641	0.689		
Making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities.	0.633	0.617		
Reducing the period I spend at work.	0.588	0.584		
Altering the timing and frequency of participation.	0.474	0.590		
Time & financial management (α=0.87)			**2.081**	**8.323**
Compromising on my plan to participate in leisure activities.	0.713	0.724		
Organizing my time early.	0.695	0.667		
Saving money.	0.669	0.748		
Planning ahead for participation in leisure activities.	0.636	0.609		
Budgeting my money.	0.555	0.682		
Choosing inexpensive leisure activates.	0.423	0.541		
Cognitive strategies (α=0.84)			**1.432**	**5.727**
Ignoring disapproval of others.	0.794	0.731		
Thinking about the advantages of participation.	0.713	0.698		
Reappraisal of the situation.	0.712	0.668		
Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it.	0.709	0.557		
Participating in leisure activities is a top priority.	0.566	0.671		
Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions.	0.501	0.533		
Family support (α=0.80)			**1.336**	**5.344**
Participating in leisure activities with my family members only.	0.752	0.695		
Looking for family/social support.	0.639	0.645		
Changing some aspect of my lifestyle.	0.553	0.798		
Meeting my family responsibilities early.	0.526	0.700		
Friends support (α=0.54)			**1.045**	**4.180**
Borrowing money.	0.801	0.659		
Looking for someone to look after my children.	0.502	0.581		

KMO = 0.927, Bartlett = 4472.059; (p < 0.01), Rotation converged in 15 iterations, Cumulative = 65.597%
[a]Factor loading. [aa]Communalities. [aaa]Eigenvalues. [aaaa]Percentage of Variance Explained.

11.7 Conclusion

This chapter primarily sought to identify the leisure negotiation strategies used by Omani residents to overcome perceived leisure constraints (Objective 6). The study revealed that the most frequently strategies and resources that assisted Omani residents to overcome the negative effect of leisure constraint on participation in

leisure activities were "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities"; "meeting my family responsibilities early"; "applying what I learned from previous participation"; "finding an appropriate person to engage with"; and, "looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities". An analysis of leisure negotiation strategies for different socio-demographic characteristics indicated that adopted negotiation strategies were influenced by socio-demographic variables. For example, unmarried respondents were significantly more likely to adopt "finding an appropriate person to engage with" as a leisure negotiation strategy compared with married people. Cross-tabulation with chi-square and the independent sample t-test were performed in order to examine if there are significant demographic differences between participants and nonparticipants regarding their leisure negotiation strategies. The results revealed that there were six significant differences between participants and nonparticipants in leisure negotiation strategies. For instance, participants were more likely to adopt "ignoring the problem and not think about it" as a negotiation strategy than nonparticipants did. The 25-item leisure negotiation strategies were entered into the principle component factoring analysis with varimax rotation. Five leisure negotiation strategies factors were created, which together explained 68.04% of the total variance.

Chapter 12: The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Destination Choice

12.1 Introduction

Weiermair (2000) argued that the choice of destination is significantly affected by people's beliefs. Hence, this study aimed to investigate the impact of Islamic teachings on choice of a pleasure travel destination (Objective 4). This chapter also sought to identify whether there are statistically significant differences in the influence of Islamic teachings that could be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between travellers and non-travellers in relation to the influence of Islamic teachings on their choice of a pleasure travel destination was, therefore, undertaken. Finally, the first part of proposition 4, namely that the Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination, is examined in this chapter.

12.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Construct

The standard tests of scale reliability were applied with the results shown in Table 12.1. These were found to be at a level appropriate for further analysis of the data.

Table 12.1 Reliability Statistics of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Destination Choice

Total Number of Items		10
Cronbach's Alpha		0.848
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.711
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.711
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.711

12.3 The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice

The means, standard deviations, and rank of the influence of Islamic teachings on holiday destination choice are presented in Table 12.2. Descriptive statistics indicated that the most important Islamic factors/teachings that influence destination choice

from the perspective of Omani tourists were "not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday" (M = 5.94), "availability of halal food at the potential destination" (M = 5.42), "having companion (*Mahram*)" (M = 5.26), "the level of moral corruption at the potential destination" (M = 5.19), "official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil) at the potential destination" (M = 4.13), and "availability of mosques at the potential destination" (M = 5.02). However, it can be seen from the data in Table 12.2 that all Islamic teachings/factors were scored above (4.00). Therefore, it is easy to conclude that all factors have a significant influence on individuals' destination choice. Mohsin and Ryan (1999), who studied the perceptions held of the Northern Territory (NT), Australia by travel agents in Kuala Lumpur found that issues such as availability of halal food and ease of access to centres of religious worship were influential factors in considering the "NT" as a holiday destination. In this context, they suggested that using these issues as "reassurance" markers in marketing holiday destinations could attract more Muslim tourists to these destinations as they indicate a tolerance of Islamic practices. The results of the current study enhance our understanding of the factors that determine and influence destination choice from the perspective of Muslim tourists.

Table 12.2 Descriptive Statistics for the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice

Rank	Islamic Factors	Mean	SD
1	Not being involved in prohibited activities during my holiday	5.94	1.70
2	Availability of Halal food at the potential destination	5.42	1.60
3	Having companion (*Mahram*)	5.26	2.16
4	The level of moral corruption at the potential destination	5.19	1.84
5	Official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil)	5.13	1.89
6	Availability of mosques at the potential destination	5.02	1.86
7	Islamic teachings concerning travelling to non-Muslim countries	4.56	2.05
8	Existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination	4.52	1.92
9	Official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture	4.50	1.77
10	Muslim scholars' opinion (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries	4.21	1.93

12.4 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on the Influence of Islamic Teachings

To investigate the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on the role of Islamic teachings in destination choice, independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were applied.

12.4.1 The Influence of Gender

The differences in the influence of Islamic teachings on destination choice for gender were first examined using the independent sample *t*-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 12.3 that there were five significant differences (p < .05) between male and female Omani tourists regarding the role of Islamic teachings in their destination choice: Omani females scored significantly differently from males on the items "availability of Halal food at the potential destination" (*t*=-2.737, p<0.01), "official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil) at the potential destination" (*t*=-4.278, p<0.01), "availability of mosques at the potential destination" (*t*=-2.049, p<0.05), "existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination" (*t*=-3.321, p<0.01), and "the level of moral corruption at the potential destination" (*t*=-5.292, p<0.01). These differences clearly indicate that the influence of Islamic teachings on women's destination choice was greater than on men's choice.

Table12.3 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice for Different Gender

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores		*T*	*P*
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178		
Availability of Halal food at the potential destination.	5.11	5.62	-.73	0.007
Official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil).	4.57	5.50	-.27	<0.001
Availability of mosques at the potential destination.	4.75	5.20	-.04	0.041
Existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination.	4.08	4.82	-.32	0.001
The level of moral corruption at the potential destination.	4.53	5.63	-.29	<0.001

12.4.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 12.4 showed that there was only one significant difference (p< .05) between married and single Omani residents in the role of Islamic teachings in their destination choice. Married Omani respondents were significantly more likely to be influenced by "official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture at the potential destination" (t=-2.754, p<0.01) when choosing their holiday destination than unmarried respondents were.

Table 12.4 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice for Different Marital Status

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores		*T*	*P*
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228		
Official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture at the potential destination.	4.00	4.66	- 2.75	0.006

12.4.3 The Influence of Age

The ANOVA results in Table 12.5 indicate that only one factor appears to have a statistically significant relationship with age. People aged between 18and 25 were more likely to consider "existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination" (F=2.840, p<0.05) when choosing their holiday destination compared with senior people aged 50-64.

Table 12.5 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice for Different Age Groups

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores				*F*	*P*
	18-25	26-35	36-49	50-64		
Existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination.	4.92	4.48	4.45	3.87	2.84	0.038

12.4.4 The Influence of Income

Table 12.6 shows that only one factor appears to have a statistically significant relationship with income. The respondents with a monthly household income under OMR 500, and over OMR 500 but up to 1000 viewed "existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination" ($F=3.104$, $p<0.05$) as a more important religious factor when choosing or visiting a specific destination than did those with a monthly household income over OMR 1500.

Table 12.6 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice for Different Income Groups

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores				*F*	*P*
	Under 500	Over 500 up to 1000	Over 1000 up to 1500	Over 1500		
Existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination.	4.63	4.62	4.17	2.77	3.104	0.027

Table 12.7 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice for Different Occupational Groups

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores						*F*	*P*
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Student	Housewife	Retired	Businessman		
Muslim scholars' opinion (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries.	4.09	4.25	3.84	4.38	6.00	5.22	3.02	0.011
Official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture at the potential destination.	4.52	4.50	3.65	4.84	5.66	5.05	2.74	0.019
Not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday.	6.07	4.82	6.28	6.15	6.44	5.38	3.61	0.003

12.4.5 The Influence of Occupation

Table 12.7 shows that retired respondents were more likely to consider "Muslim scholars' opinions (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries" ($F=3.025$, $p<0.05$) when choosing their holiday destination than students and employees in the public sector were. Similarly, the ANOVA results also revealed that retired respondents were more likely to be affected by "official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture at the potential destination" ($F=2.744$, $p<0.05$) when selecting their tourist destination compared with students. Finally, students and employees in the public sector scored "not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday" ($F=3.613$, $p<0.01$) as an important religious factor influencing their holiday destination choice more than retired respondents and workers in the private sector did.

These findings together suggest that socio-demographic variables play a main role in interpreting travel behaviour in general and the influence of religious factors on destination choice in particular.

12.5 Comparison between Travellers and Nontravellers Regarding the Role of Islamic Teachings in their Destination Choice

Cross-tabulation with chi-square was conducted in order to determine if there are significant demographic differences between travellers and non-travellers (see Table 8.11, in Chapter 8). The results revealed that these two groups were significantly different in gender, age, marital status, monthly income, occupation, and educational level.

Then, to explore whether there were significant differences in the role of Islamic teachings between travellers and non-travellers (potential travellers), the independent sample *t*-test was applied. As presented in Table 12.8, there was only one significant difference between travellers and non-travellers as regards the role of Islamic teachings in their destination choice. However, non-travellers were more likely to

consider "Muslim scholars' opinions (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries" (*t*=-2.034, p<0.05) when choosing their holiday destination than travellers did. This difference between these two groups, to some extent, indicates that Muslim scholars' opinions (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries constrained non-travellers from travelling abroad.

Table 12.8 Comparison between Travellers and Non-travellers Regarding the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Holiday Destination Choice

Islamic Teachings	Mean Score		*T*	*P*
	Travellers	Non-travellers		
Muslim scholars' opinions (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries.	4.11	4.71	-2.034	0.043

12.6 The Role of Islamic Teachings in Destination Choice

This part was designed to investigate the influence of Islamic teachings on destination choice (Proposition 4). Thus, multiple logistic regression analysis was applied to predict the role of Islamic teachings in explaining the choice of a pleasure travel destination. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the second question in part one of the questionnaire asks respondents: Where did you spend your last holiday away from home? This question was asked to identify travel destinations that had been chosen or visited by the respondents in the past. This question was used as the dependent variable (the variable to be predicted) in this analysis. Then, Islamic teachings regarding travelling overseas and socio-demographic variables were used as independent variables. Surprisingly, the result shows that Islamic teachings regarding travelling abroad had no significant influence on destination choice. In terms of socio-demographic variables, only gender showed a significant influence on destination choice. Table 12.9 provides the main findings of this analysis. The full results can be seen in Appendix 9.

Table 12.9 Determinants of Destination Choice

Variable	Unstandardised coefficients	t	*p*	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	-0.325	-2.321	0.021	1.000	1.000

Note: Durbin-Watson = 1.996; R² = 0.022; F = 5.388; p = 0.021

In stepwise multiple regression, the model R² is 0.022 (p<0.05). The Durbin-Watson statistic is 1.996. According to Field (2005), the assumption that errors in regression are independent will be met, if the Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2 (between 1 and 3). In the analysis, the correlation matrix and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were also used to check the assumption of no multicollinearity. As can be seen from Table 12.9, the variable has high tolerance and a low VIF value showing a low degree of multicollinearity (Kennedy, 1998). Gender explained 0.022% of the variance in destination choice, which is classified as a small effect (Cohen, 1988). As shown in Table 12.9, gender is negatively related to destination choice.

These results must be interpreted with caution because the results earlier showed that Islamic teachings regarding travel abroad played a perceptible role in individuals' destination choice. For example, respondents clearly indicated that religious factors such as "not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday"; "availability of halal food at the potential destination"; and, "having a companion (*Mahram*)" influenced and determined their choice of a pleasure travel destination. Similarly, although the results of the qualitative phase revealed that the majority of participants interviewed also believe that Islamic teachings had no direct effect on their destination choice, they most frequently confirmed that, even if their choice of a pleasure travel destination was travelling to non-Muslim countries, they would adhere to Islamic teaching and avoid participation in activities prohibited by Islamic law, such as gambling or drinking alcohol. Therefore, we can confidently conclude that the Omani tourists' destination choice process comes under indirect influence of their religion's teachings. Finally, the first part of proposition 4, which

stated that The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination, was partially supported.

12.7 Conclusion

Essoo and Dibb (2004) concluded that religion is an important factor affecting both behaviour and purchasing decisions. This chapter identified the more important Islamic teachings that influence destination choice from the perspective of Omani tourists. The most important factors were: "not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday"; "availability of halal food at the potential destination"; and, "having a companion (*Mahram*)". An analysis of the influence of Islamic teachings on destination choice for different socio-demographic characteristics indicated that the extent of the influence of Islamic teachings on destination choice was influenced by socio-demographic variables. For example, Omani females scored more significantly on the "availability of Halal food at the potential destination"; "official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil) at the potential destination"; and, "availability of mosques at the potential destination" than males did. The study also found that there was only one significant difference between travellers and non-travellers as regards the role of Islamic teachings in their destination choice: non-travellers were more likely to consider "Muslim scholars' opinions (*fatwa*) regarding travelling to non-Muslim countries" when choosing their holiday destination than travellers were. Finally, multiple regression analysis was conducted to predict the role of Islamic teachings in explaining destination choice from the perspective of Omani tourists. The study found that Islamic teachings regarding travelling abroad had no significant direct influence on destination choice. However, other results obtained from both the qualitative and quantitative phases revealed that Omani tourists clearly consider the Islamic teachings when choosing their holiday destination. Therefore, proposition 4 (the first part), The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination, was partially supported. It is also suggested that, given this congruency of findings, mixed methods research permits insight into the research

phenomenon that is not available through the use of a single method (Hartmann, 1988; Kaplan & Duchon, 1988; Al-masroori, 2006).

Chapter 13: The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation

13.1 Introduction

Stodolska and Livengood (2006) argued that studies investigating the influence of religious teachings on leisure behaviour of specific religious groups are rare. Therefore, this study aimed to explore the influence of Islamic teachings on the participation of Omani residents in leisure activities (Objective 4). This chapter also sought to examine whether significant differences in the influence of Islamic teachings could be attributed to socio-demographic variables. A comparison between participants and nonparticipants in relation to the influence of Islamic teachings on their participation in leisure activities was performed. Finally, the second part of proposition 4, namely that the Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' participation in leisure activities, is also examined in this chapter.

13.2 Reliability and Adequacy of the Construct

Following previous practice, again the data were first subjected to tests of reliability with the results being shown in Table 13.1.

Table 13.1 Reliability Statistics of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Participation in Leisure Activities

Total Number of Items		10
Cronbach's Alpha		0.897
Spearman-Brown	Equal Length	0.751
Coefficient	Unequal Length	0.751
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.750

13.3 The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation

Table 13.2 shows the influence of Islamic teachings on the participation of Omani residents in leisure activities. Descriptive statistics revealed that the most important

Islamic factors/teachings that influence leisure participation were "not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law such as gambling" (M=6.03); "not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling" (M=5.94); "not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities" (M=5.82); "not participating in leisure activities that involve a high level of risk" (M = 5.67); and, "wearing seemly clothes" (M=5.45). However, it can be seen from the data in Table 13.2 that all Islamic teachings/factors were scored above (4.55). Thus, it is easy to conclude that all factors have a major influence on individuals' leisure participation. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Walseth and Fasting (2003) and Stodolska and Livengood (2006), who concluded that Islamic teachings play a significant role in the participation of Muslims in leisure activities.

