Journal of Applied Structural Equation Modeling

eISSN: 2590-4221 Journal of Applied Structural Equation Modeling: 5(2),1-23, July 2021
DOI: 10.47263/JASEM.5(2)05

DO FEMALE TRAVELERS PERCEIVE MORE RISKS AND RESTRICTIONS THAN MALE TRAVELERS? A MULTIGROUP ANALYSIS

Muhammad Umair Nazir[1*], Dr. Sultan Adal Mehmood[2], Ida Yasin[1], Huam Hon Tat[1], Ali Naimat Pervaiz[1], and Muhammad Imran Majeed[1]

[1]*Putra Business School, 43400, Malaysia*
[2]*University of Jhang, Pakistan*

**umairizan@hotmail.com*

ABSTRACT

The study compares perceived risks, perceived constraints, and travel motivations between female travelers and male travelers. Quantitative research was executed; to test the research hypotheses, partial least square structural equation modeling was used. Data were collected from 201 international tourists who had visited Pakistan, using the purposive sampling technique. The study revealed no difference in perceived risks, perceived constraints, and travel motivations between female travelers and male travelers. The findings provide useful insights for destination managers regarding perceived risks, perceived constraints, and travel motivations for female travelers as compared to male travelers. The results also shed some light on the impact of travel motivations on international tourists' revisit intentions. Literature has identified differences between female travelers and male travelers in various contexts. However, studies that identify differences between female travelers and male travelers regarding their travel motivations, and their perceptions of risks and constraints, are scarce in number.

Keywords: *Multigroup analysis, Perceived risks, Perceived constraints, Travel motivation, Revisit intention*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism plays an important role in generating revenue, creating jobs, preserving culture, and providing entertainment (Parrey et al., 2018). The tourism industry is susceptible to security and economic issues, but the industry is still enjoying growth daily, mainly due to female travelers' participation (Khan et al., 2017). With advances in gender equality, the female employment rate has improved in developing and developed countries (Yang et al., 2018). For females, expectations of career rewards have significantly influenced their career advancements (Liu et al., 2020).

Female travelers have outnumbered male travelers in business and leisure tourism; hence they have become an important segment of the market (Khan et al., 2019). Female enjoys autonomy, independence, empowerment, and freedom by traveling alone and participating in all decision-making stages of travel. However, females are more vulnerable to theft, violent crimes, and sexual harassment than males.

Female travelers encounter more constraints such as conspicuousness, harassment, unwanted male attention, and restricted access (Wilson & Little, 2008). Means of self-discovery can be obtained through solo travel, but the perspective of solo travel is not the same for Asian and western solo female travelers. Although western solo female travelers have to face certain types of risks, Asian female travelers have to deal with the added issue of discrimination (Yang et al., 2019).

Recent studies have identified various risks and constraints faced by female travelers (Khan et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2019; Stark & Meschik, 2018; Yang et al., 2018) and revealed the vulnerability of female travelers in terms of the risks, uncertainties, and constraints they are confronted with. Researchers have argued that apart from looking at risks and constraints, it is necessary to understand why tourists are attracted to specific destinations. Khan et al. (2019) claimed that tourists make risky decisions due to their travel motivations. Pan et al. (2021) identified four dimensions of destination masculinity such as vigor, competence, courage and dominance and four dimensions of feminity such as softness, kindheartedness, gorgeousness, and grace, and destination gender is positively related to revisit intention.

Over time, many studies have investigated the role of perceived constraints (Bonn et al., 2016; Dale & Ritchie, 2020; Huber et al., 2018; Hung & Petrick, 2012; Mei & Lantai, 2018; Tan, 2017) and perceived risks (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Parrey et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2017) on people's behavior. However, there is inconsistency in the relationship between perceived constraints, perceived risks, and revisit intentions, indicating the need to identify other factors to strengthen the relationship.

In systematic literature on risk and gender studies, Yang et al. (2017) revealed that there are only nine gender-focused studies and majority of the literature related to risk and gender have prioritized Western travellers experiences. Besides, there is lack of risk and gender focused theoretical framework and investigation. These studies examined behavior by interpreting the complexity of gender, with the perspective of masculinities, femininties and female focused research. According to Travel and Tourism Competitive Index TTCI, 2019, Pakistan ranks at 121st position out of 136 countries which is due to safety & security issues, lack of coordination within departments, poor tourism infrastructure Arshad et al. (2018), image of Pakistan as jihadism promoter Sayira & Andrews (2016), and in the result various countries issued warnings for Pakistan to travel (Yousaf & Li, 2015) Thus, this study investigates the revisit intentions to risky destinations.

Although there have been studies (Khan et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2019) that investigated travel motivations, perceived risks, and perceived constraints in a single model, such studies only focused on female travelers and collected data only from female university students. Similarly, Karl et al. (2020) investigated travel motivation, travel constraints, and intention for just females. This study has investigated female travelers' motivations and perceptions of travel risks and constraints and compared them to male travelers to fill the existing gap. Dale & Ritchie (2020) and Tan & Huang (2020) examined travel motivation and perceived constraints in a single model with multi dimensions. Caber et al. (2020) perceived risk, travel motivation and travel intention with the moderating effect of perceived risk. Similarly, Khan et al. (2019) and Parrey et al. (2018) investigated travel risks and travel constraints on multiple dimensions, and Khan et al. (2019) made the recommendation to evaluate the post-visit moderating role of motivation on the relationship between perceived risks, perceived constraints, and behavioral intention. This study investigated the moderating effect of travel motivations on the negative relationship between perceived risk, perceived constraints, and revisit intentions based on a single construct.

The following chapters will discuss about literature review, theory, hypothesis development, measurement models, structural models, moderation analysis, multigroup analysis, results and discussion.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) provides basic tenets to predict behavioral intention in response to perceived risk, perceived constraints, and motivating factors. TPB assumes that individuals make the best use of information before acting, and their actions are determined by perceived control. In other words, individuals assess all available resources and opportunities such as knowledge, skills, abilities, information, time, money, equipment, and cooperation of others as either favorable or unfavorable for an action. If such resources are beyond their control, people tend to perceive higher risk, more constraints, lesser motivation and are unlikely to take a certain action. On the flip side, if resources are within their control, people tend to perceive lower risk, fewer constraints, and more motivation to take a certain action. Thus, the behavior of tourists is determined by perceived risk about the destination, constraints on traveling, and motivating factors to visit. The following sections review the literature on perceived risk, perceived constraints, and travel motivation in relation to behavioral intention.

Perceived risks

A literature review conducted revealed that apart from some exceptions, perceived risks were conceptualized on the multi-dimensions, and the results were inconsistent with behavioral Intention. Female have always participated in tourism activities, yet tourism is still considered masculine (Yang et al., 2017). Past studies have identified health, financial, social, performance, and physical risks. Female perceives more risks than male, so they tend not to take risks (Yang et al., 2017). Risk does not negatively influence tourists' perceptions before making their trip, but post-trip destination attachment is influenced by perceived risks (Alcántara-Pilar et al., 2018).

With the emergence of gender equality as a global concept, female travelers are more likely to travel alone. However, female travelers are more susceptible to gender risks as compared to male travelers. Solo female travelers have to face social disapproval, sexual harassment, discrimination, physical abuse, and getting lost (Yang et al., 2018). While male travelers perceive financial risk as the riskiest component of their travels, female travelers perceive psychological, physical, and prompt risks as more threatening than other risks (Boksberger et al., 2007). Therefore, female travelers perceive more risks and feel more unsafe than male travelers (Barker et al., 2003). Hence, there is a difference between female travelers and male travelers regarding their fear of crime and how they perceive risk. Once they age, both females and males would usually perceive less risk and fear (Chadee & Ditton, 2003).

The experience of travel has always been different for female travelers. Female face pitying looks, unsolicited attention, and safety risks on their trips, especially when traveling alone. The perception of Asian solo female travelers is western-centric (Yang et al., 2019). Harassment is a common phenomenon that female face in their daily lives. One-third of females face frightening experiences during their travels. Assault, harassment, physical violence, and intimidation restrain female's travel behaviors (Stark & Meschik, 2018).

