

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to identify the most important push factors that drive tourists to travel and the most important pull factors that attract them to specific destinations. In addition, it provides a clear picture concerning the Islamic attributes of destination in the context of Islamic teachings that may lead to tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty.

It starts with a review of the tourism literature to define tourism motivation, followed by a discussion of tourism motivation theories with a focus on the theory of pull and push motivation; the selected theory for this study. Then, the chapter presents the research gaps related to tourism motivation. Next, the chapter presents a detailed examination of tourist satisfaction and its relationship with tourism motivation and destination loyalty. Then the chapter presents the research gaps related to tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty. Lastly, the Islamic attributes of destination are also discussed followed by related research gaps.

2.2 Tourism Motivation

An investigation of the real reasons related to why people travel and what they want to enjoy can be quite complex. One way to approach the subject is to investigate the motivational aspects of tourism, although it is only one of multiple variables that explain behaviour such as perceptions, cultural, learning, and social influences, motives are the initial point that starts the decision process (Crompton & McKay, 1997). In psychology and

sociology, the motivation is directed towards external and internal motives (Gnoth, 1997). An external motive entails intellectual representations such as beliefs or knowledge. An internal motive is related to feelings, drives, and instincts. Motivation is known as the primary force that stimulates such behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1999). Behaviour is a process of internal psychological factors such as needs and goals, which can, to some extent, produce tension. This leads to behaviour that is designed to liberate this tension in diverse forms (Beh & Bruyere, 2007).

As a dynamic concept, motivation differs from one destination to another, from one market segment to another, from one person to another, and from one decision-making process to the next (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Witt & Wright, 1992). According to Iso-Ahola (1989, p. 249), “psychologists generally agree that a search for some optimum level of arousal or general stimulation underlies most psychological motives”. Motive refers to internal forces and external goals and incentives that direct, express, and integrate a person’s behaviour, for future possible satisfaction (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Therefore, motivation is an interpersonal phenomenon. This has prompted researchers to investigate the psychological experience of pleasure and recreational travel (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Thus, Tourism motivation is a dynamic process of internal emotional factors (wants and needs) that create tension or disequilibrium within individuals. These internal needs and the disequilibrium lead to actions being taken that are aimed to restore the equilibrium by satisfying the needs (Crompton, 1979).

Need and motivation are interconnected according to consumer behaviour literature (e.g. Goodall, 1988; Witt & Wright, 1992). The existence of the former creates the latter. People may plan to take a journey to fulfil their psychological and physiological needs –

psychological such as relaxation and adventure, and physiological such as food, health, and climate (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). In line with that, Beerli and Martin (2004) defined motivation as “the need that drives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction”. Motivation is viewed as biological needs and wants that stimulate and incorporate a person’s behaviour and activity (Dann, 1981; Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

Desiring something and needing something are two different things. Desire is a recognized need and the difference between needs and desires is awareness. Thus, motivation comes to mind when an individual aims to satisfy a recognized need (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Therefore, Motivation is conceptually viewed as “a state of need, a condition that serves as a driving force to display different kinds of behavior toward certain types of activities, developing preferences, arriving at some expected satisfactory outcome” (Backman et al., 1995 Cited in Kim et al., 2007).

Jang and Wu (2006) pointed out that “*motivation refers to a psychological condition in which an individual is oriented towards and tries to achieve a kind of fulfillment*”. Mook (1996) also defined motivation as the source of human behaviour. According to Moutinho (2000), motivation is a condition or a need that forces an individual in the direction of certain kinds of action that probably bring satisfaction. Heckhausen (1989) pointed out that each motive has its different sort of contents in the form of goals of behaviour. “Contents” means that an individual desires from a range of learned actions, while the “goals” are related to the consequences of one’s actions.

Gnoth (1997) pointed out that “drive” is a central concept in both emotion and behaviourist psychology and it is considered the energizer for behaviour, which may be

explained by motivation. Therefore, motivation is one of the factors that help to explain travel behaviour. It has been suggested that motivation should be seen as only one of the many factors that contribute to predicting tourist behaviour and several or multi-motives affect the travel decision (Crompton, 1979; Pearce, 1982). Pizam (1979) suggested that tourist motivation refers to the set of wants that influence (or push) an individual to travel and participate in travel-related activities.