Table 13.2 Descriptive Statistics for the Influence of Islamic Teachings on the Participation of Omani Residents in Leisure Activities

Rank	Islamic Factors	Mean	SD
1	Not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law such as gambling	6.03	1.72
2	Not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling	5.94	1.72
3	Not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities	5.82	1.63
4	Not participating in leisure activities that involve a high level of risk	5.67	1.79
5	Wearing seemly clothes	5.45	1.86
6	Not participating in leisure activities that require mixing between men and women	5.41	1.83
7	Islamic teachings concerning participation in leisure activities	5.06	1.94
8	Social and family support	4.97	1.89
9	Muslim scholars' opinions (*fatwa*) regarding participation in leisure activities	4.85	1.89
10	Gender stereotypes in Muslim society	4.56	1.95

13.4 The Influence of Sociodemographic Variables on the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation

To examine the influence of socio-demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, educational level, income, and occupation) on the role of Islamic teachings in participation in leisure activities, independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were used.

13.4.1 The Influence of Gender

It can be seen from the data in Table 13.3 that there were three significant differences (*p*< .05) between male and female Omani residents regarding the role of Islamic teachings in their participation in leisure activities: Omani females were significantly more likely to be influenced by "gender stereotype in Muslim society" (*t*=-4.305, p<0.01), "wearing seemly clothes" (*t*=-3.989, p<0.01), and "not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law such as gambling" (*t*=-2.284, p<0.05). This finding corroborates the ideas of Walseth and Fasting (2003), who found that Egyptian women's participation in leisure activities was influenced by issues that resulted from Muslim society's view of women and their sexuality, as well as the different interpretations of Islamic teachings.

Table13.3 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation for Different Gender

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores			
	Males N = 120	Females N = 178	*T*	*P*
Gender stereotype in Muslim society.	3.89	4.94	-.30	<0.001
Wearing seemly clothes.	4.94	5.79	-.98	<0.001
Not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law.	5.75	6.21	-.24	0.025

13.4.2 The Influence of Marital Status

Table 13.4 showed that there were two significant differences (*p*< .05) between married and single Omani residents for the role of Islamic teachings in their leisure participation. Married Omani respondents were significantly more likely to be influenced by "wearing seemly clothes" (*t*=-2.495, p<0.05), and "not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities" (*t*=-2.146, p<0.05) when deciding to participate in leisure activities than unmarried respondents were. These results can be explained by the fact that married people have wives and daughters who must wear seemly clothes when participating in leisure activities, as well as also having more family and work commitments. Therefore, they were

expected to be influenced more by these factors when compared with unmarried people.

Table 13.4 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation for Different Marital Status

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores		*T*	*P*
	Single N = 70	Married N = 228		
Wearing seemly clothes.	4.97	5.60	- 2.49	0.013
Not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities.	5.45	5.93	-2.14	0.033

13.4.3 The Influence of Income

Table 13.5 shows that only one factor appears to have a statistically significant relationship with income. The respondents with a monthly household income under OMR 500 viewed "social and family support" (*F*=2.989, p<0.05) as a more important religious factor when intending to participate in leisure activities than did those with a monthly household income over OMR 1500.

Table 13.5 Comparison of the Influence of Islamic Teachings on Leisure Participation for Different Income Groups

Islamic Teachings	Mean Scores				*F*	*P*
	Under 500	Over 500 to 1000	Over 1000 to 1500	Over 1500		
Social and family support	5.40	4.94	4.58	3.66	2.98	0.031

These findings together indicate that socio-demographic variables have an influence on religious factors that affect participation in leisure activities. However, surprisingly, the current study did not reveal any differences between participants and nonparticipants which could be attributed to their socio-demographic characteristics.

13.5 The Role of Islamic Teachings in Leisure Participation

This section examines the influence of Islamic teachings on participation in leisure activities (the second part of proposition 4). Thus, binary logistic regression analysis was used to predict the role of Islamic teachings in explaining participation in leisure activities. As mentioned in Chapter 5, both participants and nonparticipants were targeted in the quantitative phase (self-completion questionnaire). The first question in part two of the questionnaire asks respondents: Are you participating in any type of leisure activities now? This question was asked to divide respondents into two groups (participants/ nonparticipants) for comparison purposes at the data analysis stage. This question was used as the dependent variable (the variable to be predicted) in this analysis. Islamic teachings regarding participation in leisure activities and socio-demographics variables were then used together as independent variables. The variables which showed significant influence on leisure participation are presented in Table 13.6 (see Appendix 10).

Table 13.6 Determinants of Leisure Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Islamic Teachings			
Not participating in leisure activities that require mixing between men and women.	0.402	0.003	1.494
Not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling.	-0.338	0.027	0.713
Socio-demographics			
Gender (male).	-0.675	0.042	0.518
Age (18-25 years old).	-1.390	0.041	0.249
Age (26-35 years old).	-1.675	0.008	0.187
Education.	.	0.034	.

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

N= 298; Constant = -0.040; -2 Log Likelihood = 349.532; Chi-square = 63.463***; Pseudo R-square (Nagelkerke) = 0.256; (Hosmer & Lemeshow) = 5.041; (Cox & Snell) = 0.192; Percentage Correct = 66.4%

The results of the binary logistic regression indicated that 5 out of 17 variables were significant in the model, including "not participating in leisure activities that require mixing between men and women", "not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling", gender (male), age (18-25 years old and 26-35 years old), and education. Four of the coefficients were negative, and only one

was positive. The positive coefficient indicates that Omani people are more likely to participate in leisure activities, while the negative coefficients indicate the dependent variable being the dichotomous item for participate/not participate.

These results are consistent with the earlier findings of the qualitative study where respondents clearly expressed the view that Islamic teachings such as "not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law such as gambling"; "not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling"; and, "not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities" influenced and determined their leisure participation. Therefore, the finding of the current study supports proposition 4 (the second part): The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' participation in leisure activities. In this context, it can be noted that these findings are consistent with the findings of Tekin (2011), who also found that sociocultural variables have a stronger influence on the participation of Muslim female students in leisure activities when compared with religious factors.

13.6 Conclusion

This chapter identified the most important Islamic teachings/factors that influence the participation of Omani residents in leisure activities, namely: "not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law such as gambling"; "not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling"; and, "not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities". An analysis of the influence of Islamic teachings on leisure participation for different socio-demographic characteristics indicated that the extent of the influence of Islamic teachings on leisure participation was influenced by socio-demographic variables. For example, the participants with a monthly household income under OMR 500 viewed "social and family support" as a more important religious factor when intending to participate in leisure activities than did those with a monthly household income over OMR 1500. However, the present study did not find any differences between participants and nonparticipants, which could be attributed to

302

their socio-demographic characteristics. Finally, binary logistic regression analysis was conducted to predict the role of Islamic teachings in explaining the participation of Omani residents in leisure activities. The study found that Islamic teachings concerning participation in leisure activities had a significant influence on participation in leisure activities, which supports the other results obtained from both the qualitative and quantitative phases. Thus, proposition 4 (the second part): The Islamic teachings have an influence on Omanis' participation in leisure activities, was supported.

Chapter 14: Conclusion

14.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to provide a conclusion for the present study and recommendations for future research. In the first section, the main findings regarding the study's objectives and propositions will be summarised. The second section will describe Omani outbound travel based on the study findings. Next, practical applications of the present study will also be suggested based on the study findings. The fourth section will highlight the contribution of this thesis to the literature. Finally, the last section will discuss limitations of the current study and suggest recommendations for future research.

14.2 Study Conclusions

The present study was designed to achieve six main objectives through examining eight propositions. To be more specific, this study sought to better understand travel motivation, travel and leisure constraints, travel and leisure negotiation strategies, and the impact of Islamic teachings on destination choice and leisure participation in the context of Omani pleasure tourists and overseas destinations.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the qualitative phase of the study. The main findings identified that "the desire for getting away from daily routine"; "the desire to experience another country"; and, "seeing the culture, traditions and customs of others" were the most important reasons for travel abroad (push motivations), while a "safe and secure destination"; "a desirable climate"; and, "attractive nature" were the most important destination attributes that attracted Omani tourists to choose or visit a specific destination. This study also revealed that constraints such as "lack of money"; "family commitments"; and, "security and safety problems" impeded Omani residents from travelling abroad, whereas constraints such as "work and family commitments"; "dependent children"; "lack of time"; and "lack of opportunities and facilities" inhibited them from participation in leisure activities. In order to overcome the seven perceived travel constraints, participants have used 24 strategies. For example, in order to overcome the lack of money six strategies were adopted: saving money,

cooperation between couples, borrowing money, travelling in a group to reduce travel costs, switching from international to domestic travel, reducing the period of staying abroad, and selling something to provide money for travel. In terms of overcoming the five perceived leisure constraints, Omani residents adopted 12 strategies. For example, in order to overcome the lack of opportunities and facilities, three strategies were adopted: looking for an alternative place, buying the equipment, and turning to alternative activities. On the subject of the influence of Islamic teachings on travel participation, the majority of participants interviewed believe that Islamic teachings had no direct effect on their selection of destinations. However, most of them frequently confirmed that they will consider Islamic teachings when travelling abroad, and will avoid participation in activities prohibited by Islamic law, such as gambling or drinking alcohol. Finally, the effect of Islamic teachings on leisure participation was very clear, especially on female leisure participants. For instance, according to Islamic law, Muslims are not allowed to participate in leisure activities that require mixing between genders. Therefore, participation in such activities would be contrary to the teachings of Islam, and thus eschewing them can be considered as an indirect influence on their leisure participation.

Similarly, the quantitative phase revealed that the items "experience another country"; "learn something new or increase my knowledge"; "experience cultures that are different from my own"; "escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home"; and, "see something new and exciting" were the most important push motivations for Omani outbound tourists. In terms of their pull motivations, the study showed that "safety and security at destination even when travelling alone"; "natural attractions (sea, beach, coral, mountain, lakes, rivers, streams, wildlife, birds)"; "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods"; "ease of communication with local people (language)"; and, "availability of mosques (places of worship)" were the most attractive pull motivations which encourage Omani tourists to visit or choose a specific destination. The quantitative research also indicated that "lack of money" "travel cost is too high"; "work commitments"; "family commitments"; and, "lack of time" were the most important perceived travel constraints, while "lack of facilities" "work commitments"; "household expectations"; "family commitments"; and, "lack of

time and opportunities to participate" were the most important perceived leisure constraints for Omani residents. Regarding negotiation strategies, the study found that the most frequently used strategies and resources that assisted Omani tourists to overcome the effect of travel constraints on travel participation were "saving money"; "finding a companion to travel with"; "thinking about the importance and advantage of travel"; "learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints"; and, "budgeting my money", whereas "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities"; "meeting my family responsibilities early"; "applying what I learned from previous participation"; "finding an appropriate person to engage with"; and, "looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities" were the most frequently strategies and resources that enabled Omani residents to participate in leisure activities. Furthermore, returning to the study propositions posed at the beginning of this study (Chapter 2), it is now possible, according to study findings, to state that:

(1) The push and pull motivation dimensions are applicable to the Omani outbound tourists market and there is a relationship between push and pull travel motivation dimensions (Chapter 6).

(2) Socio-demographic variables have an influence on push and pull travel motivations (Chapter 6).

(3) It is possible to segment Omani outbound tourists based on their travel motivations (Chapter 7).

(4) The Islamic teachings have an <u>indirect influence</u> on Omanis' choice of a pleasure travel destination and a <u>direct influence</u> on participation in leisure activities (Chapters 4, 12 and 13).

(5) The three-dimensional leisure constraints <u>model is not applicable</u> to outbound tourism with regard to Omani travel participation (Chapter 8).

(6) Travel and leisure constraints perceived by Omanis are influenced by socio-demographic variables (Chapters 8 and 9).

(7) Omanis' participation or nonparticipation in overseas travel is a joint outcome of travel motivations and constraints (Chapter 8).

(8) Travel motivation and constraints positively and significantly trigger Omanis' use of negotiation strategies (Chapter 10).

14.3 Omani Outbound Market

This section provides fundamental information about the Omani outbound travel market (statistics, travel motivation, constraints, negotiation strategies, and the impact of Islamic teachings on their destination choice). This information will pave the way to provide suggestions in terms of management implications.

14.3.1 Profile of Omani Outbound Market

According to a descriptive analysis of the Omani outbound travel market, the majority of Omani outbound travellers are aged between 26 to 35 years old (44%). Furthermore, travellers with a bachelor's degree represented the majority of the Omani outbound travel market (59%). The study also revealed that Asian destinations were the favourite travel destinations for Omani travellers (81%). Regarding the length of stay at the destination, the majority of travellers reported staying 7 days (45%). The results indicated that Omani tourists can be classified as "infrequent travellers" (34.5%) who had travelled between three and five times in the previous five years. Finally, people with a monthly household income over OMR 500 and up to 1000 (1 OMR=NZ\$3.447 or US\$2.590, May, 2012) were the largest group amongst Omani outbound tourists (70%).

Figure 14.1 Omani Outbound Travel Market
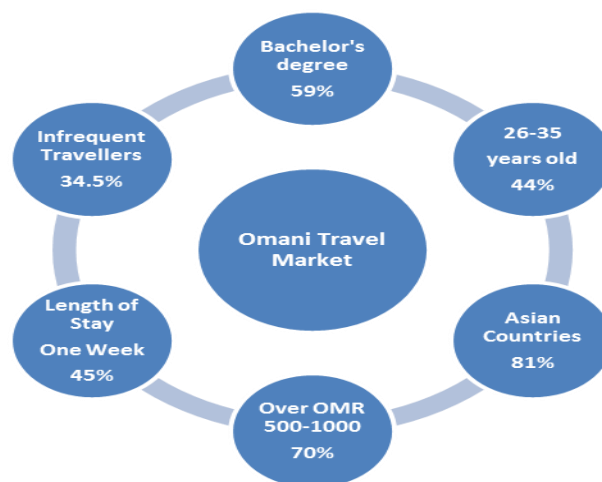
14.3.2 Travel Motivation

The results show that the Omani outbound market is subject to two forces that play a positive role in travel participation: (a) push factors, and (b) pull factors (see Figure 14.2). According to these results, Omani tourists go on holiday to discover new things, participate in social and leisure activities, strengthen relationships with their families/friends, escape from ordinary life, or enjoy luxurious forms of relaxation (see Figure 14.2). They were also attracted to choose or visit a specific destination by security, religious, nature, economic, or cultural factors (see Figure 14.3).

Figure 14.2 Push Factors
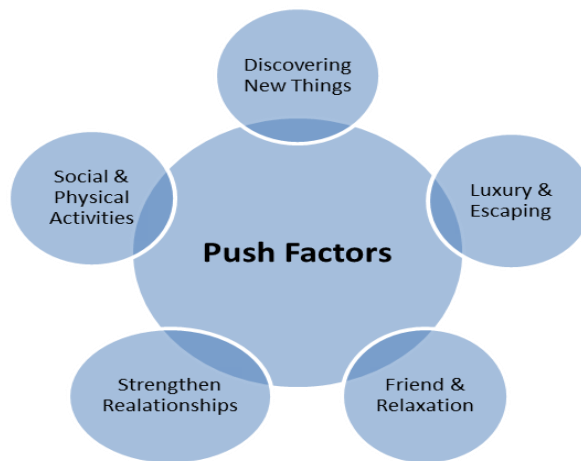
Figure 14.3 Pull Factors
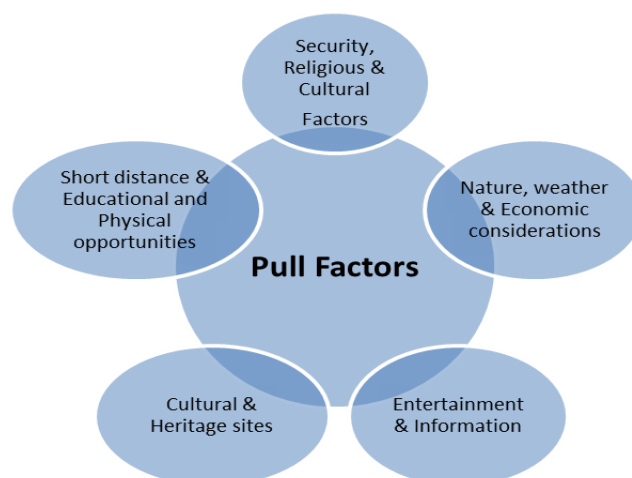
14.3.3 Travel Constraints

On the other hand, the travel desire of Omani people was negatively influenced by four main constraints: (a) financial challenges, (b) family commitments, (c) work commitments, and (d) lack of time (see Figure 14.4).