Although female travelers generally perceive more risks than male travelers, this is not always the case. Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2018) rejected the hypothesis that young female adults perceive more risks. Although tourists perceive risks differently depending on their race, education level, and nationality, female travelers perceive more risks regardless of whether they are educated or not (Finucane et al., 2013). Comparing females and males, males are more often

the victim of gang violence, but females fear the risk of gang crimes, rape, and sexual assault (Lane & Meeker, 2003). Risks attached with tropical areas differ depending on gender, education level, and experience. Young female students with experience are afraid of sunburn, illness, snakes, and swimming in the ocean (Russel & Prideaux, 2014).

Meanwhile, according to Carr (2001), females perceive London to be a dangerous place at night, although it is found that gender is not the only factor that influences behavior. Sexual risk is taken due to motivational factors. Facilitating factors such as drug consumption, alcohol use, and parties encourage tourists to be willing to take on sexual risk (Berdychevsky & Gibson, 2015). Physical risk is perceived as a high rating risk, but emotional videos about the risky destination can reduce perceived risks (Brodien Hapairai et al., 2018). Tourist gaze, mutual gaze, intra tourist gaze, reverse gaze, and local gaze affect the tourist-host relationship (Lin & Fu, 2020).

Lim et al. (2019) concluded that financial, psychological, and physical risks have a significant negative impact on intention to travel, whilst performance risk positively impacts intention to travel. Ma et al. (2019) found that time, psychological, physical, functional, and financial risks significantly affect trust and intention to discontinue ride-hailing services, with physical risk ranked as the most important factor.

Tourists also face victimization, service failure, exploitation, harassment, misinformation, and heritage mismanagement. Most of the time, tourists tolerate such incidents or even participate in them (Papathanassis & Dinu, 2019). All the perceived risk dimensions such as satisfaction, time, physical, socio-psychological, and performance risks have a significant negative impact on intention to revisit Uttarkhand, India (Kaushik & Chakrabarti, 2018). Perceived risk has a significant relationship with attitude, whereas insignificant relation with behavioral Intention (Hsieh et al., 2016).

Perceived risk and perceived constraints have a negative impact on medical and non-medical destination image Khan et al. (2020). Although perceived risks and travel constraints have significant effects on behavioral Intention, the impact of perceived risks and travel constraints on behavioral Intention deteriorates when the relationship is moderated by travel motivation (Khan et al., 2019).

H1: Perceived risks of international tourists have a negative influence on behavioral intention.
H2: Female travelers perceive higher risks as compared to male travelers.

Perceived Constraints

Constraints do not just hinder tourists from participation; they provide opportunities and stimulates the type and level of tourist participation (Mei & Lantai, 2018). Sometimes hurdles and constraints for international tourists serve as domestic tourists' opportunities (Barreira & Cesário, 2018). Crawford et al. (1991) categorized leisure constraints into interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural constraints. Later on, Chen et al. (2013) introduced another dimension which is cultural constraints, and found that leisure constraints significantly impacts destination image.

Arab-Moghaddam et al. (2007) identified the lack of community structure as the major constraint for Iranian females. Besides cultural constraints, social, personal, and economic constraints are more rated constraints for Iranian females. Similarly, Iranian females face responsibility towards family, gender norms, lack of time, financial issues, traveling companions, travel services, and religious constraints (Shahvali et al., 2017).

Females face socio-cultural, self, family commitments, and technical constraints, but the female can also negotiate these constraints by leisure experience and commitment (Little, 2002). Females face different constraints across different stages of travel decision-making. Intrapersonal

constraints are the dominant barriers at a pre-contemplation stage, while structural constraints are more problematic for preparation, action, and maintenance (Qiu et al., 2018). Besides travel constraints, Fu & Timothy (2021) examined social media usage constraints which have mixed effects on affective cognitive, and conative images

Female and male perceived interest constraints' as the dominant barriers for museum visits. Older females perceived more interpersonal constraints, and it seems doubly disadvantages regarding structural and interpersonal constraints when the income is lower (Mullens & Glorieux, 2019). Being a woman, particularly an Asian female, is itself a constraint for solo female travelers (Osman et al., 2020). Surrounding society affects solo female travelers' decision-making, while family members' norms do not influence solo female travel. Gauhar Uatay et al. (2019) revealed a strong negative effect of interpersonal constraints on attitude and Intention to travel. Although intrapersonal constraints negatively influence attitude, structural constraints have no relationship with attitude and Intention to travel.

Despite the negative impact of constraints, a strong destination image can overcome such constraints (W. Tan, 2017). A significant negative relationship has been identified between intrapersonal constraints and revisit Intention, and a positive relationship is found between availability constraints and revisit Intention. A significant negative relationship was identified between interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints, whilst an insignificant relationship was found between structural constraints and visit intention (Khan et al., 2019). Similarly, Tan & Huang(2020) also found insignificant relation of leisure constraints on intention.

The travel intentions of disabled persons are not affected by environmental, intrinsic, and interactional constraints. Instead, intrinsic and environmental constraints are found to have positive relationships with helplessness (Lee et al., 2012). Travel constraints have a negative impact on Intention to visit, whereas negotiation with constraints has a significant positive relationship with Intention to visit (Hung & Petrick, 2012). Meanwhile, experiential values such as "consumer return on investment," "aesthetics," and "playfulness," along with authentic happiness, have a significant impact on accommodation intention (Y. K. Fu & Wang, 2020). Wen et al. (2020) identified four constraints such as perceived incapability, lack of suitable travel agencies, complex travel decision making, and lack of information support and examined their impact on learned helplessness.

Interpersonal and structural constraints have significant impact on both planned and actual overnight excursion behavior, whereas there is no influence of constraints on actual travel behavior (Dale & Ritchie, 2020). According to Park et al. (2016), Intention to visit Japan is significantly influenced by attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavior control, and travel constraints that significantly mediate all relationships except the relationship between perceived behavior control and Intention to visit Japan. Cognitive and affective experiences have a direct relationship with revisit intention. Moreover, intrapersonal constraints mediate the relationship between cognitive experience and revisit Intention (Zhang et al., 2016). Travel constraints caused a decrease in trips for long trip frequencies and travel intention (Karl et al., 2020).

H3: Perceived constraints faced by international tourists have a negative influence on behavioral intention.
H4: Female travelers perceive higher constraints as compared to male travelers.

Travel motivation

Crompton (1979) identified two types of motivational factors. The "push factors" are the factors that arouse the desire to travel, whilst "pull factors" are the destination's appealing features that serve to attract tourists. Dann (1981) reviewed the literature on travel motivations and identified

seven types of approaches behind travel motivations: individual's travel, push and pull motivational factors, fantasy, classified purpose, typology of motivation, experience, and auto-defining motivation. Iso-Ahola (1982) later pointed out that Dann's said the study had omitted to discuss the psychological aspects of motivation. Mansfeld (1992) established a framework for tourists to choose their travel destinations based on motivation. Meanwhile, Fodness (1994) had developed a scale to measure traveler motivation. Later, Chiang & Jogaratnam. (2006) identified motivational dimensions for females, such as experience, social, escape self-esteem, and relaxation.

Choices of tourist destinations are influenced by motivational factors (Lee et al., 2012). Albayrak & Caber (2018) pointed out that active vacationers, reluctant vacationers, moderate vacationers, and challenge-seeker vacationers have different levels of travel motivations. Tourists are mesmerized and fascinated by the motivation factor of cultural differences. Moreover, the motivation factor moderates the relationship between perceived cultural differences and destination choice (Liu et al., 2018). Marques et al. (2018) identified students' touristic trends and categorized them into five clusters according to their motivations, namely explorers, soft explorers, sightseers, novelty seekers, and avoiders.