2.3 Tourism Motivation Theories

Understanding travel motivation has been covered by theoretical papers, which revealed a base for different tourism motivation theories; for example Crompton's theory, expectancy theory, the means-end theory, and drive theory (Card & Kestel, 1988; Cohen, 1972; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1976, 1977; Dann, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Iso-Ahola, 1982, 1983; Pearce, 1982; Pyo et al., 1989; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Although there are many competing theories that try to explain travel motivation, which is not an easy task, Pearce (1982) argues that no single theory of travel motivation can completely explain tourist behaviour. He suggests that travel motivation theory should take into consideration long term goals, measurement issues, multi motive causes of behaviour, the perspective of the observer, and the qualitatively different nondeterministic nature of fundamentally motivated behaviours.

Fodness (1994) also argued that each travel motivation theory has its strengths and weaknesses, and empirical support and more operationalization are required. In the current study, the theory of interest, which the researcher thinks it may serve the objective of the

study, is well known with the theory of pull and push motivation by Tolman (1959) and later by Dann (1977).

Most of the competing theories that try to explain travel motivation are based on the concept of internal and external forces. In the following sections the most popular motivation theories are briefly discussed:

2.3.1 The Expectancy Theory of Motivation

One of the popular motivation theories in tourism motivation literature is the expectancy theory. The expectancy theory of motivation has been refined and expanded by Deci (1975) and Deci and Ryan (1987). Deci and Ryan (1987) argued that motivation is shaped by a self-directed start or self-determination of behaviour and may generate personally satisfying experiences. Tourism motivation was addressed by previous researchers such as Parrinello (1993) and Gnoth (1997) in terms of expectation, which observe people as being pulled by the expectancy of outcomes.

2.3.2 Hierarchy of Human Needs Theory

Maslow's needs hierarchy is "perhaps the most popular theory of motivation used by leisure authors" (Iso-Ahola, 1980, p.233). Maslow categorized human needs into five types ascending from the most fundamental, which were physiological needs, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs, and he suggested that one need appears once a more fundamental need is satisfied. However, Iso-Ahola (1980:p.234) reported that "While the theory is intuitively appealing its basic tenet (hierarchy of needs) remains highly suspect". Moreover, Crompton and McKay (1997) claimed that no empirical evidence for Maslow's

needs hierarchy theory has been found in the tourism literature to this point, and it did not appear to be helpful in the context of tourism study.

Maslow's (1954, cited in Uysal & Hagan, 1993) hierarchy of needs has been suggested by Hudman (1980) as a basis for push factors of travel. The six levels of needs that are related to the push factors of travel motivation are (Uysal & Hagan, 1993): (1) Need for self actualization; (2) Need for self-esteem; (3) Need for recognition/status; (4) Need for belonging; (5) Need for safety/security; and (6) Need for physiological/requirements.

2.3.3 Crompton's Theory

Crompton (1979) suggested that motives can be conceptualized as being located along a cultural-social-psychological disequilibrium continuum. None of the social-psychological motives for every individual are expressed explicitly but Crompton has specifically identified seven social-psychological motives for travel, as follows: (1) Escape from a perceived mundane environment; (2) Exploration and evaluation; (3) Relaxation; (4) Prestige; (5) Regression; (6) Enhancement of kinship relationships; and (7) Facilitation of social interaction.

The idea behind Crompton's theory is that before the travel experience or the long-awaited vacation, there is a disequilibrium in the individual's cultural-social-psychological needs. Then, after travelling or during the vacation, equilibrium of those needs is established. In addition, Maslow (1954) pointed out that an unsatisfied (disequilibrium) need, not the gratified (equilibrium) need, energizes and directs human action.

2.3.4 The Drive Theory

Gnoth (1997) claimed that the drive theory explains tourists' expectation formation without experience-based cognition in decision-making processes. Non-selective activity is generated by feelings of deficiency and the force of the drive is related to the duration of deficiency. Therefore, the drive theory is part of the stimulus-reaction (S-R) approach to behaviour (Gnoth, 1997). The drive theory assumes that a result gains its positive value by its potential for drive-reduction, referring to the physiological deficiency, which produces a tension that creates non-selective activity. Associations with crucial needs such as food, relaxation, and rest increase the value for returns (Porter & Lawler, 1968; p.11).