Figure 14.4 Travel Constrains

14.3.4 Travel Negotiation Strategies

However, Omani people adopted strategies that enabled them to overcome perceived travel constraints. The most frequently adopted strategies and resources were: (a) financial strategies, (b) interpersonal coordination, (c) skills acquisition, (d) time management, and (e) cognitive strategies (see Figure 14.5).

Figure 14.5 Travel Negotiation Strategies
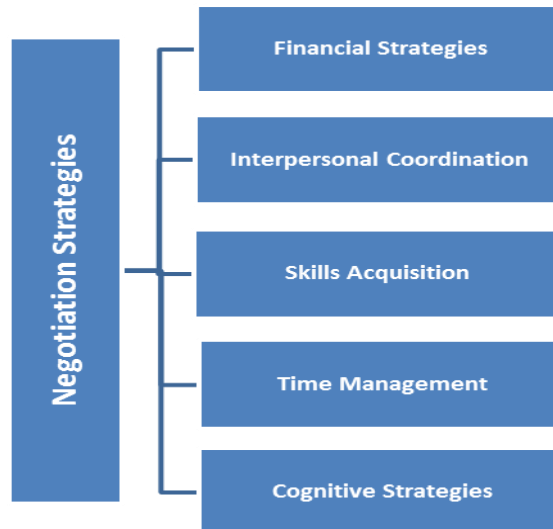
14.3.5 The Influence of Islamic Teachings on Destination Choice

The study found that Omani outbound tourists believe that Islamic teachings: (a) do not prohibit travel to non-Muslim countries; (b) do encourage travel abroad in general; and (c) do not directly affect their tourist destination choice. However, the study also concluded that Islamic teachings had an indirect influence on their travel behaviour. For example, the study revealed that: (1) destination attributes such as "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods"; "availability of mosques (places of worship)"; and, "positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination" were influential factors in destination choice; (2) Islamic teachings will be followed even if the choice was travel to non-Muslim countries; (3) Islamic teachings regarding travel abroad such as "not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday"; and, "having a companion (Mahram)" were the most important Islamic factors that influence destination choice; and, (4) "nightlife and entertainment" was rated as one of the least attractive pull factors, since nightlife and entertainment activities often include activities such as dancing, smoking, drinking alcohol, visiting strip clubs, gambling, and illicit sexual relations, which are clearly forbidden by Islamic teachings. In this context, Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2010) concluded that Islamic teachings play a significant role in public and private life in Muslim nations and its effect extends to all aspects of life, especially in theocracies where the state and religion are indivisible. In these countries, society is ordered in

conformity with the Islamic teachings, which directly and indirectly impact recreation and travel.

Figure 14.6 shows that the influence of Islamic teachings on destination choice was mostly indirect and positive. This influence can be identified as follows: (a) Islamic teachings play a significant role in shaping people's travel motivations which then influence destination choice, and (b) Omani tourists clearly consider the Islamic teachings when choosing and visiting their holiday destination through avoiding participation in activities prohibited by Islamic law, such as gambling, dancing or drinking alcohol.

Figure 14.6 Islamic Teachings & Travel Participation
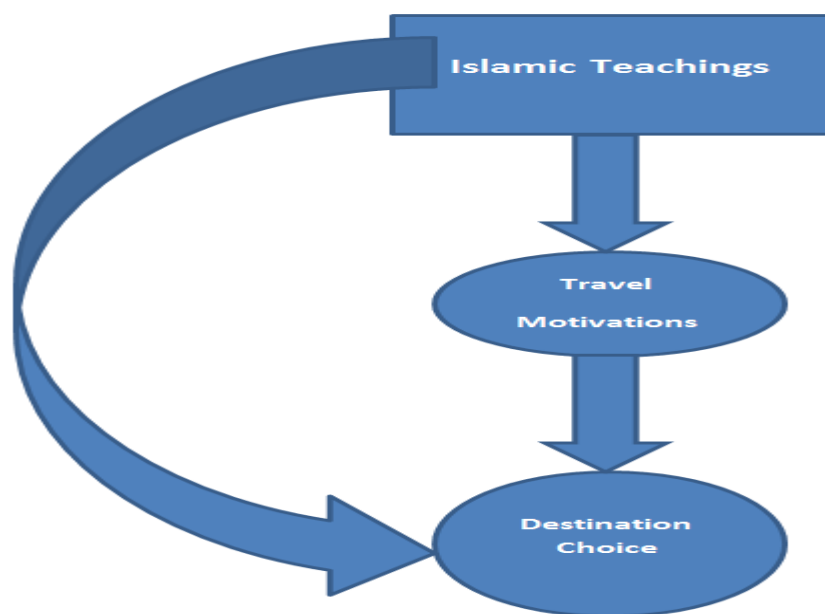
An alternative perspective is that while holiday destinations are considered on the basis of their attributes to meet pull and push motives (which are partly formed in the context of an Islamic culture), the requirements of the Islamic faith will certainly influence the patterns of behaviour at those destinations. From this viewpoint the Islamic faith is less a determinant of actual destination choice, but arguably a determinant of behaviour at the holiday location. This theme is considered in the final section of the next chapter.

14.4 The Reality of Leisure Participation in Oman

The findings from this study show that "lack of facilities"; "work commitments"; "household expectations"; "family commitments"; and "lack of time" were the most influential constraints on Omani residents' participation in leisure activities. However, these constraints were seen to be "negotiable" and can be successfully overcome. The study identified the most frequently used strategies and resources that helped Omani residents to overcome the effect of leisure constraint on participation in leisure activities, namely, "thinking about the advantages of participation in leisure activities"; "meeting my family responsibilities early"; "applying what I learned from previous participation"; "finding appropriate person to engage with"; and, "looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities". In addition, the study results confirmed the influence of socio-demographic variables on both perceived leisure constraints and the use of leisure negotiation strategies.

In terms of the impact of Islamic teachings, the study found that participation in leisure activities has been directly influenced by Islamic teachings. For example, Muslims are recommended to avoid participation in activities that are prohibited by Islamic law, such as gambling, mixing between genders, or drinking alcohol. However, this influence seems to exert a greater influence on Omani women's leisure participation than it does on Omani men's, which can be attributed to the nature of both Arabic and Islamic cultures.

In light of the above findings, the current study could confirm that those encountered constraints that impeded Omani residents from leisure participation are, to a large extent, consistent with the findings of previous studies related to this topic that have been carried out in many different countries around the world (see Chapters 2 and 9). This concurrence gives the impression that the nature of leisure constraints in daily life is global and, therefore, Omani people are not an exception. However, the level of the impact of constraints on participation in leisure activities varies from one country to another and from one culture to another.

14.5 Managerial Implications

Understanding travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists is important for marketing strategies. The research outcomes will assist travel marketers to formulate effective marketing strategies and develop appropriate product plans. In this context, Michile (1986) and Hyde (2007) argued that in order to effectively target any market, it is necessary to obtain accurate information about it. Therefore, since the current study provides empirical findings about the Omani travel market (travel motivation, travel and leisure constraints, travel and leisure negotiation strategies, the impact of socio-demographic variables on travel behaviour, and the impact of Islamic teachings on travel behaviour), several key marketing implications of this study could be of major use to destination marketers and managers in meeting the special needs and expectations of Omani outbound tourists.

14.5.1 Benefitting from the Study Findings Regarding Travel Motivation

The results of this study provide a profile of Omani outbound tourists by gender, age, income, educational level, occupation, and marital status. These variables can be utilised in developing market strategies for the Omani travel market (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009).

Many researchers consider travel motivation as a key determinant of tourist behaviour (choices, needs and preferences) (Mcguiggan, 2004; Andreu et al., 2005). Jang and Cai (2002) went further when suggesting that travel motivations play a major role in predicting future travel patterns. In this context, Kay (2004) and Kim (2007) also concluded that effective promotional programmes and travel packages can be created based on the examination of push and pull factors of targeted travel market. Therefore, in order to effectively target the Omani travel market, it is critical that tourism marketers understand and consider the main reasons that motivate Omani people to travel abroad, such as "experience another country"; "learn something new or increase my knowledge'; "experience cultures that are different from my own"; "escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home"; and, "see something new and exciting" through

developing marketing programmes/strategies that highlight and focus on all these factors.

Furthermore, in order to enhance the effectiveness of a destination's marketing strategies, pull factors such as "safety and security at destination"; "natural attractions"; "availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods"; "ease of communication with local people (language)"; and, "availability of mosques (places of worship)" must be employed by destination marketers and travel agents when developing specific trip information and packages to attract Omani people. At the same time, advertising and promotional programmes could focus on safety and security, diverse images of nature (e.g., beaches, mountains, lakes, rivers, streams, wildlife, and birds), availability of tourist guides who speak Arabic language, and ease of access to centres of religious worship at the destination (Mohsin & Ryan, 1999).

In particular, regarding safety and security at destination, Oh et al. (1995) argued that it is marketers' responsibility to eliminate any concerns about safety and security at their destinations by using campaigns to reassure tourists of the safety of their destinations.

Furthermore, in order to benefit from the results of the current study concerning the importance of the availability of Arabic foods/halal foods at the potential destination, travel marketers and travel agents could focus on the availability of good restaurants and good food by highlighting the availability of Arab-style restaurants, the availability of exotic food, and the availability of halal food at their destinations when targeting Omani travellers. For example, Hassan and Awang (2009) argued that New Zealand can be promoted as an attractive destination for Muslim tourists owing to the high volume of meat that is slaughtered in accordance with the Islamic laws (80% of sheep and 50% of cattle). However, they also revealed that Muslim travellers still find difficulty when searching for halal food in New Zealand. These findings confirm the need to adopt and implement the above suggestions.

In the same context, the study revealed that Omani tourists were significantly attracted to choose or visit destinations where local people have positive attitudes towards Islamic and Arabic cultures. Therefore, destination marketers and travel

314

agents could also highlight tolerance values of local people towards Arabic tourists. For example, using Arabic words such as (أهلاً وسهلاً = welcome) in travel brochures and advertisements will be well received and interpreted by Arab people as signs of acceptance and tolerance of their culture. Um and Crompton (1990) suggested that attitudes of individuals are influential factors in destination choice.

Understanding differences amongst tourists would assist the tourism and hospitality industry to develop and design appropriate marketing strategies (Mattila et al., 2001). Therefore, given that Omani male travellers were more motivated by "social and physical activities" to travel abroad than were Omani female travellers, destination and tourism managers could incorporate diverse images of sports and social events/activities such as skiing and mountain climbing, and some forms of nightlife and entertainment activities (e.g., restaurants, cinemas, snooker and billiards, and bowling) in travel brochures and advertisements in order to attract the attention of Omani male travellers. They could also provide lists of sporting events and social activities such as cultural and art festivals that will take place in a tourist destination and the locations of leisure activities and social events which could be visited by Omani male travellers. In the same context, owing to the fact that Omani female travellers were more likely to be attracted to choose or visit a specific destination by "security, religious and cultural factors", as well as "nature, weather and economic considerations" than Omani male travellers were, destination marketers and travel agents should emphasise the level of safety and security, diverse images of cultural and heritage sites, diverse images of nature attractions, and a variety of shopping facilities (e.g., shopping centres, shopping villages, fashion stores, shopping malls, gift shops, and shopping festivals) in their tourism destinations. They could also make available maps pinpointing directions to natural attractions and scenic views at their destinations in order to encourage female travellers to visit them (Hallab, Price & Fournier, 2006). These promotional activities can be supported by web based promotions including the use of social media.

According the study results, senior people were strongly motivated to travel abroad by the desire to enjoy relaxation. Consequently, tourism marketers and

travel agents should focus on comfort and luxury factors when targeting them. On the other hand, they could offer special discounts for students such as group discounts, family travel discounts, vouchers, early booking specials, and student airfare discounts, since the youngest people were significantly influenced by economic considerations such as "a variety of shopping places"; "reasonable priced goods and services"; and, "favourable currency exchange rates" when choosing their holiday destinations.

Finally, the study found that potential travellers viewed factors such as "strengthen relationships" and "cultural and heritage sites" as the most important reasons for travelling abroad. Hence, destination marketers and travel agents should employ these factors in marketing strategies that aim to motivate Omani people to travel abroad.

14.5.2 Benefitting from the Study Findings Regarding Market Segmentation

In order to increase their share of Omani visitors and achieve a sustainable competitive advantage, travel marketers should: (1) understand the needs and wants of each market segment; (2) develop marketing strategies that consider the differences amongst Omani outbound tourists; and, (3) customise their products and services to fit the special needs of each market segment. The current study identified four motivational clusters for Omani outbound tourists using cluster analysis: quiet seekers, seekers of new things, multipurpose seekers, and seekers of culture and nature. Table 14.1 provides a description of each cluster/group and the marketing suggestions that can be adopted by travel companies to effectively target each travel market segment. It is noteworthy that the following marketing suggestions are based on the special travel motivations and socio-demographic characteristics of each travel group/cluster (for more details see Chapter 7).

Table 14.1 Omani Travel Groups & Marketing Strategies

Omani Travel Groups	Marketing Suggestions
1. Quiet seekers: • They had the weakest motivations to travel abroad. • Have no interest in travelling abroad. • They represented the smallest group.	• Focus on the importance and advantages of travelling abroad. • Create travel packages that include finishing visa and travel procedures by the travel companies. • Use slogans that encourage people to travel abroad.
2. Seekers of new things: • Motivated by the desire to experience new things: nature, weather, culture luxury & being away from home. • They represented the largest group.	• Focus on nature, culture and weather and the opportunities of being away from a hot environment. • Highlight the differences between Oman and their destinations. • Use images that imply experiencing new things.
3. Multipurpose seekers: • Motivated by multiple purposes. • They were willing to experience everything. • They had the strongest motivations to travel abroad.	• Create travel packages that include doing various activities. • Attract them through economic offers. • Use slogans that encourage people to revisit the destination.
4. Seekers of culture and nature: • Attracted by the availability of cultural activities and natural attractions. • They are well educated. • Had the highest percentage of young travellers.	• Highlight cultural activities at destination. • Use images that highlight natural and cultural aspects. • Focus on activities that attract young travellers.

14.5.3 Benefitting from the Study Findings Regarding Constraints

Gladwell and Bedini (2004) argue that it is very important for travel marketers to know what factors prevent their customers from travelling abroad. In this context, Johanson (2007), and Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2009) also suggest that destination and tourism managers must eliminate or minimise the constraints to travelling by particular groups. According to the current study findings, financial challenges, lack of time, family and work commitments were the strongest barriers that prevented Omani residents from travelling abroad. First, in order to be competitive and help potential tourists to overcome their financial challenges,

travel companies should create travel packages which encourage Omani people to: (1) travel in groups to reduce the travel costs; (2) drive or take the train instead of flying from city to city during their holiday; (3) look for the best exchange rates; (4) book travel packages at a discount; and, (5) benefit from group discounts. Furthermore, in order to assist potential tourists to overcome lack of time and work and family commitments, airlines, travel companies and travel agents could: (1) create travel packages targeting employees who get long annual holidays, such as teachers who enjoy eight weeks' paid annual holiday; (2) tailor travel packages to fit the available time for a specific group of targeted residents, such as college students who get their holiday only in summer; (3) offer travel packages at a discount where families can get better pricing and service for larger groups; and, (4) design short travel packages that include visiting many tourist attractions and participating in various activities within a short period of time away from home (Nyaupane & Anderek, 2008).