Ying et al. (2018) examined the travel motivations of Chinese tourists who participated in cigar tourism and identified three clusters based on their motivation level. Meanwhile, reproduction, emotional closeness, relaxation, relief of tension, excitement, social prestige, procreation, and fulfillment of desire are the motivational factors for Chinese tourists who participate in commercial sex when traveling to international destinations (Ying & Wen, 2019). Wine event participation and product involvement significantly impact wine revisit Intention, while attractiveness, escape from the daily routine, social wine, and education do not significantly impact wine revisit Intention (Afonso et al., 2018).

Intention to travel is significantly affected by all motivation dimensions, such as self-fulfillment, knowledge enhancement, and escape. Motivation also mediates the relationship between intention and time perspectives (Lu et al., 2016). Wong et al. (2017) found that both push and pull motivation factors have significantly impacted retirees' satisfaction with the "Malaysia my second home" program. Ancestral tourists are among the "full heritage immersion" cluster who wish to come back and visit based on ancestral tourism (Murdy et al., 2018). Travel motivation influences future panned trips, and it also affects duration and length of stay (Dale & Ritchie, 2020). Travel motivation increased the number of trips for the long term and short term frequencies, whereas it does not affect travel intention (Karl et al., 2020).

Mutanga et al. (2017) investigated demographics as push and pull factors in visiting wildlife destinations. In terms of push motivation factors to visit the wildlife destination, gender, education, and income make no difference, whereas age is significant. In terms of pull factors, demographics have no major difference in the motivation to visit wildlife destinations. Meanwhile, time utilization, personal attachment, attractiveness, and escape and relaxation are the motivational factors for marine tourists, and it was also found that females are more attracted to marine tourism (Van der Merwe et al., 2011). The relationship between leisure constraints and travel motivation is partially supported in such a way that intrapersonal constraints motivation, whereas monetory constraints have no influence(Tan & Huang, 2020). There is an insignificant relationship between travel motivation and travel intention, and the moderating effect of overall perceived risk does not moderate the relationship between travel motivation and travel intention (Caber et al., 2020).

Previous studies such as (Battour et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2018) have investigated travel motivation's moderating effect in different contexts. This study has included uni-dimension of

perceived risk, perceived constraints, travel motivation, and behavioral Intention. In this study, travel risks were used by Khan et al. (2019) as multi-dimensions such as physical, financial, performance, socio-psychological, and time risks, while travel constraints were dimensioned as structural constraints, interpersonal constraints, and intrapersonal constraints.

H5: Travel motivation of international tourists has a positive influence on behavioral intention.
H6: Female travelers are more motivated to travel as compared to male travelers.
H7a: The negative relationship between perceived risks and behavioral intention gets weaker with travel motivation involvement.
H7b: The negative relationship between perceived constraints and behavioral intention gets weaker with travel motivation involvement.

METHODOLOGY

Research instrument

The survey instrument was adapted from previous studies that used well-established scales. All the scale items were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

This study used eight items scale of perceived risks such as "You feel overall the experience of vacation will not be a good value of money," developed by (Parrey et al., 2018) with eight items and CR = 0.921. For travel motivation study used seven items scale such as "To travel for rest and relaxation purpose," which was adapted from Khan et al. (2017) with seven items and CR = 0.922 with the original source of (Beerli & Martín, 2004). The study used ten items scale for perceived constraints such as "You do not have enough holidays to revisit Pakistan," developed by (Huang & Hsu, 2009) with ten items and Chronbach alpha value of 0.80 and adapted by Khan et al. (2019) with ten items and CR = 0.80. And three items for behavioral intention, such as "you intend to revisit Pakistan," were adapted from (Lam & Hsu, 2004). Tourists characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, income, region, and occupation were also measured.

Data collection procedure and sampling

International tourists were the target population of this study. The study used international tourists because 92% of tourism revenue in Pakistan is from domestic tourism (Haq, 2018). The purpose of data collection was to know revisit intentions of international tourists based on perceived risks, constraints, and motivations. The international tourists who had visited Pakistan were targeted using Facebook, Youtube, and travel blogs. The google form link was sent to the respondents through Facebook messenger and emails. The non-probability purposive sampling technique was used to collect the data, as the study had no proper sampling frame. A total of 243 respondents sent the questionnaire back, and 42 responses had to be excluded due to higher missing values. Meanwhile, the remaining 201 responses were kept for further analysis, which meets the required minimum sample size of 138 through G*Power (Memon et al., 2020).

Table 1. Profile of Respondents

Demographic characteristics		%
Gender	Male	53
	Female	47
Marital Status	Single	50
	Married	47
	Separated	3
Ethnicity	Asian	44
	European	38
	Australian	3
	North American	10
	South American	5
Age	18-24	14
	25-34	34
	35-44	23
	45-54	14
	55-64	8
	65-Above	7
Employment Status	Employed full time	64
	Employed part time	12
	Housewife/House worker	10
	Temporarily unemployed/Looking forward retired	3
	Student	11
Monthly Income	Less than 2000	37
	2000-3999	24
	4000-6999	16
	7000-9999	12
	more than 9999	11

DATA ANALYSIS & RESULTS

Measurement Model

This study applied the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) to analyze measurement and structural models. The measurement model was analyzed through convergent and discriminant validity. To assess convergent validity (CR), factor loadings, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Composite Reliability was examined. Chin et al. (2008) recommended loadings of higher than 0.6, while Hair et al. (2018) recommended that above 0.708 are kept. However, if the AVE value is higher than 0.5, then it is acceptable to keep items with loadings of less than 0.708. Meanwhile, AVE > 0.5 and CR > 0.8 are two more criteria used to assess convergent validity (Hair et al., 2019). Items PC5, "There is too much traffic in Pakistan," and PC10, "You cannot speak local languages," with loadings of 0.512 and 0.518, respectively, were deleted one at a time, which have AVE value of less than 0.5. Items PC1, PC2, PC6, TM6, PR1, and PR6, with loadings of 0.640, 0.551, 0.605, 0.666, 0.674, and 0.572, respectively, were

retained despite low loadings. Table 2 lists all items' loadings; the AVE of variables ranges from 0.501 to 0.909, while CR values range from 0.888 to 0.968. Both AVE and CR's values exceeded the recommended AVE > 0.5 and CR > 0.8 (Hair et al., 2019).

Based on discriminant validity, these constructs were unrelated and did not reflect each other. Discriminant validity was assessed through the Fornell-Larker Criterion, as shown in Table 3, which shows that AVE's square root on the diagonal values is greater than the values of corresponding correlations. The Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations was also used to establish discriminant validity, which is a recommended alternative approach (Henseler et al., 2016). The value of HTMT should be less than 0.85 (Ringle et al., 2018). Discriminant validity was confirmed as all HTMT values listed in Table 4 are less than 0.85.

Table 2. Validity and reliability for constructs

Constructs	Items	Loading	AVE	CR
	PC1	0.640		
	PC2	0.551		
	PC3	0.764		
	PC4	0.809		
	PC5	0.605		
	PC6	0.725		
	PC7	0.706		
Perceived Constraints (PC)	PC8	0.818	0.501	0.888
	TM1	0.792		
	TM2	0.719		
	TM3	0.792		
	Tm4	0.819		
	TM5	0.865		
	TM6	0.666		
Travel Motivation (TM)	TM7	0.802	0.611	0.916
	PR1	0.674		
	PR2	0.842		
	PR3	0.828		
	PR4	0.856		
	PR5	0.813		
	PR6	0.572		
	PR7	0.815		
Perceived Risk (PR)	PR8	0.801	0.609	0.925
	BI1	0.958		
	BI2	0.957		
Behavioral Intention (BI)	BI3	0.945	0.909	0.968

Table 3. Fornell-Larker Criterion

Constructs	1	2	3	4
Behavioral Intention	0.954			
Perceived Constraints	-0.418	0.708		
Perceived Risks	-0.200	-0.318	0.781	
Travel Motivations	0.404	-0.392	-0.082	0.782

Table 4. Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT)

Constructs	1	2	3	4
Behavioral Intention				
Perceived Constraints	0.411			
Perceived Risks	0.198	0.379		
Travel Motivations	0.421	0.432	0.105	