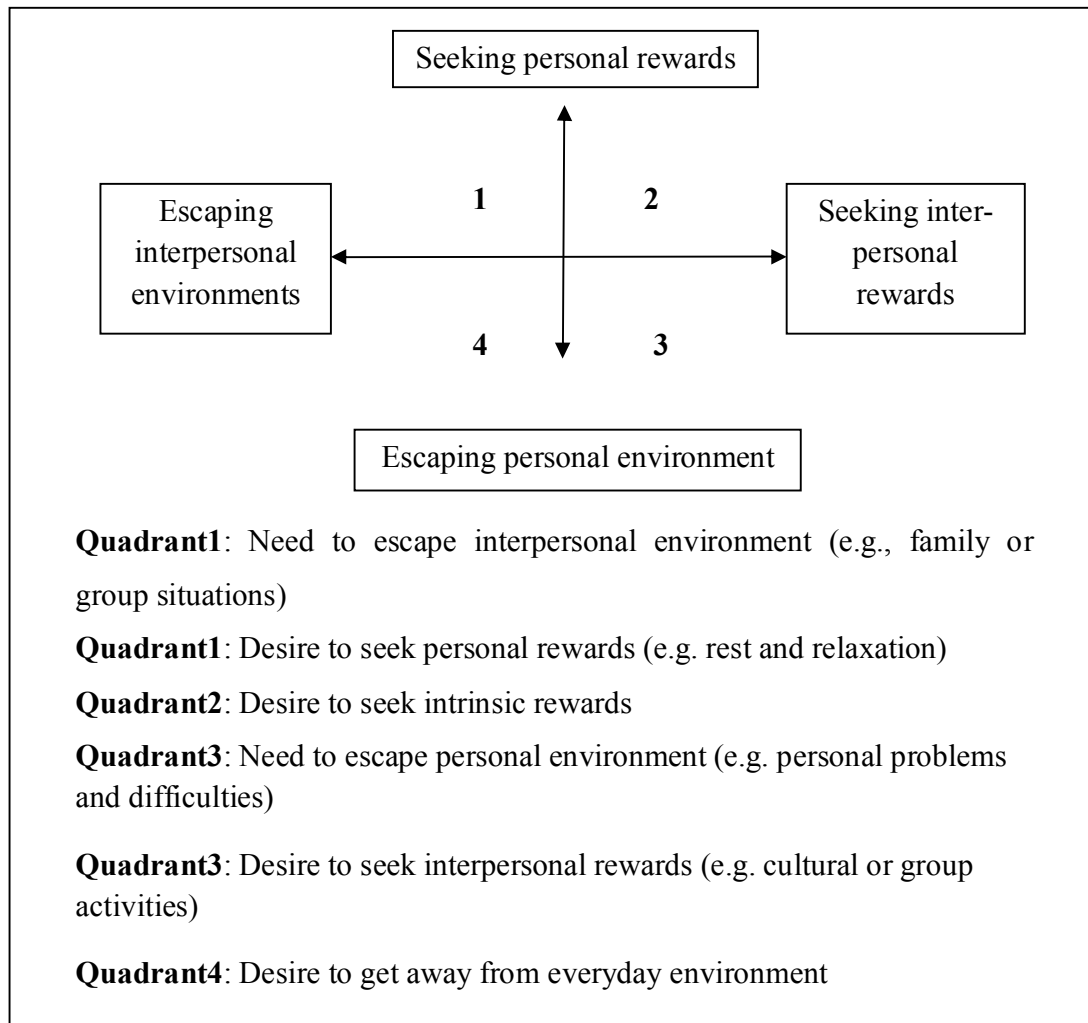
2.3.5 The Means-End Theory

The means-end theory is also used as a practical framework to examine the push and pull relationship. The 'means' refer to the destination attributes, while the 'ends' refer to the motivational forces, which are important to the traveller in selecting potential destinations (Uysal et al., 2008). Klenosky (2002) used the means-end approach to examine which factors help in choosing from among the alternative destinations to travel for vacation. The means-end theory can help to determine the destination attributes that attract tourists to select specific destinations and examines the relationships between these destination attributes and the motivational forces. In other words, the means-end theory provides an alternative approach for examining the extent to which these higher level forces match the destination attributes that influence tourists to travel to specific destinations.

2.3.6 Seeking/Escaping Theory

Dann (1981) determined two basic travel motivations; anomie and ego-enhancement. Anomie represents the desire to get away from daily life and ego-enhancement obtains from the need for recognition, which is gained by the status conferred by travel. In the same context, Iso-Ahola (1982) also recognized two motivational forces that become determinants of tourism behaviour; seeking and escaping. Escaping is “the desire to leave the everyday environment behind oneself”, while seeking is “the desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through travel in a contrasting (new or old) environment”.