14.5.4 Benefitting from the Study Findings Regarding the Impact of Islamic Teachings

According to Euromonitor International (2007), there is a significant boom in halal tourism in the Middle East. Therefore, there is a need to create halal tourism products and services to meet the special needs and expectations of this dynamic and emerging market (Halbase, 2012). In this context, Weiermair (2000) and Hsu et al. (2009) argued that understanding what motivates a tourist to choose a specific destination is central in developing appropriate travel marketing strategies. Thus, based on the study findings regarding the influence of Islamic teachings on travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists, the current study suggests that travel companies that target the Omani travel market must: (a) highlight the availability of halal food at destinations (Mohsin & Ryan, 1999); (b) provide a guide to indicate the location of halal food outlets at their destinations; (c) serve halal meals that do not include pork or alcohol; (d) put a prayer rug and a pointer towards Mecca in hotel rooms that receive Muslim guests; (e) allocate separate swimming pools and spa facilities for men and women; (f) offer travel packages that take account of Muslim considerations and meet Muslim needs; (g) employ people who speak Arabic to provide translation services and other

assistance that may be needed by travellers from Muslim/Arab countries; (h) provide Islamic information, such as prayer times, mosque and halal food locations, on their websites, (Hashim, Murphy & Muhammed, 2012); (i) refrain from using images in travel brochures and ads that imply nudity, sexually suggestiveness or sexual relationships; (j) omit images that imply that tourists are invited to visit destinations to engage in sexual relationships, dancing, or drinking alcohol; and (k) use images that imply religious tolerance and positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at the destination. It is acknowledged that images of holiday destinations affect destination choice as well as repeat visitation (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Qu & Leong, 2003; Beerli & Martin, 2004). In this context, Yaapar (2005) pointed out that Muslims in Malaysia were not satisfied with the promotional campaigns that marketed countries on international news networks by using images of men and women in skimpy swimsuits cuddling and hugging on the beach. Halbase (2012) concluded that it is necessary to consider the special needs of Muslim tourists, and therefore, Muslim travellers should not be targeted in the same way as non-Muslim travellers. Rice and Al-Mossawi (2002) confirmed that religious beliefs can affect Muslims' behaviour and their response to advertising messages. An empirical research study revealed that "ardent" Muslims tended to be more concerned about advertising of gender/sex related products (Fam et al., 2004; Muhamad, 2008).

14.6 Contribution to the Literature

The current study contributed to the travel behaviour literature by using both qualitative and quantitative methods to investigate the Omani travel market. The present findings add to our understanding of the role of Islamic teaching/factors in shaping travel and leisure behaviour of Omani outbound tourist in general, and destination choice and leisure participation in particular. The results have specifically indicated that gender differences undoubtedly exist in Omani Islamic society, but respondents of both sexes seek, at least within limits, to negotiate the restrictions they feel. In many ways, however, most of these restrictions are not specifically Islamic. For example, the presence of young children and the need to care for them and meet their needs are ever-present factors in the lives of many parents in different cultures. Equally, the issues of morality about holiday taking

have been voiced in Western countries by religious leaders such as the former Archbishop of Canterbury, Rowan Williams (2006), who has queried whether the environmental degradation that results from travelling can be justified by a pursuit of pleasure activities.

Nonetheless, it is contended that the study findings would constitute an important source of information for future work in international tourism marketing, especially for travel marketers who aim to target the Muslim/Arab travel market in general, and the Omani travel market in particular. The findings of the current study also enhanced our understanding of the travel motivations, travel and leisure constraints, travel and leisure negotiation strategies, and the influence of these variables on travel and leisure participation. The current study provides a managerial implication that will aid the travel and leisure industries that target Muslim travel markets through its insights into the travel motivations, impact of Islamic teachings on choosing a tourist destination, travel and leisure constraints, and travel and leisure negotiation strategies. Finally, the findings of this study and its research instrument should open the door to carry out further, more extensive studies on travel behaviour in the Arab/Muslim world.

14.7 Limitations

Regarding the limitations of data collected, a convenience sample method was adopted for this study, and so does not meet the requirements of a randomised sample. This sample method was chosen because: 1) it is the easiest way to recruit respondents; 2) in an exploratory study, it is very helpful to gather basic data and trends concerning research problems without any complications, when compared with using a randomised sample; and, 3) it is very useful in terms of exploring relationships among different variables (Castillo, 2009). On the other hand, the convenience sample method has been criticised on the basis of sampling bias, which makes the sample unrepresentative of the entire population. This possible bias means the results obtained from such a sample cannot be generalised to the whole population (Sharon, 1999; Castillo, 2009). However, the deficiencies associated with both convenience and quota sampling data collection techniques, such as bias, can be overcome, or at least their influence minimised, by adopting a mixed method approach, as was done in the current study by collecting data

regarding the research objectives through in-depth interviews as well as a self-completion questionnaire survey (Hartmann, 1988; Kaplan & Duchon, 1988; Al-masroori, 2006). Additionally, as the sample of Omani outbound tourists was recruited from across the 11 Omani governorates, and its participants included those with diverse backgrounds, gender, incomes, occupations, ages, degree of qualification, and relationship status, a case can be made for it having the characteristics of a quota sample of Omanis. In particular, the researcher targeted data from all the Omani governorates, in order to obtain as representative a sample as possible of the overall Omani community, which enabled him to generalise the results of this study. In conclusion, the deficiencies of a convenience sample method should not be considered insurmountable obstacles, especially when researchers are using various methods to collect data to avoid weaknesses associated with each method if applied alone. This mode of triangulation maximises the reliability and validity of research findings (Dennis & Valacich, 2001).

There remain, however, other limitations. Both researcher and respondents worked within the conventions of an Islamic society and those conventions were not challenged. This element of the study does pose a challenge for future research, for it requires an empathetic approach by a researcher who would try to probe more deeply into holiday behaviours that would be generally regarded as contrary to conventional Islamic beliefs. This line of investigation, in a society such as Oman's, would be a sensitive issue. Yet there exists anecdotal evidence (albeit supported with much empirical evidence) of Muslim tourists, especially it seems young men from high income families, enjoying the benefits of high income in activities such as frequenting casinos and night clubs in Western cities. To what extent these activities are restricted to a small clique, or represent the tip of a larger proclivity to enjoy "entertainments" tolerated by a more secular Western society is not known. Currently though, the thesis does represent a benchmark study as research of this nature in GCC countries is still relatively embryonic in the tourism literature.

14.8 Recommendations for Future Research

It is hoped that the outcomes of the current study will assist researchers and practitioners in enhancing their understanding of the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists. However, the current study did not aim to investigate: (a) specific tourism decision-making processes; (b) domestic tourism; (c) travel satisfaction; (d) influence of Omani governorates on study variables and, (e) inbound tourism. Therefore, it is recommended that new research be undertaken in the following areas: (1) understanding the decision-making process of Omani residents; (2) examining motivation for domestic tourism; (3) identifying Omani tourists' satisfaction level with outbound tourism; (4) determining whether there are significant differences in travel behaviour which could be attributed to governorate differences; and, (5) investigating travel motivation for inbound tourism. In addition, as stated in the previous section, the actualities of tourist behaviour could also be studied in more detail. Finally, in order to benefit from the findings of the current study, the researcher also recommends analysing travel marketing strategies that target Omani residents, in order to find out whether the current strategies take into consideration the unique expectations and special needs of Omani tourists.

14.9 Reflections of Research – Lessons from this Study and Questions for Future Research

The doctoral research process as a journey of learning is not only about a given subject, but is also a process of learning about research methods and something about the researcher's own views.

The research process began in a context of a relative lack of literature about Islamic attitudes toward tourism, and a degree of caution about what would be considered as too challenging to an Islamic worldview. Owing to the fact that significant changes have occurred in Islamic societies during the last decade regarding the degree of the influence of Islam on Muslims' daily lives in general, and on their travel behaviours in particular, future research should now seek to better explore more contentious issues that may challenge traditional mind sets,

and to further explore differences between accepted and less acceptable behaviours. Among these issues are:

a) The role of unaccompanied female travel, and travel by females without male companions. This behaviour is condoned to some degree by halal practices that relate to searching for knowledge, and travelling for health reasons, but the issue goes beyond that as it relates to an acceptance of a meritocracy based on skills, predispositions, and intellectual and other energies rather than simply a societally traditional allocation of roles based on gender. In this context, within the Arab world some of the Islamic teachings that relate to women's travel are being challenged by some Muslim women. For example, many Muslim female students are travelling overseas to study for years without having a Mahram. Therefore, the question of how does an Islamic society become part of a contemporary world in which many females regard travel as an inherently normal mode of behaviour and thereby would reject the Islamic and cultural conditions imposed on their travel arrangements? Tourism is part of the modern world. – Does an Islamic society embrace change, seek to compromise with (post)-modernity or reject contemporary norms and, thereby, adhere to Islamic and cultural values? What is required perhaps is non-violent discussion, as these are the issues inherent in the Arab Spring, which unfortunately has descended into chaos in too many Arab countries at the time of writing.

b) Do Omani tourists actually have more in common with tourists from other countries, and are these commonalities more important than the differences? To be a good Muslim is an inherent personal choice that can be sustained by avoidance of the unlawful−the lawful patterns of behaviour permit many different modes of behaviour that are simply, at best, lawful and are, at worst, a rejection of the unlawful. Thus, the Muslim traveller can seek beautiful landscapes, places of difference and so on just as any other tourist does. As different countries increasingly move to common practices that reassure the Islamic tourist that they welcome Muslims, the accreditation of places as halal no longer becomes a

distinguishing feature, how might the Omani tourist wishing to visit a non-GCC or other Islamic states be unique?

c) The current study used both in-depth interviews and a self-completion questionnaire to obtain an understanding of the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists. However, given the complexity and sensitivity of the issues involved in the current study, as well as the nature of Islamic societies, would using alternative methods of data collection such as observation or focus groups improve the reliability and validity of the obtained findings? Further, would the nature of the cultural and traditional values of the Islamic societies allow the use of such methods to collect data? What is required, perhaps, is thinking seriously about using such methods in future research to discover behaviours and to gather in-depth attitudes and beliefs within Islamic societies.

d) On the basis of my own personal observations, it cannot be denied that some Muslims travel to do what they cannot do in their home countries, such as drinking alcohol, taking drugs, or gambling. Therefore, their answers regarding their travel behaviours are likely to be influenced by the wish to provide socially desirable answers. In this context, any future research in this area should take seriously the gap between what some Muslims may say about their travel behaviours and what they actually did when they were away from their home countries. There is a lack of research about this issue, as well as other related issues such as haram behaviour. For example, to what extent does a perceived rigidity in many Islamic societies actually make some forbidden behaviours attractive?

e) There is no doubt that the economic, political, or social conditions in any country play a significant role in shaping or directing the attitudes and the general behaviour of its citizens in general, and their travel and leisure behaviour in particular. However, this fact is strongly present in the Arab world, since most of its countries belong to the developing countries group. For example, as a result of the conflict between Arabs and Israelis, the majority of the Arab countries are prohibiting their citizens from visiting Israel. Therefore, the choice of a pleasure travel destination is

influenced not only by the needs and wants of the individual, but by many other factors that contribute to the final decision. Therefore, when interpreting Muslims' travel behaviour, the reality of their social, cultural, or political contexts should not be ignored.

f) Finally, from my personal observations, there are differences in the travel behaviours as well as the interests of some Muslim travellers, especially men, according to the type of trip (travel with or without family). On the one hand, when they are travelling alone or with their friends, they care less about the issues of halal and haram; on the other hand, halal and haram issues become priorities and are very important when they are travelling with their families and children. Therefore, the influence of Islamic teachings on their travel behaviours varies according to the type of trip. In this context, future research in this area should not ignore this contradiction in behaviour when examining the travel behaviours of Muslim travellers.

Overall, the current study sought to obtain answers to difficult and sensitive questions within a difficult environment. I feel confident in saying that the current study provided new and valuable knowledge about the travel and leisure behaviour of Omani outbound tourists, as well as the impact of Islamic teachings on their travel and leisure behaviour. As is well known, good research is always raising new questions and it opens the door to conducting new studies. It may seem at first glance that the study limitations or recommendations restrict or underestimate the contribution of the current study. However, in fact, (1) the study limitations have been explicitly stated to provide clarity for future researchers and destination marketers and managers with the truth about how the current findings were generated. This will enable them to decide the extent to which they can use and rely on them; and, (2) the study recommendations provide future researchers with the real gaps and issues that have appeared during or after conducting the current study. In doing so future researchers are being alerted as to these gaps, and the need to address them in ways currently not being done. Hence, from a developmental perspective, the current research, new as it is, nonetheless simply represents a

stage in a process as we move to better understanding motives and behaviours of specifically outbound Omani tourists, and more generally, of Islamic tourists. It is a process that I hope to make further future contributions.

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Appendix 1 The Questionnaire (English version)

The Questionnaire of the Travel Behaviour of Omani Outbound Tourists

The University of Waikato

Waikato Management School

This survey is for my doctoral degree in Tourism and Hospitality Management at the University of Waikato, New Zealand, and is about the travel behaviour of Omani outbound tourists. The questionnaire should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time during the survey. Your name and address is not required and all data are anonymous. Any queries about this survey can be directed to Professor Chris Ryan at xxxxxxxxxxxx. Thank you very much for your time.

Researcher: Abdulaziz Mohammed Alsawafi

E-mail: **xxxxxxxxxx, Ph: xxxxxxxx (Oman)**

Section One: General Information Relating to Your Travel:

Part One:

1. Have you been abroad for a holiday/sightseeing?   Yes ☐   No ☐

If the answer is "Yes", please go to Question 2

If the answer is "No", please go to Question 7

2. Where did you spend your last trip away from home? Asia-bound ☐ Europe-bound ☐ America-bound ☐ Africa-bound ☐ Oceania-bound ☐

3. For how many nights were you away from home? One week ☐ Tow weeks ☐ Three Weeks ☐ Four Weeks ☐ More than four weeks ☐

4. In total how many times have you traveled to an overseas country in the last five years? 0 □   1-2 □   3-5 □   6-10 □   >10 □

5. To what extent did you enjoy your last holiday?

I definitely did not enjoy □   I did not enjoy □   I neither enjoyed nor did not enjoy □

I enjoyed □   I definitely enjoyed □

6. To what extent did the constraints on holiday affect your holiday plans?

Definitely did not affect my plans □ Did not affect my plans □ Neither affected nor did not affect □ Affected my plans □ Definitely affected my plan

7. Do you have a plan to travel abroad within the next 12 months? Yes □   No □

8. (If yes) which destination (s) do you want to go to? Asia-bound □ Europe-bound □ America-bound □ Africa-bound □ Oceania-bound □

9. (If no) what is **the main constraint** that inhibits you from traveling abroad? _____.

Part Two: Please answer all these questions:

10. Are you participating in any types of leisure activities now? Yes □   No □

11. (If yes) what types of leisure activities do you participate in? In-door□   Out-door □

12. (If no) what is the **main constraint** that inhibits you from taking part in leisure? ------------.