Table 5. Collinearity Statistics VIF

Constructs	1	2	3	4
Behavioral Intention				
Perceived Constraints	1.383			
Perceived Risks	1.178			
Travel Motivations	1.252			

Table 6. Structural estimates (hypothesis testing)

Hypothesis	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t-value	f^2	p-value	Decision
PC -> BI	-0.440	0.066	6.674	0.209	0.00	Supported
PR -> BI	-0.329	0.060	5.405	0.133	0.00	Supported
TM -> BI	0.205	0.071	2.878	0.050	0.00	Supported
TM*PC -> BI	0.162	0.061	2.633	0.032	0.00	Supported
TM*PR -> BI	0.071	0.072	0.998	0.006	0.318	Not Supported

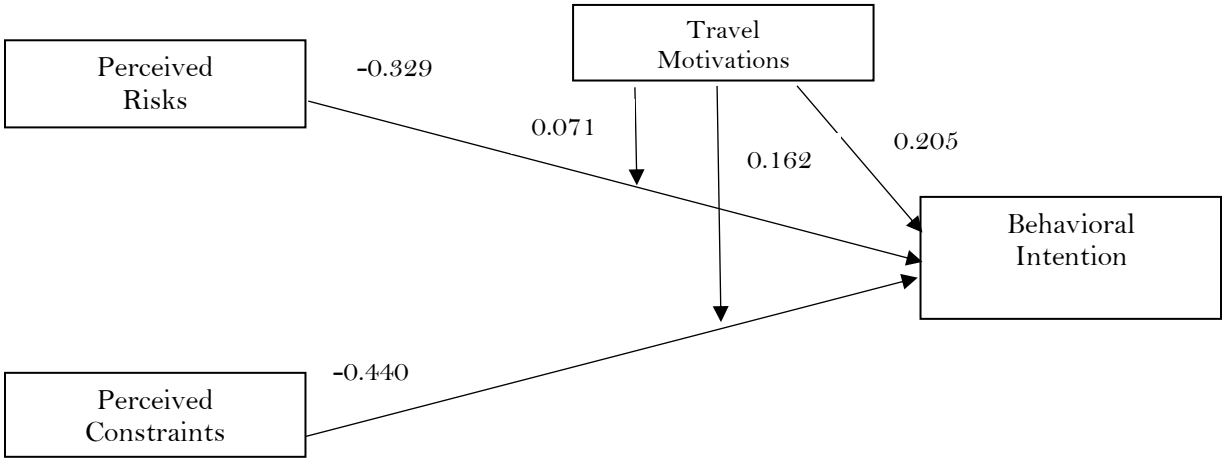

Figure 1. Structural Model

Table 7. Results of predictive relevance and confidence interval bias

	R^2	**Q^2**	**Confidence Interval**	
			5%	95%
Behavioral Intention	0.332	0.29		
TM*PC -> BI	0.352	0.304		
TM*PR -> BI	0.336	0.292		
PC -> BI			-0.541	-0.323
PR -> BI			-0.409	-0.227
TM -> BI			0.098	0.326

Table 8: Results of invariance measurement testing using permutation

Construct	Configural invariance (same algorithms for both groups)	Compositional invariance (Correlation = 1)		Partial measurement invariance established	Equal mean assessment			Variance assessment			Full measurement invariance established
		C=1	Confidence interval		Difference	Confidence Interval	Equal	Difference	Confidence Interval	Equal	
BI	Yes	1	[1, 1.000]	Yes	0.135	[-0.285, 0.273]	Yes	-0.057	[-0.385, 0.408]	Yes	Yes
PC	Yes	0.993	[0.957, 1.000]	Yes	0.040	[-0.274, 0.277]	Yes	0.054	[-0.389, 0.401]	Yes	Yes
PR	Yes	0.986	[0.896, 1.000]	Yes	0.015	[-0.273'0.280]	Yes	0.063	[-0.429, 0.435]	Yes	Yes
TM	Yes	0.994	[0.983, 1.000]	Yes	-0.094	[-0.269, 0.281]	Yes	0.154	[-0.444, 0.435]	Yes	Yes

Table 9: Results of hypothesis testing (MGA results for the relation)

		Path coefficient		Confidence interval (95%) bias corrected		Path coefficient difference	P-value MGA	P-value permutation	Supported
Hypothesis	Relationship	Female	Male	Female	Male				
H2	PR -> BI	-0.321	-0.343	[-0.454, 0.088]	[-0.495, -0.157]	0.021	0.879	0.845	No/No
H4	PC -> BI	-0.430	-0.462	[-0.616, -0.216]	[-0.620, -0.282]	0.032	0.809	0.805	No/No
H6	TM -> BI	0.225	0.215	[0.024, 0.452]	[0.041, 0.383]	0.010	0.952	0.938	No/No

Structural Model

This study used PLS-SEM is a non-parametric statistical method (Hair et al., 2017). Multicollinearity was checked, and Table 5 shows that there is no multicollinearity issue, given that all values are less than 5 (Hair et al., 2019). For the structural model evaluation, beta value, standard error, t-value, effect size, R^2, and Q^2 were examined based on the bootstrapping method with a resample of 5,000. First, the direct relationships between variables were evaluated. Perceived constraints negatively and significantly affected behavioral intention (β = -0.440; $p < 0.05$). Similarly, perceived risks have a significant negative relationship with behavioral intention (β = -0.329; $p < 0.05$). Meanwhile, travel motivation has a significant positive relationship with behavioral intention (β = 0.205; $p < 0.05$). Thus, hypotheses of direct relationships, H1, H3, and H5, were all supported.

For moderation, the interaction term was developed, and the product indicator approach was used, as recommended by Hair et al. (2018). The interaction effect for the relationship between perceived constraints and travel motivations was significant (β = 0.162; $p < 0.05$), with a small effect size of 0.030. Figure 2 indicates that low motivation has a steeper gradient, indicating that the negative relationship between constraints and intention becomes stronger when the motivation is lower.

$$Effect\ Size = \frac{R^2\text{included} - R^2 excluded}{1 - R^2 included}$$
$$= \frac{0.352 - 0.332}{1 - 0.352} = 0.030$$

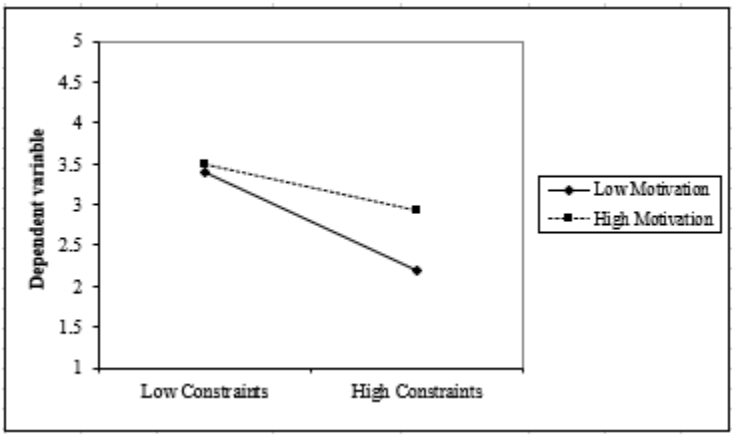

Figure 2: Two-way Interaction Plot (Constraints*Motivation)

While the interaction effect for the relationship between perceived risks and travel motivations was insignificant. Although there is an insignificant moderating effect of travel motivation on the relationship between risk and intention, figure 3 indicates that the negative relationship between risk and intention becomes stronger when motivation is lower.