According to Iso-Ahola (1982), the ‘escape-seeking’ forces concurrently influence the individual’s travel behaviour. Iso-Ahola’s escape-seeking dichotomy and the concept of push-pull factors are interconnected. Iso-Ahola’s model of tourism motivation is similar to generic categories to the push (escape) and pull (seeking) factors, which were introduced by Dann (1977, 1981) and Crompton (1979). According to Iso-Ahola (1982), an individual traveller can be found in any one of the four quadrants at a given time and under certain conditions (See Figure 2.1). Iso-Ahola (1989) suggests that each quadrant by itself or with other quadrants are the driving forces for travel. The seeking and escape forces were subdivided into personal and interpersonal aspects. Therefore, a tourist may escape the personal world such as personal problems and/or the interpersonal world such as family members. He may seek personal rewards such as rest and relaxation and/or interpersonal rewards such as interacting with old friends in a new place (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 60).



Source: (Iso-Ahola, 1989)

Figure 2.1: Seeking and Escape Forces

2.3.7 Pull and Push Motivation Theory

Dann (1977), following Tolman’s work (1959) introduced the concept of pull-push of tourist motivation in tourism research. In answering the question “what makes tourist travel” he indicated that there is a distinction between “push” and “pull” factors. The theory assumes that people travel because they are pushed by internal desire and pulled by external forces (Uysal et al., 2008). The concepts of ‘push’ and ‘pull’ intimate that people travel because they are pushed and pulled to do so by “forces”. These forces describe how

individuals are pushed by motivational factors to take a travel decision and how they are pulled or attracted by the destination attributes (Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

The literature on tourist motivation emphasizes that the explanation of travel motivation based on the theory of push and pull motivation has been generally established (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Bogari et al., 2004; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kozak, 2002a; Oh et al., 1995; Pyo et al., 1989; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). The theory assumes that individuals travel and select their tourism destinations according to different push and pull motivational factors. Basically, this is a two-step process involving push factors, which motivate an individual to leave his/her home, and pull factors, which draw an individual to travel to a specific place. While much has been written about the theory of push and pull factors and some researchers (e.g., Baloglu & Uysal 1996; Bogari et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2003; Uysal & Jurowski 1994; You et al., 2000) have investigated the relationship between the two variables (why people desire to go on a holiday, and why they select particular places), the relationship, and the theory in general, seem to be more complex than has been described.

Push factors are seen to be those socio-psychological variables of individuals that persuade them to travel and help explain the travel desire (Crompton, 1979; Goossens, 2000; Klenosky, 2002; Kozak, 2002b; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Thus, most of the push factors are fundamental motivators and origin-related factors that generate a desire to satisfy a travel need (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Klenosky (2002) claimed that "*Push factors refer to the specific forces in our lives that lead to the decision to take a vacation (i.e., to travel outside of our normal daily environment)*". Furthermore, most of the push factors are insubstantial desires of the tourists. A review of the literature suggests that people are

initially pushed by internal desires to travel, which may include rest and relaxation, escape, social interaction, meeting with family, health and fitness, increasing knowledge, adventure, and prestige (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994).