13. Islam prohibited travel to non-Muslim countries?

 Agree □   I have no idea□   Disagree □

Section Two: Reasons for travelling overseas

The following indicate some general reasons/motivations as to why people travel abroad. Could you please indicate how important they are to you by using the following scale:

1=of no importance

2=slightly important

3=of some importance

4=moderately important

5=important

6=very important

7=extremely important

1. **Please circle one number for each statement that represents your opinion.**

Q.1. I travel abroad to …

1) See something new and exciting	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
2) Experience cultures that are different from my own	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
3) See how other people live and their way of life	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
4) Physically rest and relax	**1 2 3 4 5 67**
5) Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
6) Experience luxury things and nice food	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
7) Participate in physical activity	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
8) Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
9) Visit relatives and friends	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
10) Learn something new or increase my knowledge	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
11) Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
12) Visit places friends haven't been to	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
13) Meet people who are interested in the same things	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
14) Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
15) Visit a place recommended by friends	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
16) Mix with fellow tourists	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
17) Talk about my travel experiences after returning home	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
18) Experience another country	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

Section Three: Below is a list of features and attractions. Could you please indicate how attractive they are to you by using the following scale:

1=of no attraction

2=slightly attractive

3=of some attraction

4= moderately attractive

5=attractive

6= very attractive

7=extremely attractive

2. **Pull Factors** (destination attributes): **Please circle one number for each statement that represents your opinion.**

Q.1. I am attracted to specific destinations because they offer …

1) Museums/art galleries/ local crafts/ handiwork	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Historical, military, or archeological sites (i.e. fort and castle)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Unique/different cultural groups	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Outdoor activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Proximity to Oman (short distance)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6) Different climate than that at home	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7) Natural attractions	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8) Favorable currency exchange rates	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9) Nightlife and entertainment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10) Availability of information about the destination	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11) Education opportunities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12) Facilities for physical activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13) Reasonably priced goods and services	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14) A variety of shopping places	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15) Availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16) Positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17) Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18) Availability of mosques (places of worship)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19) Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20) Ease of communication with local people (language)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section Four: Below is a list of reasons for not travelling overseas. Could you please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1=strongly disagree

2=disagree

3= somewhat disagree

4=neither agree nor disagree

5=somewhat agree

6=agree

7=strongly agree

1. Please circle one number of each statement that represents your opinion

Q1. The main barriers or problems that I encountered when deciding to travel abroad were:

1) Lack of interest	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Lack of information	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Stress and anxiety	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Health problems	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Safety concerns (personal safety)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6) Lack of skills (language barrier)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7) Negative attitudes towards Muslims/Arabs	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8) Difficulty of finding friend or family member to travel with	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9) My partner is not interested in travelling	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10) Others do not have the money	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11) Others do not have the time	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12) 12) Lack of time and opportunities to travel	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13) 13Financial challenges (a lack of money)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14) 14)Family commitments	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15) 15)Work commitments	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16) Visa procedure	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17) Travel cost is too high	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18) Having dependent children	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section Five: Below is a list of reasons for not participating in leisure activities. Could you please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1=strongly disagree

2=disagree

3= somewhat disagree

4=neither agree nor disagree

5=somewhat agree

6=agree

7=strongly agree

1. Leisure constraints that inhibit people from taking part in leisure activities. Please circle one number of each statement that represents your opinion

Q1. The main barriers or problems that inhibit me from taking part in leisure activities:

1) Lack of interest	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Lack of information	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Stress and anxiety	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Health problems	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Fear of injury	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6) Lack of skills or physical ability	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7) Traditional gender stereotype	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8) Difficulty of finding friend or family member to participate with	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9) Partner is not interested in participating	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10) Others do not have the money	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11) Others do not have the time	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12) Lack of time and opportunities to participate	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13) Financial challenges (a lack of money)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14) Family commitments	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15) Work commitments	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16) Lack of facilities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17) Household expectations	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18) Clothing and equipment are too expensive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section Six: Travel negotiation strategies

Below is a list of various strategies and/or resources that assist people to overcome or reduce the effect of travel constraints. Could you please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1=strongly not representative

2= not representative

3= somewhat not representative

4=neither representative nor not representative

5=somewhat representative

6= representative

7=strongly representative

1. Travel negotiation strategies: Please circle one number of each statement that represents your opinion.

Q1. Thinking about the main travel constraints that I encountered, some of things that I used to overcome or reduce the negative effect of these constraints were:

1) Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
2) Thinking about the importance and advantages of travel	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
3) Ignoring disapproval of others	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
4) Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
5) Travel is a top priority	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
6) Compromising on my plan to travel abroad	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
7) Planning ahead for travel	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
8) Organizing my time early	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
9) Saving money	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
10) Borrowing money	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
11) Choosing inexpensive destination	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
12) Budgeting my money	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
13) Travelling with people of my own gender	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
14) Finding companion to travel with	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
15) Changing my plans and travelling to closer countries	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
16) Travelling alone or in group	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
17) Looking for someone to look after my children while I am travelling abroad	
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18) Reducing the period I spend abroad	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
19) Travelling with person who speaks other languages	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

20) Travelling with people who have similar interests	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21) Looking for alternative things to do instead of travelling	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22) Applying what I learned from travelling abroad	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23) Learning new skills that assist me in overcoming constraints	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section Seven: Leisure negotiation strategies

Below is a list of various strategies and/or resources that assist people to overcome or reduce the effect of leisure constraints. Could you please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1=strongly not representative

2= not representative

3= somewhat not representative

4=neither representative nor not representative

5=somewhat representative

6= representative

7=strongly representative

1. Leisure negotiation strategies: Please circle one number of each statement that represents your opinion.

Q1. Thinking about the main leisure constraints that I encountered, some of things that I used to overcome or reduce the negative effect of these constraints were:

1) Ignoring the problem and not thinking about it	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Thinking about advantages of participation in leisure activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Ignoring disapproval of others	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Reappraisal of the situation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Participating in leisure activities is a top priority	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6) Compromising on my plan to participate in leisure activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7) Ignoring the community structure/cultural traditions	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8) Planning ahead for participation in leisure activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9) Organizing my time early	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10) Saving money	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11) Borrowing money	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12) Choosing inexpensive leisure activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13) Budgeting my money	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14) Participating with people of my own gender	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15) Finding appropriate person to engage with	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16) Looking for someone to look after my children while I am participating in leisure activities	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
17) Reducing the period I spend at work	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
18) Participating with people who have similar interests	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
19) Making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
20) Applying what I learned from previous participation	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
21) Altering the timing and frequency of participation	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
22) Changing some aspect of my lifestyle to fulfill requirements of participation in leisure activities	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
23) Looking for family/social support to participate in leisure activities	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
24) Meeting my family responsibilities early	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
25) Participating in leisure activities with my family members only	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

Section Eight: The influence of Islamic teachings on travel behaviour

Below is a list of statements regarding the influence of Islamic teachings on the choice of a pleasure travel destination. Could you please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1=strongly disagree
2=disagree
3= somewhat disagree
4=neither agree nor disagree
5=somewhat agree
6=agree
7=strongly agree

1. The influence of Islamic teachings on the choice of a pleasure travel destination. Please circle one number for each statement that reflects your opinion.

Q.1. I think that my choice of a pleasure travel destination is influenced and determined by …

1) Islamic teachings concerning travelling to non-Islamic countries	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
2) Muslim scholars' opinion (fatwa) regarding travelling to non-Islamic countries	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
3) Official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture at the potential destination	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
4) Availability of Halal food at the potential destination	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**
5) Official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil) at the potential destination	**1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

378

6) Availability of mosques (places of worship) at the potential destination

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7) Existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8) The level of moral corruption at the potential destination **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

9) Having companion (Mahram) **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

10) Not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

Section Nine: The influence of Islamic teachings on travel behaviour

Below is a list of statements regarding the influence of Islamic teachings on the participation in leisure activities. Could you please indicate to what extent you agree with each statement by using the following scale:
1=strongly disagree
2=disagree
3= somewhat disagree
4=neither agree or disagree
5=somewhat agree
6=agree
7=strongly agree

1. The influence of Islamic teachings on the participation in leisure activities.

Please circle one number for each statement that reflects your opinion.

Q.1. I think that my participation in leisure activities is influenced and determined by…

1) Islamic teachings concerning participation in leisure activities **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

2) Muslim scholars' opinion (fatwa) regarding participating in leisure activities

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3) Social and family support **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

4) Gender stereotypes in Muslim society **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

5) Wearing seemly clothes **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

6) Not participating in leisure activities that require mixing between men and women **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

7) Not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

8) Not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

9) Not participating in leisure activities that involve a high level of risk
                                                                          1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10) Not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited

by Islamic law such as gambling   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

Section Ten: The relationship among variables

Below is a list of statements regarding the relationship among variables. Could you please indicate to what extent do you agree with each statement by using the following scale:

1=strongly not representative
2= not representative
3= somewhat not representative
4=neither representative or not representative
5=somewhat representative
6= representative
7=strongly representative

1. The relationship among variables: Please circle one number for each statement that represents your opinion.

Q.1. I think that …

1) My <u>travel motivations</u> stimulate me to adopt negotiation strategies to overcome the constraints that impede my participation   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

2) My <u>leisure motivations</u> stimulate me to adopt negotiation strategies to overcome the constraints that impede my participation   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

3) <u>Travel constraints</u> did not completely impede my desire to travel abroad

                                                                          1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4) <u>Leisure constraints</u> did not completely impede my desire to participate in leisure activities   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

5) <u>The travel negotiation strategies</u> which I used in the past were effective and enabled me to travel abroad   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

6) <u>The leisure negotiation strategies</u> which I used in the past were effective and enabled me to participate in leisure activities   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

7) Islamic teachings regarding <u>travelling abroad</u> do not represent obstacles to my choosing any destination   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

8) Islamic teachings regarding <u>participating in leisure activities</u> do not represent obstacles to my taking part in any leisure activities   **1 2 3 4 5 6 7**

Section Eleven: Demographic Information

This section is for classification and research purposes only. All the information that you provide will be kept confidential in accordance with the rules regulated by the Ethics Committee of the University of Waikato. Your name and address are not required. (Please tick only one appropriate number).

<u>Q1. Your gender:</u>   1. Male ☐   2. Female ☐

Q2. Your age:

1. 18-25 years old ☐

2. 26-35 years old ☐

3. 36-49 years old ☐

4. 50-64 years old ☐

<u>Q3. Your relationship status:</u> 1. Single ☐   2. Married ☐

Q4. Your educational level:

1) Uneducated
2) Elementary school
3) High school
4) Diploma
5) Bachelor's degree
6) Master's and doctoral degree

Q5. Your income:

1. Under OR 500 ☐

2. Over OR 500 TO OR 1000 ☐

3. Over OR 1000 TO OR 1500 ☐

4. Over OR 1500 ☐

Q6. Your occupation:

Public servant ☐ Private sector ☐ Student ☐ Housewife ☐ Retired ☐

Businessman ☐ Other ☐

<u>Q7. Do you have children</u>: Yes ☐ No ☐

If you have any comments you might like to make about holidays and leisure activities – please use the space below:

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP WHICH IS MUCH APPRECIATED

Appendix 2 The Questionnaire (Arabic version)

جامعة ويكاتوا، نيوزلندا

كلية الإدارة

هـذا الاستبيان جزء مـن دراستي للحصول على درجـة الدكتوراه في تخصص إدارة السياحة والضيافة مـن جامعة ويكاتوا بنيوزلندا. الاستبيان يهدف إلى جمع بيانات تتعلق بسلوكيات السفر لدى السائح العماني المسافر للخارج لغرض السياحة. إكمالك لهذا الاستبيان قد يستغرق حوالي النصف ساعة. مشاركتك في الإجابة على أسئلة هـذا الاستبيان تطوعية؛ لـذا يمكنك الانسحاب وعدم الإجابة على أي سؤال في أية لحظة. للعلم أن البيانات المتعلقة بالاسم والعنوان غير مطلوبة، كما أن كل البيانات التي ستدلي بها سوف يتم التعامل معها بسرية تامة، ولن تستعمل إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط. إن كان هناك أية استفسارات تتعلق بهذا الاستبيان يُرجى توجيهها للباحث أو المشرف على الدراسة، البروفسور: كريس ريان، على البريد الإلكتروني التالي: xxxxxxxxxxxx . شكرا على مشاركتك القيمة في إنجاح هذه الدراسة.

الباحث: عبدالعزيز بن محمد بن سليم الصوافي

البريد الإلكتروني: xxxxxxxxxxxxx

القسم الأول: معلومات عامة تتعلق بسفرك:

الجزء الأول:

1) هل سبق وان سافرت للخارج ؟   نعم ☐   لا   ☐

إذا كانت إجابتك بـ " نعم " أنتقل للسؤال رقم : 2

إذا كانت إجابتك بـ " لا " أنتقل للسؤال رقم : 7

2) أين قضيت أخر رحلة لك خارج السلطنة ؟ _____

3) كم يوم قضيتها في أخر رحلة لك خارج السلطنة ؟

4) إجمالاً : كم مرة سافرت خارج السلطنة للسياحة في أخر خمس سنوات ؟

5) إلى أي مدى استمتعت وكنت راضيا عن أخر رحلة لك خارج السلطنة :

☐ غير راضٍ عنها بقوة   ☐ غير راضٍ   ☐ راضٍ وغير راضٍ   ☐ راضٍ   ☐ راضٍ عنها بقوة

6) إلى أي مدى أثرت عوائق السفر على خططك للسفر للسياحة :

☐ لم تؤثر أبدا   ☐ لم تؤثر   ☐ أثرت ولم تؤثر   ☐ أثرت   ☐ أثرت بقوة

7) هل لديك نية للسفر للخارج للسياحة خلال لأثنى عشر شهرا القادمة ؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

8) إذا كانت إجابتك: نعم، فإلى إي بلد ترغب أن تسافر ؟

383

9) إذا كانت إجابتك: لا، فما العائق أو السبب الرئيسي الذي يمنعك من السفر للخارج للسياحة ؟

الجزء الثاني:

10) هل تشارك في أي أنشطة ترويحية أو رياضية في وقت فراغك ؟ □ نعم   □ لا

11) إذا كانت إجابتك: نعم، ما هي الأنشطة التي تمارسها أو تشترك بها في وقت فراغك ؟

12) إذا كانت إجابتك: لا، ما العائق أو السبب الرئيسي الذي يمنعك من المشاركة أو ممارسة الأنشطة التي ترغب بها في وقت فراغك ؟

13) هل تتفق مع هذه العبارة : "الإسلام يُحرم السفر للسياحة إلى الدول غير الإسلامية".

□ أتفق معها   □ ليس لدي فكرة عن رأي الإسلام حول هذه النقطة   □ لا أتفق

القسم الثاني: الأسباب والدوافع لسفرك للخارج للسياحة.

العبارات التالية تتضمن الأسباب/ الدوافع التي تدفع الناس للسفر للخارج للسياحة. الرجاء تحديد مستوى الأهمية التي تمثلها هذه العبارات بالنسبة لك، من خلال استخدام المقياس التالي:

1 = أبداً غير مهم

2 = إلى حد ما مهم

3 = له بعض الأهمية

4 = أهمية متوسطة

5 = مهم

6 = مهم جداً

7 = مهم جداً جداً

1– الرجاء وضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُمثل رأيك.

	س1/ أسافر للخارج من أجل ..
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	1– رؤية أشياء جديدة ومثيرة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	2– التعرف على ثقافات مختلفة عن ثقافتي
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	3– التعرف على الكيفية التي يعيش الآخرون بها والتعرف على أسلوبهم في الحياة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	4– الراحة النفسية والاسترخاء
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	5– الهروب عن الروتين اليومي والابتعاد عن الجو المنزلي
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	6– تجربة حياة الرفاهية والوجبات الفاخرة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	7– المشاركة في الأنشطة الرياضية الجسدية
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	8– الالتقاء مع أشخاص ذو خلفيات ثقافية مختلفة ومتنوعة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	9– زيارة الأهل والأقارب
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	10– تعلم أشياء جديدة لتوسيع معارفي
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	11– تقوية علاقاتي وروابطي الأسرية

7 6 5 4 3 2 1	12– زيارة الأماكن التي لم يزرها احد من أصدقائي من قبل
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	13– الالتقاء مع أشخاص لديهم نفس اهتماماتي وميولي
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	14– قضاء وقتي بدون أي قلق بخصوص دراستي أو عملي
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	15– زيارة الدول التي أوصاني أصدقائي بزيارتها
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	16– الاختلاط مع السياح القادمون من دول مختلفة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	17– التحدث عن تجاربي في السفر بعد عودتي
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	18– الرغبة في التعرف على بلدان أخرى

القسم الثالث: الأسباب والدوافع لاختيار وجهة سياحية بعينها.

العبارات التالية تتضمن الأسباب/ الدوافع التي تدفع الناس الاختيار وجهة سياحية بعينها للسفر إليها. الرجاء تحديد مستوى الجذب التي تمثلها هذه العبارات بالنسبة لك، من خلال استخدام المقياس التالي:

1 = غير جذابة

2 = جذابة بشكل بسيط

3 = جذابة إلى حد ما

4 = جذابة بشكل متوسط

5 = جذابة

6 = جذابة جداً

7 = جذابة بشكل كبير جداً

1– الرجاء وضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُمثل رأيك.