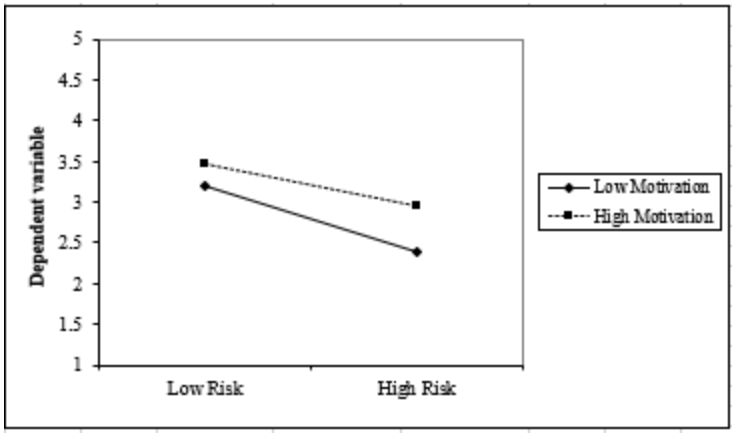

Figure 3: Two-way Interaction Plot (Risk*Motivation)

The p-value can only indicate the existence of a relationship but not the size of the effect. To determine the size of the effect, this study evaluated the value of f^2. The size of the first two relational hypotheses' effect was small, whereas the size of the effect of the third hypothesis, i.e., travel motivations to behavioral intention, was small, as recommended by Cohen (1992). Similarly, H7a and H7b showed smaller effects. Table 6 shows the relationships between all hypotheses.

Table 7 shows a list of R^2 and Q^2 values, as well as the confidence interval values. Cohen (1992) recommended that the coefficient of determination values of less than 0.13 as weak, less than 0.26 as moderate, and equal to higher than 0.26 as a larger or as a substantial coefficient of determination. According to Cohen's recommendations, this study has substantial R^2 values. The value of 0.332 for behavioral intention suggested that 33.2% variance can be observed with the involvement of perceived risks, perceived constraints, and travel motivation. This study had also observed a 2% change in the value of R^2 when the interaction effect was involved. Based on the blindfolding process through PLS, Q^2 was used to evaluate the model's prediction power (Hair et al., 2019). The value of Q^2 was larger than 0, which indicated that travel motivation, perceived risks, and perceived constraints have predictive relevance for behavioral intention (Hair et al., 2019). As "0" is not involved in the confidence interval values, these results were significant.

These results indicated that the negative relationship between perceived constraints and behavioral Intention became weaker with travel motivations. In contrast, travel motivations do not affect the negative relationship between perceived risks and behavioral intention.

Measurement invariances across two groups and Multigroup Analysis

This study has also conducted a Multigroup Analysis (MGA) to evaluate whether female travelers perceive more risks and constraints and have different motivations compared to male travelers. The Measurement Invariance of Composite Models (MICOM) was tested prior to conducting the MGA (Henseler et al., 2016). MICOM is recommended for composite-based algorithms, such as PLS-SEM (Henseler et al., 2016). There are three steps for testing MICOM which must be completed to achieve complete invariance: (a) configural invariance assessment; (b) compositional invariance assessment; and (c) assessment of equal means and invariances.

Table 8 shows that full measurement invariance is established as the configural invariance is automatically established through PLS-SEM. Compositional invariance can be achieved by comparing the original correlation with the 5% quantile, whereby if the value is greater or equal to a 5% quantile, then the configural invariance is established (Henseler et al., 2016). Table 8 also shows that the correlation is greater than the 5% quantile for all four constructs, indicating that

the compositional invariance is achieved. To assess the equal means and variances, the mean original differences and variance original differences should fall between the boundaries of 2.5% and 97.5% (Henseler et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2019). Table 8 shows that these values fall between the boundaries as all the conditions are met, which indicates a full invariance.

MGA outcomes using non-parametric methods, namely, the permutation test and Henseler's bootstrap-based MGA, are the most conservative techniques to evaluate the differences between two groups (Sarstedt et al., 2011). A group-specific bootstrap estimate is directly compared with each bootstrap sample in Henseler's MGA (Henseler et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). The p-value of the path coefficient with a difference of higher than 0.95 or lower than 0.05 reveals that there is a significant difference between specific path coefficients among groups (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2011). Meanwhile, permutation differences are only significant when the p-value is smaller than 0.05.

This study tested each hypothesis using 5,000 permutations, and 5,000 bootstrap resamples, as shown in Table 9. The results showed no difference between female and male travelers in terms of the perception of risks as the p-value for the bootstrap resamples and permutations were higher than 0.05. Henseler's MGA and permutation values were also insignificant for both female and male travelers, which indicated no difference between female and male travelers in terms of their perception of constraints. Female travelers were more motivated than male travelers since the p-value of Henseler's MGA was greater than 0.95, but the permutation value was insignificant. Thus, H2, H4, and H6 were not supported.

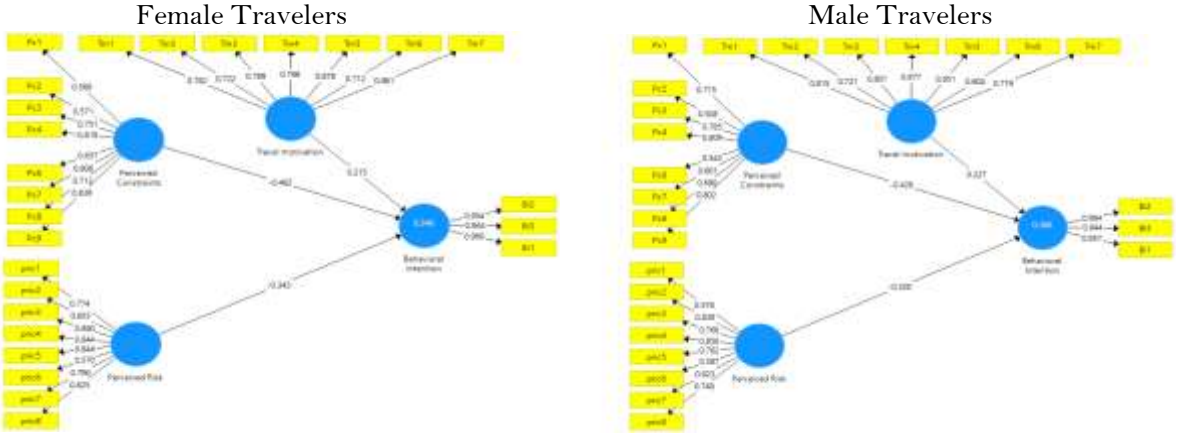

Figure 4. Results of an assessment model for female and male travelers

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has analyzed the relationships between perceived risks, perceived constraints, travel motivations, and behavioral Intention. The results indicated that all direct relationships between perceived risk, perceive constraints, travel motivations, and behavioral Intention were significant (H1, H3, H5). These results are in line with the results reported by previous studies (Hsieh et al., 2016; Kaushik & Chakrabarti, 2018; Khan et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2019; Park et al., 2016; Tan, 2017).

Additionally, the moderating effect of travel motivation was evaluated, and the results indicated a significant moderating effect of travel motivation on the relationship between perceived constraints and behavioral intention (H7b). These results are in line with previous studies' results (Khan et al., 2019; Phillips & Jang, 2007). On the other hand, the moderating effect of travel

motivation on the relationship between perceived risk and behavioral intention was insignificant (H7a). These results are consistent with previous studies (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Khan et al., 2019). This study's findings revealed that to minimize the adverse effects of risks and constraints, travel motivations can be used.

This study hypothesized that female travelers perceive more risks and constraints, and thus, they are less motivated to travel than male travelers. To obtain specific results, a multigroup analysis was conducted. First, measurement invariances were established as part of the requirement of the multigroup analysis. Configural invariance (which is normally automatically established), compositional invariance (in which the value of the original correlation must be higher than 5% quantile), and permutation p-value (which should be higher than 0.05) were established. Next, equal mean and equal variance assessments were established. Figure 4 shows the assessment model for female and male travelers.

The results of Henseler's MGA and permutation did not support the hypothesized significant difference between female and male travelers regarding the perception of risks. The hypothesized significant difference for perceived constraints between female and male travelers was also found insignificant. The hypothesis that female travelers are more motivated than male travelers was also found insignificant since the p values for permutation and Henseler's MGA were insignificant. These findings are inconsistent with the results reported by previous studies (Carr, 2001; Chadee & Ditton, 2003; Stark & Meschik, 2018). However, several studies have similarly reported finding no difference between female and male travelers regarding the perception of risks and travel motivation (Mutanga et al., 2017; Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2018; Wilson, 2019).

Out of eight hypotheses, the results supported four hypotheses proposed by this study. This study has found that tourists intend to visit the same destination with the involvement of travel motivations again, even when higher risks are involved. This is in line with the results obtained by previous studies that investigated the role of travel motivations in the intention to visit riskier destinations or to perform adventurous activities (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Khan et al., 2019; Ying et al., 2018). Parrey et al. (2018) investigated the physical risks, along with the influence of media, causes of the perception of risks, and other constraints. Epidemic diseases, terrorist attacks, political instability, and lack of infrastructure have contributed to the higher perception of physical risks. The latest example is COVID-19, whereby the global tourism industry and other industries attached to tourism are struggling to survive. According to OECD (2020), international tourism has declined by 60%, and this trend is expected to continue towards 80% if recovery is delayed.

Practical Implications

Although Pakistan is culturally diverse, with the oldest civilizations and the highest mountains, 92% of its tourism revenue is through domestic tourism. Some of the reasons behind this trend include safety and security aspects, political instability, air pollution, epidemic diseases, and physical and terror attacks. However, for the past few years, Pakistan was getting the attention of international tourists and was awarded the position of "Best-under the radar trip" by Abel (2020) and the best destination for female only by Christine (2020). These awards were gained due to government initiatives focused on the safety of tourists and minimizing travel constraints and risks. This study's findings suggested that to minimize the perception of risks and constraints, and motivation can be used. Destination management organizations should categorize different market segments based on the risk and constraint perceptions. Travel motivations to overcome these risks and constraints should be developed and highlighted through promotional activities.

This study has revealed that there is no difference between female and male travelers in terms of the perception of risks and constraints. There was also no difference between female and male travelers in terms of travel motivations. This could be attributed to the fact that most tourists who intend to revisit Pakistan, regardless of their gender, are more motivated and perceive fewer risks and constraints. No difference between females and males could also be the reason for generic survey items. These results could be due to more information about Pakistan, which is an effective tool to lessen constraints. The government takes safety measurements by inserting new sections, such as 365B, which is kidnapping, abducting, and inducing female; 367A, which is kidnapping or abducting to unnatural lust, section 371A, which is selling a person for prostitution, 371B, which is buying female for prostitution, in the constitution. The Punjab Commission on the Status of Females (PCSW) introduced a helpline for females for harassment, discrimination, and violence.

Opportunities to perform leisure activities, such as Malam Jabba ski resort, Margalla Hills Trekking trails, white water rafting, paragliding, rock climbing, and camel desert safari and to have a sense of self-identification, could also be the reasons for similar perceptions of risks and constraints between female and male travelers. Finding no difference between female and male travelers, getting a better position as a tourist destination, and being a safer place for a female, does not mean that the government and tourist destinations should not take precautionary measures to reduce travel constraints and risks. Being the strong predictors of behavioral intention, perceived risks and perceived constraints could prevent travelers from visiting foreign destinations. However, the intensity of perceived risks and travel constraints on a traveler's behavior can be reduced by promoting travel motivations.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has investigated the direct effects of perceived risks, perceived constraints, and travel motivations on the intention to revisit or recommend Pakistan as a travel destination. This study has also investigated the moderating role of travel motivation on the relationships between perceived risks, perceived constraints, and behavioral intention. Additionally, the differences in the aforementioned factors between female travelers and male travelers who have visited Pakistan were investigated. Subsequently, this study has identified a trend whereby travelers who perceive more risks would have negative intentions to visit a destination. Similarly, when there are more constraints involved to travel, there will be negative intentions to visit the destination. This study has also identified that with the involvement of travel motivation, perceived constraints and risks can be minimized when covering the gap of post-visit evaluations (Khan et al., 2019). These findings suggested that travel motivations should be a part of tourism marketing strategies because general marketing strategies would be less effective in attracting more tourists without knowing the intervening relationships between one factor and another.

A multigroup analysis was also conducted, which found no difference in the perceptions of risks, constraints, and travel motivation between female and male travelers. No difference found between groups did not mean that female traveler are invulnerable to risks. This result implied that they would not have to worry about physical abuses or travel constraints. However, there is a need for travel motivation integration among marketing strategies. There is also a need to minimize physical and mental health risks and the need to identify interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints. Otherwise, all strategies used by these destinations would be fruitless.

Although this study used a consolidative approach to identify important factors that influence behavioral intention, there were some limitations. This study has a sample size of 201 international tourists, which does not represent the total number of international tourists, although the sample size is appropriate using G*Power (Ali et al., 2020; Memon et al., 2020). Although this study used well-established survey items, these items do not account for the

gendered risk and constraints. Therefore, future studies need to evaluate gender-based risks and constraints. This study was limited to unidimensional constructs of perceived risks and constraints. Therefore, future studies need to investigate the differences between female and male travelers using different dimensions. Another suggestion for future studies is to identify the differences among gender-based destination images.

REFERENCES

Abel, A. (2020). *The Not Hot List: 10 Best Under-the-Radar Trips for 2020*. Forbes Magzine. https://www.forbes.com/sites/annabel/2020/01/02/the-not-hot-list-10-best-under-the-radar-trips-for-2020/#3cbd6c9c2264

Afonso, C., Silva, G. M., Gonçalves, H. M., & Duarte, M. (2018). The role of motivations and involvement in wine 'tourists' intention to return: SEM and fsQCA findings. *Journal of Business Research*, *89*(November 2017), 313–321. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.11.042

Alcántara-Pilar, J. M., Blanco-Encomienda, F. J., Armenski, T., & Del Barrio-García, S. (2018). The antecedent role of online satisfaction, perceived risk online, and perceived website usability on the affect towards travel destinations. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *9*(October 2015), 20–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.09.005

Ali, F., Ciftci, O., Nanu, L., Cobanoglu, C., & Ryu, K. (2020). Response Rates In Hospitality Research: An Overview of Current Practice and Suggestions For Future Research. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 193896552094309. https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965520943094

Arab-Moghaddam, N., Henderson, K. A., & Sheikholeslami, R. (2007). Female' 'Female's leisure and constraints to participation: Iranian perspectives. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *39*(1), 109–126. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2007.11950100

Arshad, M. I., Iqbal, M. A., & Shahbaz, M. (2018). Pakistan tourism industry and challenges: a review. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *23*(2), 121–132. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2017.1410192

Barker, M., Page, S. J., & Meyer, D. (2003). Urban visitor perceptions of safety during a special event. *Journal of Travel Research*, *41*(4), 355–361. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287503041004004

Barreira, A. P., & Cesário, M. (2018). *Factors influencing the choice of the Algarve region as a tourist destination : Does season matter ? March*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2207

Battour, M., Ismail, M. N., Battor, M., & Awais, M. (2014). Islamic tourism: an empirical examination of travel motivation and satisfaction in Malaysia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *20*(1), 50–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.965665

Beerli, A., & Martín, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(3), 657–681. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.01.010

Berdychevsky, L., & Gibson, H. J. (2015). Sex and risk in young female' s tourist experiences : Context , likelihood , and consequences. *Tourism Management*, *51*, 78–90. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.04.009

Boksberger, P. E., Bieger, T., & Laesser, C. (2007). Multidimensional analysis of perceived risk in commercial air travel. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *13*(2), 90–96. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jairtraman.2006.10.003

Brodien Hapairai, P. M., Walters, G., & Li, S. (2018). The effectiveness of ad-induced emotion in reducing tourist risk perceptions towards politically unstable destinations. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *43*(4), 483–496. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2018.1470737

Caber, M., González-Rodríguez, M. R., Albayrak, T., & Simonetti, B. (2020). Does perceived risk really matter in travel behaviour? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *26*(3), 334–353. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766720927762