	س1/ أنا أختار وجهة سياحية بعينها لكي أسافر إليها لأنها تتميز ب ...
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	1– المتاحف/ الأعمال الحرفية/ المعارض الفنية
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	2– المواقع التاريخية والعسكرية والهندسية كالقلاع والحصون
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	3– الجماعات الثقافية المختلفة والمتميزة والنادرة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	4– الأنشطة التي تمارس في الهواء الطلق
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	5– قربها من السلطنة (المسافة القريبة)
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	6– طقسها مختلف عن الطقس الحار في السلطنة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	7– المواقع الطبيعية الجذابة
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	8– سعر الصرف المناسب
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	9– الحياة الليلية والترفيه والتسلية
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	10– توافر معلومات سياحية كافية ودقيقة عنها
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	11– الفرص التعليمية
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	12– توفر التسهيلات الخاصة بممارسة الأنشطة الرياضية
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	13– الأسعار المعقولة للسلع والخدمات

14– التنوع في أماكن التسوق	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
15– توافر الطعام الحلال	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
16– المواقف الإيجابية نحو الثقافة الإسلامية لدى السكان المحليين	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
17– المواقف الإيجابية نحو الثقافة العربية لدى السكان المحليين	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
18– وجود دور العبادة (المساجد)	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
19– الأمن والأمان	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
20– سهولة التواصل مع السكان المحليين (اللغة)	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	

القسم الرابع: عوائق السفر للخارج.

في الأسفل مجموعة من العوائق والأسباب التي تمنع الإنسان من السفر للخارج للسياحة. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى تنطبق هذه العبارات عليك من خلال استخدامك للمقياس التالي:

1 = لا اتفق بقوة معها

2 = لا أتفق

3 = إلى حد ما لا اتفق

4 = أتفق ولا اتفق

5 = إلى حد ما أتفق

6 = أتفق

7 = أتفق بقوة معها

1– الرجاء ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُعبر عن رأيك.

س1/ العوائق والمشاكل التي واجهتها عندما رغبت في السفر للخارج بغرض السياحة ...		
1– قلة الاهتمام والرغبة بالسفر	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
2– نقص المعلومات	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
3– الضغط والقلق	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
4– المشاكل الصحية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
5– القلق الأمني (السلامة الشخصية)	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
6– نقص المهارات (عدم إتقان اللغة الأجنبية)	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
7– الاتجاهات السلبية نحو العرب والمسلمين في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
8– صعوبة العثور على الشخص المناسب لكي أسافر معه	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
9– شريكي (زوجي أو زوجتي) لا يشجعني على السفر	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
10– الآخرين ليس لديهم المال الكافي للسفر	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
11– الآخرين ليس لديهم الوقت اللازم للسفر	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
12– قلة الوقت المتاح والفرص المتوفرة أمامي للسفر	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	

13– التحديات المالية (نقص المال)	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
14– الالتزامات العائلية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
15– الالتزامات الخاصة بالعمل أو الدراسة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
16– الإجراءات المعقدة للحصول على الفيزة السياحية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
17– التكاليف المرتفعة للسفر للسياحة للخارج	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	
18– لدي أطفال صغار يحتاجون لرعايتي	7 6 5 4 3 2 1	

<u>القسم الخامس: عوائق ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات الفراغ.</u>

في الأسفل مجموعة من العوائق والأسباب التي تمنع الإنسان من المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات الفراغ. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى تنطبق هذه العبارات عليك من خلال استخدامك للمقياس التالي:

1 = لا اتفق بقوة معها

2 = لا أتفق

3 = إلى حد ما لا اتفق

4 = أتفق ولا اتفق

5 = إلى حد ما أتفق

6 = أتفق

7 = أتفق بقوة معها

1– الرجاء ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُعبر عن رأيك.

س1/ العوائق والمشاكل التي تواجهني عندما أرغب في المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات فراغي...	
1– قلة الاهتمام بممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
2– نقص المعلومات عن أماكن ممارسة الأنشطة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
3– التوتر والقلق والخوف من ممارسة الأنشطة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
4– المشاكل الصحية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
5– الخوف من الإصابة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
6– عدم تمكني من المهارات اللازمة لممارسة الأنشطة الرياضية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
7– النظرة التقليدية والسلبية حول ممارسة المرأة للأنشطة الرياضية	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
8– صعوبة العثور على الشخص المناسب لكي نمارس النشاط الرياضي معا	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
9– شريكي (الزوج أو الزوجة) لا يشجعني على ممارسة الأنشطة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
10– الآخرين ليس لديهم المال الكافي لممارسة الأنشطة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
11– الآخرين ليس لديهم الوقت اللازم لممارسة الأنشطة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
12– نقص الوقت اللازم والفرص المتاحة أمامي لممارسة الأنشطة	7 6 5 4 3 2 1
13– التحديات المالية (نقص المال)	7 6 5 4 3 2 1

<div align="center">387</div>

7 6 5 4 3 2 1	14– الالتزامات العائلية	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	15– الالتزامات الخاصة بالعمل والدراسة	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	16– نقص التسهيلات والأماكن المخصصة لممارسة الأنشطة	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	17– الالتزامات الخاصة بالأسرة	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	18– الملابس والمعدات الخاصة بممارسة الأنشطة غالية جداً	

القسم السادس: الإستراتيجيات والوسائل المستخدمة للتغلب على عوائق السفر.

في الأسفل قائمة بالإستراتيجيات والوسائل التي يستخدمها الناس للتغلب على العوائق التي تمنعهم من السفر للخارج للسياحة. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى استخدمت أو تبنيت هذه الإستراتيجيات للتغلب على العوائق التي تمنعك من السفر من خلال استخدامك للمقياس التالي:

1= لا أستخدمها مطلقاً

2= لا أستخدمها

3= إلى حد ما لا استخدمها

4= استخدمها ولا استخدمها

5= إلى حد ما استخدمها

6= استخدمها

7= استخدمها بقوة

1– الرجاء ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُعبر عن رأيك.

س1/ عندما أسترجع العوائق التي واجهتني عندما رغبت في السفر للخارج للسياحة ، أتذكر الوسائل والإستراتيجيات التي استخدمتها للتغلب عليها لكي أتمكن من السفر ...		
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	1– أتجاهل المشاكل ولا أفكر بها	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	2– أفكر بإيجابية حول فوائد السفر	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	3– أتجاهل عدم رضا الآخرين عن سفري	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	4– أتجاهل الثقافة السلبية السائدة في المجتمع حول السفر للخارج	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	5– أعتبر السفر أولوية بالنسبة لي	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	6– أقوم بتعديل خططي للسفر	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	7– أخطط للسفر بشكل مبكر	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	8– أنظم وقتي مبكرا لأجد الوقت اللازم للسفر	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	9– أقوم بتوفير المال اللازم للسفر	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	10– أقوم بأخذ سلفه لكي أدبر المصاريف اللازمة للسفر	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	11– أختار البلدان ذات التكاليف المنخفضة	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	12– أنظم ميزانيتي بشكل دقيق لتوفير المال	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	13– أسافر مع أشخاص من نفس جنسي (ذكور/إناث)	
7 6 5 4 3 2 1	14– أحاول العثور على الشخص المناسب لأسافر معه	

15– أسافر إلى دول قريبة من السلطنة لتقليل التكلفة   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

16– أسافر بمفردي أو ضمن مجموعة لتقليل مصاريف السفر   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

17– أحاول العثور على قريب ليعتني بأطفالي أثناء سفري   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

18– أقلل من المدة التي أقضيها في السفر لتقليل المصاريف   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

19– أسافر مع أشخاص يتحدثون اللغات الأخرى   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

20– أسافر مع أشخاص لديهم نفس اهتماماتي   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

21– أبحث عن أشياء بديلة للقيام بها بدلا من السفر   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

22– استخدم ما تعلمته من مهارات من سفراتي السابقة   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

23– أتعلم مهارات جديدة كي تساعدني على التغلب على عوائق السفر   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

القسم السابع: الإستراتيجيات والوسائل المستخدمة للتغلب على عوائق المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة.

في الأسفل قائمة بالإستراتيجيات والوسائل التي يستخدمها الناس للتغلب على العوائق التي تمنعهم من المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات الفراغ. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى استخدمت أو تبنيت هذه الإستراتيجيات للتغلب على العوائق التي واجهتك ومنعتك من المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات فراغك من خلال استخدامك للمقياس التالي:

1= لا أستخدمها مطلقاً

2= لا أستخدمها

3= إلى حد ما لا استخدمها

4= استخدمها ولا استخدمها

5= إلى حد ما استخدمها

6= استخدمها

7= استخدمها بقوة

1– الرجاء ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُعبر عن رأيك.

س1/ عندما استرجع العوائق التي واجهتني ومنعتني من المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية، أتذكر بعض الأمور التي قمت بها وساعدتني على التغلب عليها والحد من تأثيرها السلبي...

1– أتجاهل المشاكل ولا أفكر بها   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

2– أفكر بإيجابية حول فوائد ممارسة الأنشطة الرياضية على الصحة   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

3– أتجاهل اعتراضات الآخرين ونظرتهم السلبية من ممارسة الأنشطة الترفيهية   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

4– أقوم بإعادة تقييم الوضع   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

5– أعتبر المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية أولوية بالنسبة لي   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

6– أعدل خططي لكي تتوافق مع الأوقات المناسبة لممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

7– أتجاهل التقاليد الاجتماعية المعارضة لممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات الفراغ   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

8– التخطيط المسبق لإيجاد الوقت اللازم للمشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية   7 6 5 4 3 2 1

9– أنظم وقتي بشكل مبكرا لكي أتمكن من المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10– توفير المال من أجل المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11– أستلف المال من اجل ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12– أختار المشاركة في الأنشطة الغير مكلفة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13– أنظم ميزانيتي بشكل دقيق لتوفير المال اللازم لممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14– أمارس الأنشطة الترويحية مع أشخاص من نفس جنسي (ذكور/إناث)   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15– العثور على الشخص المناسب لكي نشارك معا في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16– أبحث عن قريب لي لكي يعتني بأطفالي أثناء ممارستي للأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17– التقليل من الوقت الذي أقضيه في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18– أمارس الأنشطة الترويحية مع أشخاص لهم نفس اهتماماتي   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19– أتعلم مهارات جديدة لكي أتمكن من ممارسة أنشطة جديدة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20– استفيد مما تعلمته من مهارات وخبرات أثناء ممارساتي السابقة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21– تعديل أو تغيير وقت ممارستي للأنشطة الترويحية أو تقليل عدد مراتها   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22– تعديل بعض جوانب حياتي لكي أتمكن من ممارسة الأنشطة التي أحبها   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23– أبحث عن الدعم والتشجيع العائلي للمشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية المحببة لي   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24– أنجز مهامي الأسرية مبكراً لكي أتمكن من ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية المحببة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25– أشارك في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية مع أفراد عائلتي فقط أو داخل المنزل فقط   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

القسم الثامن: تأثير تعاليم الدين الإسلامي على سلوكيات السفر.

في الأسفل مجموعة من العبارات التي تتعلق بمدى تأثير تعاليم الدين الإسلامي على اختيار الوجهة السياحية. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى تتفق مع هذه العبارات من خلال استخدام المقياس التالي:

1 = لا اتفق بقوة معها

2 = لا أتفق

3 = إلى حد ما لا اتفق

4 = أتفق ولا اتفق

5 = إلى حد ما أتفق

6 = أتفق

7 = أتفق بقوة معها

1– تأثير تعاليم الدين الإسلامي على اختيار الوجهة السياحية. الرجاء ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي تعتقد أنه يُعبر عن رأيك.

س1/ أعتقد أن اختياري للوجهة السياحية يتأثر ب ...

1– تعاليم الدين الإسلامي حول السفر للسياحة إلى الدول غير الإسلامية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2– فتاوى علماء المسلمين حول السفر للسياحة إلى الدول غير الإسلامية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3– الموقف الرسمي والشعبي من الإسلام والمسلمين في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4– مدى توفر الطعام الحلال في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5– الموقف الرسمي والشعبي من لبس الحجاب في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6– وجود المساجد في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7– وجود الجاليات الإسلامية في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8– مستوى الفساد الأخلاقي في البلد الذي أنوي زيارته   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9– وجود المحرم (المرافق الشرعي)   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10– عدم الانغماس في الأنشطة المحرمة أثناء سياحتي في الدول غير الإسلامية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

القسم التاسع: تأثير تعاليم الدين الإسلامي على المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية.

في الأسفل مجموعة من العبارات التي تتعلق بمدى تأثير تعاليم الدين الإسلامي على المشاركة في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات الفراغ. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى تتفق مع هذه العبارات من خلال استخدام المقياس التالي:

1 = لا اتفق بقوة معها

2 = لا أتفق

3 = إلى حد ما لا اتفق

4 = أتفق ولا اتفق

5 = إلى حد ما أتفق

6 = أتفق

7 = أتفق بقوة معها

1– تأثير تعاليم الدين الإسلامي على في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات الفراغ. الرجاء ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي تعتقد أنه يُعبر عن رأيك.

س1/ أعتقد أن مشاركتي في الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات فراغي تتأثر ب ...

1– تعاليم الدين الإسلامي حول المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2– فتاوى علماء المسلمين حول المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3– الدعم والتشجيع الأسري   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4– النظرة السائدة في المجتمع من ممارسة المرأة للأنشطة الترويحية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5– التقيد بارتداء الملابس المحتشمة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6– عدم المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية التي تتضمن الاختلاط بين الجنسين   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7– عدم المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية التي تتضمن شرب الخمور والقمار والمراهنة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8– عدم المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية على حساب مسؤولياتي العائلية   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9– عدم المشاركة في الأنشطة الترويحية التي تتضمن مستوى عالي من المخاطرة   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10– عدم تضييع وقتي ومالي وجهدي في أنشطة محرمة من قبل الدين الإسلامي   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

في الأسفل مجموعة من العبارات التي تتعلق بالعلاقة بين مجموعة من المتغيرات المرتبطة بسلوكيات السفر لدى السائح العُماني. الرجاء حدد إلى أي مدى تتفق مع هذه العبارات من خلال استخدامك للمقياس التالي:

1 = لا اتفق بقوة معها

2 = لا أتفق

3 = إلى حد ما لا اتفق

4 = أتفق ولا اتفق

5 = إلى حد ما أتفق

6 = أتفق

7 = أتفق بقوة معها

1– العلاقة بين المتغيرات: ضع دائرة حول الرقم المقابل لكل عبارة والذي يُمثل رأيك.

س1/ أعتقد أن ...

1–	دوافعي للسفر تدفعني بقوة لاستخدام وتبني استراتيجيات ووسائل وابتكار حلول مثالية للتغلب على العوائق التي تمنعني من السفر للخارج للسياحة 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2–	دوافعي لممارسة الأنشطة تدفعني بقوة لاستخدام وتبني استراتيجيات ووسائل وابتكار حلول مثالية للتغلب على العوائق التي تمنعني من ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3–	عوائق السفر لا تمنعني بشكل كلي وكامل من السفر للخارج من اجل السياحة 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4–	عوائق ممارسة الأنشطة لا تمنعني بشكل كلي من ممارسة الأنشطة التي ارغب بها 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5–	الإستراتيجيات والوسائل والحلول التي استخدمتها في الماضي للتغلب على عوائق السفر كانت فعالة ومكنتني من السفر للخارج للسياحة 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6–	الإستراتيجيات والوسائل والحلول التي استخدمتها في الماضي للتغلب على عوائق ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية كانت فعالة ومكنتني من ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية في أوقات فراغي 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7–	تعاليم الدين الإسلامي المتعلقة بالسفر للخارج للسياحة لا تُمثل عائق أمام اختياري للوجهة السياحية التي أرغب بزياراتها 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8–	تعاليم الدين الإسلامي المتعلقة بممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية لا تُمثل عائق أمام مشاركتي في ممارسة الأنشطة الترويحية التي أرغب بها 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

هذا القسم يهدف للحصول على بيانات عامة تهدف إلى توفير معلومات إحصائية. للعلم كل المعلومات التي سيتم الحصول عليها سوف يتم التعامل معها بسرية تامة طبقاً للقوانين والأنظمة المعمول بها في جامعة ويكاتوا. كما أن البيانات المتعلقة بالاسم والعنوان غير مطلوبة.