Chadee, D., & Ditton, J. (2003). Are older people most afraid of crime? Revisiting Ferraro and LaGrange in Trinidad. *British Journal of Criminology*, *43*(2), 417–433.

https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/43.2.417
Chen, H.-J., Chen, P., & Okumus, F. (2013). The relationship between travel constraints and destination image: A case study of Brunei. *Tourism Management*, *35*, 198–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.07.004
Chew, E. Y. T., & Jahari, S. A. (2014). Destination image as a mediator between perceived risks and revisit intention: A case of post-disaster Japan. *Tourism Management*, *40*, 382–393. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.008
Chiang, C. Y., & Jogaratnam, G. (2006). Why do female travel solo for purposes of leisure? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *12*(1), 59–70. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766706059041
Chin, W. W., Peterson, R. A., & Brown, S. P. (2008). Structural equation modeling in marketing: Some practical reminders. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *16*(4), 287–298. https://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679160402
Christine, T. (2020). *Female-Only Tours To Pakistan, Israel And The Palestine Territories: Intrepid Travel Announces New Tours For Females.* https://www.forbes.com/sites/theresachristine/2020/02/26/female-only-tours-to-pakistan-israel--the-palestine-territories-intrepid-travel-announces-new-tours-for-females/#419b49d25854
Cohen, J. (1992). Statistical Power Analysis. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *1*(3), 98–101. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.ep10768783
Crawford, D. W., Jackson, E. L., & Godbey, G. (1991). A hierarchical model of leisure constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, *13*(4), 309–320. https://doi.org/10.1080/01490409109513147
Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *6*(4), 408–424. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(79)90004-5
Dale, N. F., & Ritchie, B. W. (2020). Understanding travel behavior: A study of school excursion motivations, constraints and behavior. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *43*(June 2019), 11–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.01.008
Dann, G. M. S. (1981). Tourist Motivation An Appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *8*(2).
Finucane, M. L., Slovic, P., Mertz, C. K., Flynn, J., & Satterfield, T. (2013). Gender, race and perceived risk: The 'white-'male' effect. *The Feeling of Risk: New Perspectives on Risk Perception*, *May 2015*, 125–139. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781849776677
Fleischer, A., & Pizam, A. (2002). Tourism constraints among Israeli seniors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 106–123. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00026-3
Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *21*(3), 555–581. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(94)90120-1
Fu, Y. K., & Wang, Y. J. (2020). Experiential value influences authentic happiness and behavioural intention: lessons from ' 'Taiwan's tourism accommodation sector. *Tourism Review*, *March*. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-06-2019-0228
Fu, Y., & Timothy, D. J. (2021). Social media constraints and destination images: The potential of barrier-free internet access for foreign tourists in an internet-restricted destination. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *37*(July 2020), 100771. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100771
Gauhar Uatay, Hae Young Lee, & Earl L. Reid. (2019). The Impact of Female 'Travelers' Travel Constraints on Attitude toward Solo Travel and Travel Intention. *Culinary Science & Hospitality Research*, *25*(9), 102–110. https://doi.org/10.20878/cshr.2019.25.9.013
Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., Thiele, K. O., & Thiele, K. O. (2017). Mirror , mirror on the wall : a comparative evaluation of composite-based structural equation modeling methods. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *45*(January), 616–632. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-017-0517-x
Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., Gudergan, S. P., Fischer, A., Nitzl, C., & Menictas, C. (2019). Partial least squares structural equation modeling-based discrete choice modeling: an illustration in modeling retailer choice. *Business Research*, *12*(1), 115–142. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40685-018-0072-4

Haq, R. (2018). *' 'Haq's Musings: ' 'Pakistan's $20 Billion Tourism Industry is Booming*. http://www.riazhaq.com/2018/01/pakistans-20-billion-tourism-industry.html

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). Testing measurement invariance of composites using partial least squares. *International Marketing Review*, *33*(3), 405–431. https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-09-2014-0304

Hsieh, C., Park, S. H., & Mcnally, R. (2016). Application of the Extended Theory of Planned Behavior to Intention to Travel to Japan Among Taiwanese Youth : Investigating the Moderating Effect of Past Visit Experience APPLICATION OF THE EXTENDED THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR TO INTENTION TO TRAVEL TO JA. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *33*(May), 717–729. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2016.1167387

Huang, S. (Sam), & Hsu, C. H. C. (2009). Effects of Travel Motivation, Past Experience, Perceived Constraint, and Attitude on Revisit Intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, *48*(January), 29–44. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287508328793

Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2012). Testing the effects of congruity , travel constraints , and self-ef fi cacy on travel intentions : An alternative decision-making model. *JTMA*, *33*(4), 855–867. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.09.007

Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *9*(2), 256–262. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(82)90049-4

Karl, M., Bauer, A., Ritchie, W. B., & Passauer, M. (2020). The impact of travel constraints on travel decision-making: A comparative approach of travel frequencies and intended travel participation. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *18*(February), 100471. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100471

Kaushik, A. K., & Chakrabarti, D. (2018). Does perceived travel risk influence ' 'tourist's revisit intention? *International Journal of Business Excellence*, *15*(3), 352–371. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJBEX.2018.092575

Khan, Mohammad J., Chelliah, S., & Ahmed, S. (2019). Intention to visit India among potential travellers: Role of travel motivation, perceived travel risks, and travel constraints. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *19*(3), 351–367. https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358417751025

Khan, Mohammad Jamal, Chelliah, S., & Ahmed, S. (2017). Factors influencing destination image and visit intention among young female travellers: role of travel motivation, perceived risks, and travel constraints. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *22*(11), 1139–1155. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2017.1374985

Khan, Mohammad Jamal, Chelliah, S., Khan, F., & Amin, S. (2019). Perceived risks, travel constraints and visit intention of young female travelers: the moderating role of travel motivation. *Tourism Review*, *74*(3), 721–738. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-08-2018-0116

Khan, Mohammad Jamal, Khan, F., Amin, S., & Chelliah, S. (2020). Perceived Risks, Travel Constraints, and Destination Perception: A Study on Sub-Saharan African Medical Travellers. *Sustainability*, *12*(7), 2807. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12072807

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2004). THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR: POTENTIAL TRAVELERS FROM CHINA. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *28*(4), 463–482. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348004267515

Lane, J., & Meeker, J. W. (2003). Female' 'Female's and ' 'men's fear of gang crimes: Sexual and nonsexual assault as perceptually contemporaneous offenses. *Justice Quarterly*, *20*(2), 337–371. https://doi.org/10.1080/07418820300095551

Lee, H. A., Guillet, B. D., Law, R., & Leung, R. (2012). Travel motivations and travel distance with temporal advance: A case study of Hong Kong pleasure travelers. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *1*(1–2), 107–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2012.05.001

Lee, K. B., Agarwal, S., & Kim, J. H. (2012). Influences of travel constraints on the people with disabilities' intention to travel : An application of Seligman' s helplessness theory. *Tourism Management*, *33*(3), 569–579. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.06.011

Lim, K., Cheah, S., Alananzeh, O., & Khor, P. (2019). Perceptions of risk and outbound tourism

travel intentions among young working Malaysians. *Dirasat, Human and Social Sciences*, *46*(1), 365–379.

Lin, B., & Fu, X. (2020). Gaze and tourist-host relationship – state of the art. *Tourism Review*, *March*. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-11-2019-0459

Little, D. E. (2002). Female and adventure recreation: Reconstructing leisure constraints and adventure experiences to negotiate continuing participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *34*(2), 157–177. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2002.11949967

Liu, H., Li, X. (Robert), Cárdenas, D. A., & Yang, Y. (2018). Perceived cultural distance and international destination choice: The role of destination familiarity, geographic distance, and cultural motivation. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *9*(February), 300–309. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.03.002

Liu, T., Gao, J., Zhu, M., & Qiu, Y. (2020). How career expectations influence advancement: evidence from female in the hospitality industry. *Tourism Review*, *ahead-of-p*(ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-12-2019-0513

Lu, J., Hung, K., Wang, L., Schuett, M. A., & Hu, L. (2016). Do perceptions of time affect outbound-travel motivations and intention? An investigation among Chinese seniors. *Tourism Management*, *53*, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.09.003

Ma, L., Zhang, X., Ding, X., & Wang, G. (2019). Risk perception and intention to discontinue use of ride-hailing services in China: Taking the example of DiDi Chuxing. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, *66*, 459–470. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2019.09.021

Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*(3), 399–419. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(92)90127-B

Marques, C., Mohsin, A., & Lengler, J. (2018). A multinational comparative study highlighting 'students' travel motivations and touristic trends. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *10*(June), 87–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.06.002

Mei, X. Y., & Lantai, T. (2018). Understanding travel constraints: An exploratory study of Mainland Chinese International Students (MCIS) in Norway. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *28*(February), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.07.003

Memon, A. M., Ting, H., Cheah, J.-H., Thurasamy, R., Chuah, F., & Huei Cham, T. (2020). Sample size for survey research: Review and recommendations. *Journal of Applied Structural Equation Modeling*, *4*(2), 2590–4221.

Mullens, F., & Glorieux, I. (2019). No interest, no time! Gendered constraints to museum visits in Flanders. *Loisir et Société / Society and Leisure*, *42*(2), 244–265. https://doi.org/10.1080/07053436.2019.1626036

Murdy, S., Alexander, M., & Bryce, D. (2018). What pulls ancestral tourists' 'home'? An analysis of ancestral tourist motivations. *Tourism Management*, *64*, 13–19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.07.011

Mutanga, C. N., Vengesayi, S., Chikuta, O., Muboko, N., & Gandiwa, E. (2017). Travel motivation and tourist satisfaction with wildlife tourism experiences in Gonarezhou and Matusadona National Parks, Zimbabwe. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, *20*(August), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2017.08.001

OECD. (2020). OECD Tourism Trends and Policies 2020. In *Oecd* (Issue June). OECD. https://doi.org/10.1787/6b47b985-en

Osman, H., Brown, L., & Phung, T. M. T. (2020). The travel motivations and experiences of female Vietnamese solo travellers. *Tourist Studies*, *20*(2), 248–267. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468797619878307

Pan, L., Lu, L., & Zhang, T. (2021). Destination gender: Scale development and cross-cultural validation. *Tourism Management*, *83*(September 2020). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104225

Papathanassis, A., & Dinu, N. R. (2019). *Yellow Tourism* (A. Papathanassis, S. Katsios, & N. R. Dinu (eds.)). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-

94664-1

Parrey, S. H., Hakim, I. A., & Rather, R. A. (2018). Mediating role of government initiatives and media influence between perceived risks and destination image: a study of conflict zone. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, *5*(1), 90–106. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJTC-02-2018-0019

Phillips, W., & Jang, S. (2007). Destination Image and Visit Intention: Examining the Moderating Role of Motivation. *Tourism Analysis*, *12*(4), 319–326. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354207782212387

Promsivapallop, P., & Kannaovakun, P. (2018). Travel risk dimensions, personal-related factors, and intention to visit a destination: a study of young educated German adults. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *23*(7), 639–655. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2018.1485718

Qiu, Y., Lin, Y., & Mowen, A. J. (2018). Constraints to Chinese female' 'female's leisure-time physical activity across different stages of participation. *World Leisure Journal*, *60*(1), 29–44. https://doi.org/10.1080/16078055.2017.1340331

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Ringle, C. M., Jaafar, M., & Ramayah, T. (2017). Urban vs. rural destinations: 'Residents' perceptions, community participation and support for tourism development. *Tourism Management*, *60*, 147–158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.11.019

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Taheri, B., Gannon, M., Vafaei-Zadeh, A., & Hanifah, H. (2019). Does living in the vicinity of heritage tourism sites influence 'residents' perceptions and attitudes? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *27*(9), 1295–1317. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2019.1618863

Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., Mitchell, R., & Siegfried, P. G. (2018). Partial least squares structural equation modeling in HRM research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *January*, 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2017.1416655

Russel, C., & Prideaux, B. (2014). An Analysis of Risk Perceptions in a Tropical Destination and a Suggested Risk Destination Risk Model. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure*, *10*, 91–108. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1745-354220140000010005

Sarstedt, M., Henseler, J., & Ringle, C. M. (2011). Multigroup Analysis in Partial Least Squares (PLS) Path Modeling: Alternative Methods and Empirical Results. In *Advances in International Marketing* (Vol. 22, Issue 2011, pp. 195–218). https://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979(2011)0000022012

Sayira, T., & Andrews, H. (2016). Impacts of crises and communication media on place image: A case study of Chilas, Pakistan. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *5*(4), 351–360. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2016.09.010

Shahvali, M., Shahvali, R., & Kerstetter, D. (2017). Female' 'Female's travel constraints in a unique context. In *Tourist behaviour: an international perspective* (Issue January 2017, pp. 16–25). CABI. https://doi.org/10.1079/9781780648125.0016

Stark, J., & Meschik, M. (2018). Female' 'Female's everyday mobility: Frightening situations and their impacts on travel behaviour. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, *54*, 311–323. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2018.02.017

Tan, W.-K., & Huang, S.-Y. (2020). Why visit theme parks? A leisure constraints and perceived authenticity perspective. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *57*(June), 102194. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2020.102194

Tan, W. (2017). Repeat visitation : A study from the perspective of leisure constraint , tourist experience , destination images , and experiential familiarity. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *6*(3), 233–242. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2016.04.003

Van der Merwe, P., Slabbert, E., & Saayman, M. (2011). Travel motivations of tourists to selected marine destinations. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *13*(5), 457–467. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.820

Wen, J., Huang, S. (Sam), & Goh, E. (2020). Effects of perceived constraints and negotiation on learned helplessness: A study of Chinese senior outbound tourists. *Tourism Management*, *78*(May 2019), 104059. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.104059

Wilson, B. (2019). *This Popular Solo Female Travel Vlogger Thinks Pakistan Could Be The ' 'World's No. 1 Tourism Destination.* https://www.forbes.com/sites/breannawilson/2019/10/11/this-popular-solo-female-travel-vlogger-thinks-pakistan-could-be-the-worlds-1-tourism-destination/#248f69192707

WILSON, E., & LITTLE, D. E. (2008). a """""""Relative Escape" """""""? the Impact of Constraints on Female Who Travel Solo. *Tourism Review International*, *9*(2), 155–175. https://doi.org/10.3727/154427205774791672

Wong, B. K. M., Musa, G., & Taha, A. Z. (2017). Malaysia my second home: The influence of push and pull motivations on satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *61*, 394–410. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.03.003

Yang, E. C. L., Khoo-Lattimore, C., & Arcodia, C. (2017). A systematic literature review of risk and gender research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *58*, 89–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.10.011

Yang, E. C. L., Khoo-Lattimore, C., & Arcodia, C. (2018). Power and empowerment: How Asian solo female travellers perceive and negotiate risks. *Tourism Management*, *68*, 32–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.02.017

Yang, E. C. L., Yang, M. J. H., & Khoo-Lattimore, C. (2019). The meanings of solo travel for Asian female. *Tourism Review*, *74*(5), 1047–1057. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-10-2018-0150

Ying, T., Wei, W., Wen, J., Wang, L., & Ye, S. (2018). Chinese cigar tourists to Cuba: A motivation-based segmentation. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *10*(July), 112–121. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.07.003

Ying, T., & Wen, J. (2019). Exploring the male Chinese 'tourists' motivation for commercial sex when travelling overseas: Scale construction and validation. *Tourism Management*, *70*(September 2018), 479–490. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.09.014

Yousaf, S., & Li, H. (2015). Social identity, collective self esteem and country reputation: The case of Pakistan. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, *24*(4), 399–411. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-04-2014-0548

Zhang, H., Yang, Y., Zheng, C., & Zhang, J. (2016). Too dark to revisit? The role of past experiences and intrapersonal constraints. *Tourism Management*, *54*, 452–464. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.01.002.