الرجاء وضع علامة (×) على المربع الذي يُعبر عن حالتك.

1– الجنس : ذكر ☐ أنثى ☐

2– العمر :
أ– من 18 إلى 25 سنة ☐
ب– من 26 إلى 35 سنة ☐
ج– من 36 إلى 49 سنة ☐
د– من 50 إلى 64 سنة ☐
3– الحالة الاجتماعية : أعزب ☐ متزوج ☐

4– المستوى التعليمي:
أ– غير متعلم ☐
ب– إبتدائية عامة ☐
د– ثانوية عامة ☐
هـ– دبلوم ☐
و– بكالوريوس ☐
ز– ماجستير ودكتوراه ☐

5– الدخل الشهري :
أ– أقل من 500 ريال ☐
ب– أكثر من 500 ريال إلى 1000 ريال ☐
ج– أكثر من 1000 ريال إلى 1500 ريال ☐
د– أكثر من 1500 ريال ☐
6– وظيفتك :
أ– القطاع العام ☐
ب– القطاع الخاص ☐
ج– طالب ☐
د– ربة منزل ☐
هـ– متقاعد ☐

393

و– أعمال حرة ☐

ز– أخرى ☐

7– <u>هل لديك أطفال</u> : نعم ☐   لا ☐

شكرا على مشاركتك القيمة في هذه الدراسة

Appendix 3 Item-total Correlation for Push Factors

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
See something new and exciting	75.0671	243.012	.399	.416	.800
Experience cultures that are different from my own	74.8859	243.112	.498	.651	.795
See how other people live and their way of life	75.2081	245.236	.439	.537	.798
Physically rest and relax	75.2517	253.455	.161	.151	.818
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home	74.9060	247.809	.372	.377	.802
Experience luxury things and nice food	76.6980	246.919	.322	.377	.805
Participate in physical activity	77.5705	249.269	.339	.371	.804
Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations	76.0805	240.734	.453	.500	.797
Visit relatives and friends	75.7148	249.700	.249	.413	.810
Learn something new or increase my knowledge	74.7785	242.611	.557	.527	.793
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	75.2483	244.881	.377	.448	.802
Visit places friends haven't been to	76.3826	237.463	.441	.410	.798
Meet people who are interested in the same things	76.6309	239.554	.482	.473	.795
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	75.1611	243.987	.407	.356	.800
Visit a place recommended by friends	76.2483	242.282	.430	.381	.798
Mix with fellow tourists	76.7752	243.602	.389	.403	.801
Talk about my travel experiences after returning home	76.2785	238.922	.443	.357	.797
Experience another country	74.5369	245.502	.465	.506	.797

Appendix 4 Item-total Correlation for Pull Factors

	Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Museums/art galleries/ local crafts/ handiwork	94.8523	290.025	.367	.504	.851
Historical, military, or archaeological sites (i.e. fort and castle)	94.7584	289.349	.375	.560	.851
Unique/different cultural groups	95.2148	290.593	.341	.316	.852
Outdoor activities	95.4128	282.311	.457	.315	.847
Proximity to Oman (short distance)	95.0705	288.530	.366	.229	.851
Different climate than that at home	93.7886	287.063	.470	.470	.847
Natural attractions	93.2517	290.728	.485	.524	.847
Favourable currency exchange rates	94.4128	278.142	.565	.485	.843
Nightlife and entertainment	95.4295	291.411	.255	.291	.858
Availability of information about the destination	94.4295	280.051	.564	.442	.843
Education opportunities	95.1577	285.352	.385	.372	.851
Facilities for physical activities	95.9530	290.409	.324	.462	.853
Reasonably priced goods and services	94.0906	284.123	.516	.404	.845
A variety of shopping places	93.9329	286.541	.452	.443	.848
Availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods	93.4329	288.637	.525	.587	.846
Positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination	93.8154	283.929	.529	.769	.845
Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination	93.9329	284.049	.542	.745	.844

Availability of mosques (places of worship)	93.7785	284.463	.481	.518	.846
Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	93.0201	290.660	.497	.609	.847
Ease of communication with local people (language)	93.5772	285.666	.500	.477	.846

Appendix 5 Determinants of Travel Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Travel Constraints			
Lack of interest	0.265	0.014	1.303
Lack of information	-0.076	0.571	0.927
Stress and anxiety	0.187	0.204	1.205
Health problems	-0.035	0.779	0.966
Safety concerns (personal safety)	-0.105	0.440	0.901
Lack of skills (language barrier)	0.002	0.986	1.002
Negative attitudes towards Muslims/Arabs	0.005	0.972	1.005
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to travel with	0.203	0.077	1.226
My partner is not interested in travelling	-0.172	0.117	0.842
Others do not have the money	0.113	0.467	1.120
Others do not have the time	-0.235	0.133	0.791
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	0.094	0.528	1.099
Financial challenges (a lack of money)	-0.006	0.975	0.994
Family commitments	0.160	0.366	1.174
Work commitments	-0.063	0.683	0.939
Visa procedure	0.070	0.600	1.073
Travel cost is too high	0.422	0.033	1.525
Having dependent children	-0.095	0.420	0.909
Sociodemographics			
Gender (Male)	-1.432	0.005	0.239
Age		0.323	
Marital status	1.042	0.108	2.834
Education		0.437	
Income		0.262	

Occupation			0.680	
Children		-0.222	0.709	0.801

Appendix 6 The Role of Constraints and Motivations in Explaining Participation

Model (1)

Motivations	Model 1		
	B	**Sig**	**Exp**
See something new and exciting	-0.091	0.471	0.913
Experience cultures that are different from my own	-0.073	0.686	0.930
See how other people live and their way of life	-0.124	0.432	0.884
Physically rest and relax	-0.087	0.317	0.917
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home	0.129	0.381	1.138
Experience luxury things and nice food	-0.103	0.384	0.902
Participate in physical activity	-0.020	0.887	0.980
Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations	0.076	0.583	1.079
Visit relatives and friends	0.073	0.525	1.076
Learn something new or increase my knowledge	-0.122	0.516	0.885
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	0.072	0.605	1.075
Visit places friends haven't been to	0.086	0.458	1.090
Meet people who are interested in the same things	-0.023	0.877	0.978
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	0.047	0.727	1.048
Visit a place recommended by friends	0.125	0.397	1.133
Mix with fellow tourists	-0.316	0.032	0.729
Talk about my travel experiences after returning home	-0.065	0.586	0.937
Experience another country	-0.518	0.004	0.595
Museums/art galleries/ local crafts/ handiwork	0.218	0.228	1.243
Historical, military, or archeological sites (i.e. fort and castle)	0.212	0.515	1.129
Unique/different cultural groups	0.218	0.093	1.243
Outdoor activities	-0.110	0.348	0.896
Proximity to Oman (short distance)	-0.086	0.491	0.918

Different climate than that at home	-0.173	0.319	0.841
Natural attractions	0.496	0.032	1.642
Favorable currency exchange rates	0.151	0.332	1.163
Nightlife and entertainment	-0.57	0.602	0.945
Availability of information about the destination	-0.134	0.375	0.875
Education opportunities	-0.109	0.386	0.897
Facilities for physical activities	0.266	0.082	1.305
Reasonably priced goods and services	0.034	0.810	1.035
A variety of shopping places	-0.010	0.944	0.990
Availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods	-0.061	0.770	0.941
Positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination	0.020	0.937	1.020
Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination	0.358	0.151	1.430
Availability of mosques (places of worship)	-0.402	0.011	0.669
Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	0.025	0.908	1.026
Ease of communication with local people (language)	0.193	0.233	1.213

(Model 2)

	Model 2		
Motivations	**B**	**Sig**	**Exp**
See something new and exciting	-0.090	0.566	0.914
Experience cultures that are different from my own	-0.024	0.920	0.976
See how other people live and their way of life	-0.250	0.252	0.779
Physically rest and relax	-0.289	0.016	0.749
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home	0.277	0,169	1.319
Experience luxury things and nice food	-0.140	0.395	0.869
Participate in physical activity	0.140	0.436	1.151
Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations	0.336	0.063	1.399
Visit relatives and friends	-0.004	0.981	0.996
Learn something new or increase my knowledge	-0.264	0.265	0.768
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	0.017	0.921	1.017

401

	B	Sig	Exp
Visit places friends haven't been to	0.204	0.212	1.226
Meet people who are interested in the same things	-0.003	0.987	0.997
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	-0.083	0.651	0.921
Visit a place recommended by friends	0.275	0.140	1.316
Mix with fellow tourists	-0.596	0.003	0.551
Talk about my travel experiences after returning home	-0.119	0.382	0.888
Experience another country	-0.898	0.000	0.407
Museums/art galleries/ local crafts/ handiwork	0.103	0.647	1.108
Historical, military, or archeological sites (i.e. fort and castle)	0.293	0.204	1.340
Unique/different cultural groups	0.269	0.120	1.308
Outdoor activities	-0.096	0.537	0.909
Proximity to Oman (short distance)	-0.266	0.129	0.767
Different climate than that at home	-0.030	0.912	0.971
Natural attractions	0.733	0.038	2.082
Favorable currency exchange rates	0.157	0.426	1.170
Nightlife and entertainment	-0.039	0.785	0.961
Availability of information about the destination	0.069	0.716	1.071
Education opportunities	-0.201	0.222	0.818
Facilities for physical activities	0.174	0.398	1,190
Reasonably priced goods and services	0.042	0.834	1.042
A variety of shopping places	-0.055	0.754	0.947
Availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods	0.044	0.870	1.045
Positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination	0.043	0.895	1.044
Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination	0.478	0.132	1.612
Availability of mosques (places of worship)	-0.785	0.000	0.456
Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	0.205	0.445	1.227
Ease of communication with local people (language)	0.285	0.156	1.329
Sociodemographics	**B**	**Sig**	**Exp**

	B	Sig	Exp
Gender	-1.579	0.016	0.206
Age	-2.102	0.045	0.122
Marital Status	1.459	0.065	4.301
Education	.	0.173	.
Income	.	0.185	.
Occupation	.	0.282	.
Children	-1.057	0.150	0.347

Model (3)

Travel Constraints	Model 3		
	B	Sig	Exp
Lack of interest	0.289	0.003	1.335
Lack of information	-0.099	0.379	0.906
Stress and anxiety	0.161	0.199	1.175
Health problems	0.041	0.702	1.041
Safety concerns (personal safety)	-0.070	0.548	0.932
Lack of skills (language barrier)	0.065	0.570	1.068
Negative attitudes towards Muslims/Arabs	-0.060	0.605	0.941
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to travel with	0.200	0.051	1.221
My partner is not interested in travelling	-0.103	0.282	0.902
Others do not have the money	0.046	0.723	1.047
Others do not have the time	-0.182	0.174	0.834
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	0.163	0.201	1.177
Financial challenges (a lack of money)	-0.023	0.883	0.977
Family commitments	0.177	0.255	1.193
Work commitments	-0.061	0.655	0.941
Visa procedure	0.033	0.770	1.034
Travel cost is too high	0.387	0.023	1.472

Having dependent children	-0.185	0.044	0.831

Model (4)

Travel Constraints	Model 4		
	B	Sig	Exp
Lack of interest	0.265	0.014	1.303
Lack of information	-0.076	0.571	0.927
Stress and anxiety	0.187	0.204	1.205
Health problems	-0.035	0.779	0.966
Safety concerns (personal safety)	-0.105	0.440	0.901
Lack of skills (language barrier)	0.002	0.986	1.002
Negative attitudes towards Muslims/Arabs	0.005	0.972	1.005
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to travel with	0.203	0.077	1.226
My partner is not interested in travelling	-0.172	0.117	0.842
Others do not have the money	0.113	0.467	1.120
Others do not have the time	-0.235	0.133	0.791
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	0.094	0.528	1.099
Financial challenges (a lack of money)	-.006	0.975	0.994
Family commitments	0.160	0.366	1.174
Work commitments	-0.063	0.683	0.939
Visa procedure	0.070	0.600	1.073
Travel cost is too high	0.422	0.033	1.525
Having dependent children	-0.095	0.420	0.909
Sociodemographics	B	Sig	Exp
Gender	-1.432	0.005	0.239
Age	.	0.323	.
Marital Status	1.042	0.108	2.2834
Education	.	0.437	.

	B	Sig	Exp
Income	.	0.262	.
Occupation	.	0.680	.
Children	-0.222	0.709	0.801

Model (5)

	Model 5		
Motivations	**B**	**Sig**	**Exp**
See something new and exciting	-0.100	0.503	0.905
Experience cultures that are different from my own	-0.100	0.655	0.905
See how other people live and their way of life	-0.147	0.443	0.863
Physically rest and relax	-0.164	0.140	0.848
Escape from the ordinary or routine environment at home	0.260	0.157	1.297
Experience luxury things and nice food	-0.166	0.245	0.847
Participate in physical activity	0043	0.802	1.044
Meet people from many ethnic backgrounds/nations	0.238	0.157	1.269
Visit relatives and friends	0.126	0.386	1.135
Learn something new or increase my knowledge	-0.186	0.421	0.831
Strengthen relationships with my spouse/family/friends	0.083	0.624	1.087
Visit places friends haven't been to	-0.039	0.788	0.962
Meet people who are interested in the same things	0.023	0.900	1.023
Spend my time without worrying about my study/work	-0.182	0.310	0.834
Visit a place recommended by friends	0.275	0.145	1.317
Mix with fellow tourists	-0.491	0.009	0.612
Talk about my travel experiences after returning home	-0.016	0.918	0.984
Experience another country	-0.536	0.014	0.585
Museums/art galleries/ local crafts/ handiwork	0.317	0.149	1.373
Historical, military, or archeological sites (i.e. fort and castle)	0.148	0.502	1.160
Unique/different cultural groups	0.227	0.129	1.255
Outdoor activities	-0.217	0.125	0.805
Proximity to Oman (short distance)	-0.117	0.455	0.889

Different climate than that at home	-0.206	0.347	0.813
Natural attractions	0.404	0.174	1.498
Favorable currency exchange rates	0.051	0766	1.052
Nightlife and entertainment	-0.073	0.592	0.929
Availability of information about the destination	-0.070	0.692	0.932
Education opportunities	-0.179	0.303	0.836
Facilities for physical activities	0.225	0.178	1.291
Reasonably priced goods and services	0.098	0.583	1.102
A variety of shopping places	0.097	0.570	1.102
Availability of Arabic foods/Halal foods	-0.162	0.519	0.850
Positive attitudes towards Islamic culture at destination	-0.144	0.653	0.866
Positive attitudes towards Arabic culture at destination	0.388	0.197	1.474
Availability of mosques (places of worship)	-0.419	0.039	0.658
Safety and security at destination even when travelling alone	0.004	0.988	1.004
Ease of communication with local people (language)	0.194	0.353	1.214
Travel Constraints	**B**	**Sig**	**Exp**
Lack of interest	0.305	0.040	1.356
Lack of information	-0.039	0.802	0.962
Stress and anxiety	0.151	0.353	1.163
Health problems	0.095	0.494	1.100
Safety concerns (personal safety)	-0.093	0.558	0.911
Lack of skills (language barrier)	-0.051	0.742	0.950
Negative attitudes towards Muslims/Arabs	-0.139	0.404	0.870
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to travel with	0.235	0.105	1.265
My partner is not interested in travelling	-0.286	0.044	0.751
Others do not have the money	0.172	0.371	1.188
Others do not have the time	-0.134	0.446	0.874
Lack of time and opportunities to travel	0.046	0.790	1.047

Financial challenges (a lack of money)	0.219	0.350	1.245
Family commitments	-0.011	0.958	0.989
Work commitments	0.076	0.714	1.079
Visa procedure	0.146	0.378	1.157
Travel cost is too high	0.528	0.023	1.696
Having dependent children	-0.293	0.021	0.746

Appendix 7 Determinants of Leisure Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Lack of interest	**0.223**	**0.010**	**1.250**
Lack of information	0.092	0.351	1.097
Stress and anxiety	0.022	0.826	1.022
Health problems	0.060	0.487	1.062
Fear of injury	**-0.272**	**0.019**	**0.762**
Lack of skills or physical ability	0.036	0.703	1.037
Traditional gender stereotype	0.055	0.478	1.057
Difficulty of finding friend or family member to participate with	-0.028	0.751	0.972
Partner is not interested in participating	**0.183**	**0.037**	**1.207**
Others do not have the money	-0.096	0.419	0.908
Others do not have the time	0.004	0.973	1.004
Lack of time and opportunities to participate	**0.277**	**0.008**	**1.319**
Financial challenges (a lack of money)	0.033	0.730	1.033
Family commitments	0.084	0.465	1.088
Work commitments	-0.128	0.239	0.880
Lack of facilities	**-0.283**	**0.007**	**0.754**
Household expectations	-0.039	0.729	0.962
Clothing and equipment are too expensive	**0.222**	**0.011**	**1.248**
Sociodemographics			
Gender	-0.537	0.118	1.146
Age (26-35 years old)	**-1.677**	**0.015**	**0.187**
Marital status	0.010	0.984	1.010
Education	.	**0.031**	.
Income	.	**0.048**	.

Occupation (students)	**-2.050**	**0.027**	**0.129**
Children	-0.643	0.140	0.526

Appendix 8 A structural Equation Model

A structural Equation Model was run using Bentler and Wu's software program, EQS.

The factor scores were used for the variables Push Motives, Pull Motives, Constraints and Negotiation Strategies. The dependent variable was the frequency of trips taken overseas.

The univariate statistics are shown below.

```
                    UNIVARIATE STATISTICS
                    --------------------


  VARIABLE         FREQU      DISCOVER   FRIENDS    SOCIAL
RELATE
                   V4         V191       V192       V193       V194
  MEAN              1.5101     4.9430     3.8523     3.0503
4.5403
  SKEWNESS (G1)     0.3839    -0.7676    -0.1959     0.2994    -
0.5257
  KURTOSIS (G2)    -0.4310     0.6911    -0.5954    -0.5088    -
0.6336
  STANDARD DEV.     1.1078     1.2819     1.4302     1.3929
1.7885


  VARIABLE         LUXURY     SECURITY   NATURE     CULTURE
SHTDIST
                   V195       V196       V197       V198       V199
  MEAN              4.1946     5.3859     5.0503     4.1342
3.6342
  SKEWNESS (G1)    -0.0758    -1.1948    -0.8395    -0.2501    -
0.0387
  KURTOSIS (G2)    -0.4933     1.7725     1.2855    -0.4246    -
0.5473
  STANDARD DEV.     1.5469     1.2853     1.2394     1.4824
1.4601


  VARIABLE         ENTERTN    TIMEMNGT   BEHAV      COGNITIV
SKILL
                   V200       V211       V212       V213       V214
  MEAN              3.9597     4.5604     3.4262     3.9564
4.5537
  SKEWNESS (G1)     0.0204    -0.9564     0.0646    -0.1502    -
0.6734
```

```
 KURTOSIS (G2)     -0.6678     0.3943    -0.1507    -0.7042     -
0.0204
 STANDARD DEV.      1.4041     1.4277     1.2908     1.6022
1.4066


 VARIABLE          INTERPER   INTERNL    STRUCTL     TIME
NOINTERE
                    V215       V216       V217       V218      V219
 MEAN               4.5503     3.5101     4.5503     4.5403
3.0101
 SKEWNESS (G1)     -0.5442     0.0285    -0.6474    -0.3968
0.5436
 KURTOSIS (G2)     -0.4540    -0.7711     0.1793    -0.3926     -
0.7382
 STANDARD DEV.      1.8032     1.5357     1.2656     1.5154
1.7378


 VARIABLE          TRAVEL
                    V220
 MEAN               4.0403
 SKEWNESS (G1)     -0.8776
 KURTOSIS (G2)      0.5604
 STANDARD DEV.      1.1304
```

The covariance matrix was therefore

```
COVARIANCE  MATRIX TO BE ANALYZED:    21 VARIABLES (SELECTED FROM
222 VARIABLES)
  BASED ON   298 CASES.


                  FREQU    DISCOVER   FRIENDS    SOCIAL
RELATE
                   V4        V191       V192       V193
V194
   FREQU    V4       1.227
   DISCOVER V191      0.369     1.643
   FRIENDS  V192      0.267     0.524     2.045
   SOCIAL   V193      0.223     0.508     0.842     1.940
   RELATE   V194     -0.209     0.297     0.558     0.623
3.199
   LUXURY   V195      0.217     0.506     0.807     0.475
0.356
   SECURITY V196      0.109     0.648     0.195     0.203
0.461
   NATURE   V197      0.203     0.757     0.583     0.260
0.431
   CULTURE  V198     -0.022     0.432     0.414     0.737
0.560
   SHTDIST  V199     -0.065     0.265     0.666     0.931
0.629
```

ENTERTN	V200	0.283	0.580	0.725	0.790
					0.237
TIMEMNGT	V211	0.572	0.823	0.433	0.399
					0.117
BEHAV	V212	0.007	0.018	0.137	0.201
					0.153
COGNITIV	V213	0.433	0.738	0.515	0.484
					0.222
SKILL	V214	0.302	0.493	0.166	0.305
					0.138
INTERPER	V215	0.297	0.479	0.267	0.100
					0.274
INTERNL	V216	-0.382	-0.048	0.271	0.072
					0.330
STRUCTL	V217	-0.218	0.220	0.230	-0.014
					0.314
TIME	V218	-0.351	0.075	0.184	-0.088
					0.343
NOINTERE	V219	-0.510	-0.474	-0.029	0.074
					0.463
TRAVEL	V220	0.333	0.507	0.329	0.291
					0.076

		LUXURY	SECURITY	NATURE	CULTURE	SHTDIST
		V195	V196	V197	V198	V199
LUXURY	V195	2.393				
SECURITY	V196	0.224	1.652			
NATURE	V197	0.576	0.741	1.536		
CULTURE	V198	0.186	0.366	0.279	2.197	
SHTDIST	V199	0.341	0.293	0.503	0.847	2.132
ENTERTN	V200	0.671	0.463	0.891	0.642	0.824
TIMEMNGT	V211	0.335	0.433	0.628	0.281	0.135
BEHAV	V212	0.055	0.040	-0.011	0.242	0.406
COGNITIV	V213	0.419	0.202	0.325	0.299	0.230
SKILL	V214	-0.007	0.516	0.329	0.023	0.102
INTERPER	V215	-0.060	0.332	0.370	0.189	0.242
INTERNL	V216	0.065	0.334	0.079	0.359	0.608
STRUCTL	V217	0.185	0.501	0.319	0.175	0.357
TIME	V218	0.033	0.468	0.202	0.092	0.377
NOINTERE	V219	0.315	-0.091	-0.165	0.292	0.707
TRAVEL	V220	0.167	0.311	0.328	0.190	0.200

		ENTERTN	TIMEMNGT	BEHAV	COGNITIV	SKILL

412

```
                          V200        V211        V212        V213
V214
   ENTERTN  V200         1.971
   TIMEMNGT V211         0.504       2.038
   BEHAV    V212         0.159       0.589       1.666
   COGNITIV V213         0.318       1.435       0.524       2.567
   SKILL    V214         0.379       0.975       0.662       0.903
1.979
   INTERPER V215         0.127       1.108       0.687       1.118
0.977
   INTERNL  V216         0.041      -0.155       0.415       0.086
0.151
   STRUCTL  V217         0.113       0.287       0.465       0.182
0.196
    TIME    V218         0.180       0.067       0.213       0.263
0.380
   NOINTERE V219        -0.087      -0.443       0.342      -0.340
-0.325
   TRAVEL   V220         0.308       1.317       0.865       1.291
1.069


                        INTERPER    INTERNL     STRUCTL      TIME
NOINTERE
                          V215        V216        V217        V218
V219
   INTERPER V215         3.252
   INTERNL  V216         0.233       2.358
   STRUCTL  V217         0.319       0.866       1.602
    TIME    V218         0.160       1.016       0.907       2.296
   NOINTERE V219        -0.420       1.433       0.641       0.796
3.020
   TRAVEL   V220         1.250       0.087       0.271       0.207
-0.317


                        TRAVEL
                          V220
   TRAVEL   V220         1.278
```

Analysis of residuals were plotted and found to conform to a normal distribution as indicated below.

```
DISTRIBUTION OF STANDARDIZED RESIDUALS


       ----------------------------------------
        !                                      !
  100-   !                                      -
        !                                      !
        !                 *                    !
        !                 *                    !            RANGE        FREQ PERCENT
        !                 *                    !
   75-   !                 *                    -
        !                 *                    !    1   -0.5  -   --        0    0.00%
        !                 *                    !    2   -0.4  -  -0.5       0    0.00%
        !                 *                    !    3   -0.3  -  -0.4       0    0.00%
        !                 *                    !    4   -0.2  -  -0.3       3    1.30%
   50-   !             *   *   *                -    5   -0.1  -  -0.2      14    6.06%
        !             *   *   *                !    6    0.0  -  -0.1      49   21.21%
        !             *   *   *                !    7    0.1  -   0.0      88   38.10%
        !             *   *   *                !    8    0.2  -   0.1      48   20.78%
        !             *   *   *                !    9    0.3  -   0.2      18    7.79%
   25-   !             *   *   *                -    A    0.4  -   0.3       5    2.16%
        !             *   *   *   *            !    B    0.5  -   0.4       1    0.43%
        !         *   *   *   *   *            !    C    ++   -   0.5       5    2.16%
        !         *   *   *   *   *            !    -----------------------------
        !     *   *   *   *   *   *   *       *  !         TOTAL          231 100.00%
       ----------------------------------------
          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   A   B   C    EACH "*" REPRESENTS   5 RESIDUALS
```
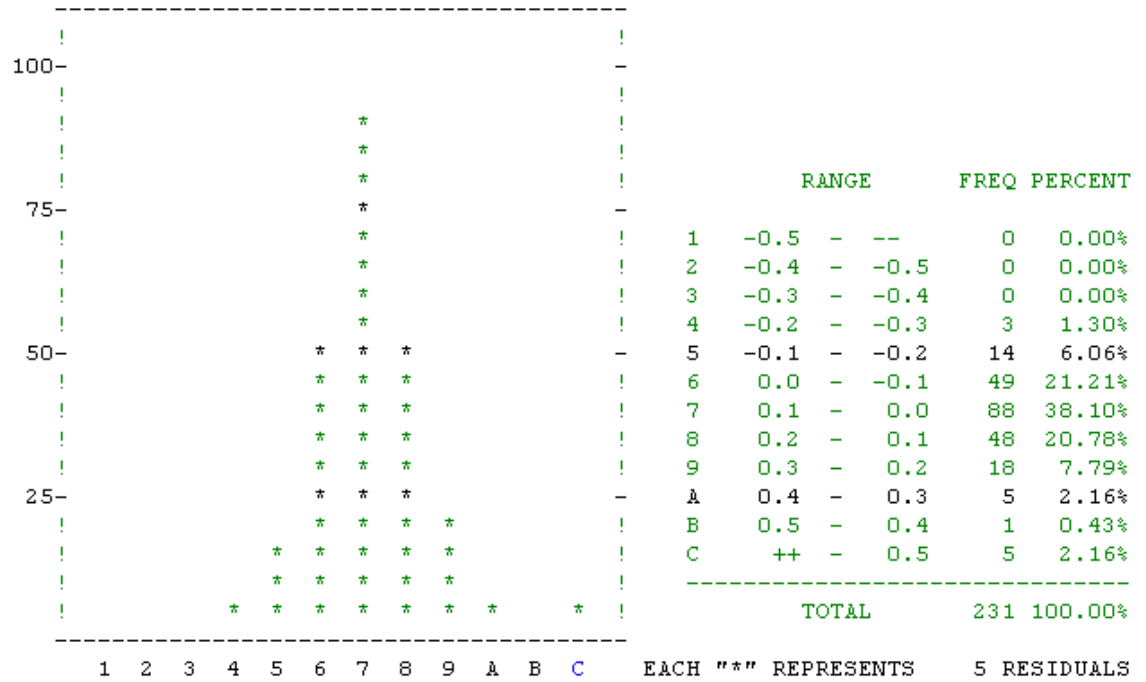
The fit indices were therefore calculated and found to be as follows:

```
FIT INDICES
-----------
BENTLER-BONETT      NORMED FIT INDEX =      0.459
BENTLER-BONETT NON-NORMED FIT INDEX =      0.413
COMPARATIVE FIT INDEX (CFI)         =      0.488
BOLLEN'S        (IFI)  FIT INDEX    =      0.494
MCDONALD'S      (MFI)  FIT INDEX    =      0.129
JORESKOG-SORBOM'S  GFI  FIT INDEX   =      0.742
JORESKOG-SORBOM'S AGFI  FIT INDEX   =      0.674
ROOT MEAN-SQUARE RESIDUAL (RMR)     =      0.300
STANDARDISED RMR                    =      0.159
ROOT MEAN-SQUARE ERROR OF APPROXIMATION (RMSEA)   =     0.150
90% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL OF RMSEA  (      0.142,         0.157)


RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS
------------------------
CRONBACH'S ALPHA                    =      0.806
RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT RHO         =      0.774
```

Given this the model was, therefore, discarded.

Appendix 9: Determinants of Destination Choice

Variable	B	t	p	Tolerance	VIF
Islamic teachings concerning travelling to non-Islamic countries	0.017	0.269	0.788	0.999	1.001
Muslim scholars' opinion (fatwa) regarding travelling to non-Islamic countries	0.032	0.509	0.611	1.000	1.000
Official or local people's attitudes towards Islamic culture at the potential destination	-0.065	-1.026	0.306	0.999	1.001
Availability of Halal food at the potential destination	0.009	0.144	0.886	0.974	1.026
Official or local people's attitudes towards wearing alhijab (veil) at the potential destination	0.029	0.434	0.665	0.923	1.083
Availability of mosques (places of worship) at the potential destination	0.000	-0.001	0.999	0.970	1.031
Existence of Muslims as a community at the potential destination	0.023	0.345	0.730	0.945	1.059
The level of moral corruption at the potential destination	0.056	0.833	0.406	0.902	1.108
Having companion (Mahram)	-0.031	-0.437	0.663	0.796	1.256
Not being involved in prohibited activities such as gambling during my holiday	0.045	0.688	0.492	0.945	1.059
Gender	**-0.325**	**-2.321**	**0.021**	**1.000**	**1.000**
Age	0.080	1.230	0.220	0.943	1.061
Relationship	0.030	0.468	0.640	0.995	1.005
Education	-0.084	-1.319	0.188	0.997	1.003
Income	0.013	0.198	0.843	0.920	1.087
Occupation	0.006	0.100	0.920	0.999	1.001

Children		-0.029	-0.462	0.644	0.996	1.004

Appendix 10: Determinants of Leisure Participation

Variables	B	Sig	Exp
Islamic teachings concerning participation in leisure activities	-0.082	0.539	0.921
Muslim scholars' opinion (fatwa) regarding participating in leisure activities	0.105	0.441	1.110
Social and family support	-0.171	0.084	0.843
Gender stereotypes in Muslim society	-0.012	0.897	0.988
Wearing seemly clothes	-0.093	0.428	0.911
Not participating in leisure activities that require mixing between men and women	0.402	0.003	1.494
Not participating in leisure activities that involve drinking alcohol, drug taking or gambling	-0.338	0.027	0.713
Not participating in leisure activities at the expense of my family/work responsibilities	-0.074	0.639	0.929
Not participating in leisure activities that involve a high level of risk	0.152	0.203	1.164
Not wasting my money and time on leisure activities that are prohibited by Islamic law such gambling	0.001	0.990	1.001
Gender (Male)	-0.657	0.042	0.518
Age (18-25 years old)	-1.390	0.041	0.249
(26-35 years old)	-1.675	0.008	0.187
Relationship status	0.035	0.937	1.036
Education	.	0.034	.
Income	.	0.244	.
Occupation	.	0.159	.
Children	-0.350	0.361	0.705