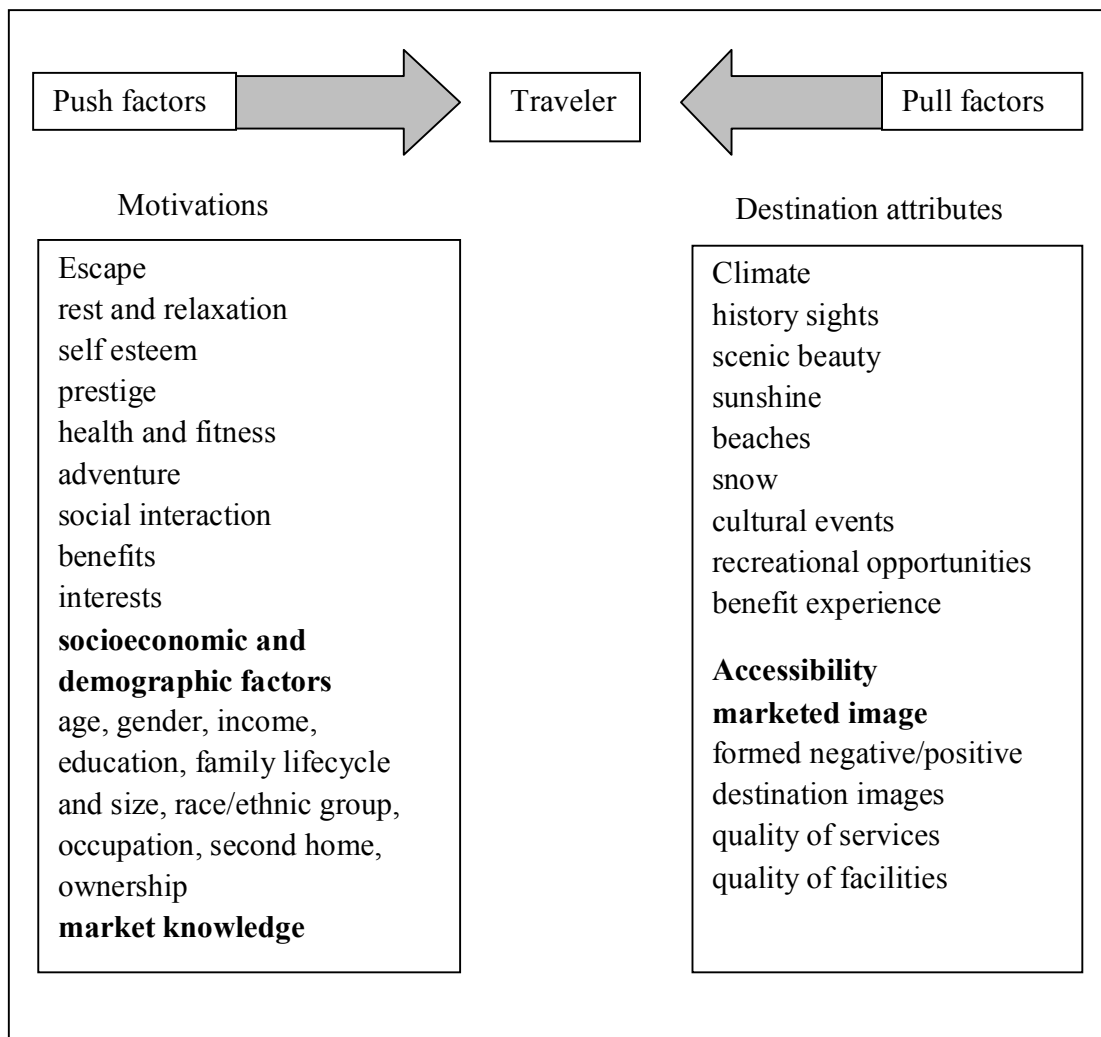
Kim et al. (2003) argued that "*push factors have been conceptualized as motivational factors or needs that arise due to a disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system*". Push factors motivate or generate a desire to travel (Crompton, 1979; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Kim et al., 2006; Uysal et al., 1993). Uysal and Hagan (1993) stressed that push factors are origin-related and refer to intangible, intrinsic desires of the individual traveller. The push domain focused on the 'why' question (socio-psychological predisposition to travel) (Dann, 1981). In other words, push forces are considered as 'the desire to travel' and associated with the decision 'whether to go' (Kim et al., 2007). It is believed to be related to an individual's intention to use or not to use the entire class of products (e.g., in tourism, to take a trip or to do an alternative leisure activity). The destination marketing should focus on push motives to improve the destination's competitiveness. Knowing why people travel may help to provide appropriate attractions and activities for them (Correia et al., 2007).

Pull factors, on the other hand, are those emerging from the destination's attractiveness, as perceived by individual travellers (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). They give signs as to what external attributes attract people and pull them to visit particular destinations (Klenosky, 2002; Uysal & Hagan, 1993; You et al., 2000; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Klenosky (2002) argued that "*Pull factors refer to those that lead an individual to select one destination over another once the decision to travel has been made*". They include both tangible resources, such as recreation, facilities, beaches, and cultural attractions, and traveller's perceptions and expectations, such as benefit expectation,

novelty, and marketing image (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Thus, Pull forces are related to the decision 'where to go' (Kim et al., 2007).

The pull factors refer to a mixture of facilities and services that all contribute to the destination attractiveness for people in a selection situation (Hu & Ritchie, 1993). Once a tourist decides to travel, it is the pull factors that attract the tourist to select a particular destination (Oh et al., 1995). Pull factors are the 'destination attributes' or 'drawing powers', which respond to the push factors of motivations. Destination attributes can either be material resources or the perceived expectations of the tourist (Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

The push and pull theory of travel motivation can be used for explaining travel patterns and behaviour. The main elements of travel motivations – pull and push – may represent two major elements of the market place: demand and supply. Some push factors are the behaviour results of an inner emotional state and pose opportunities for interaction and participation. These factors are the essence of travel motivation in the first place, representing the demand side of the equation. Thus, potential and actual visitors are the ones who seem to have more control over these attributes. The responses to the demand side or pull factors, including benefits sought at the destination or desired features in a hotel would then naturally represent the supply side of the travel experience. Therefore, the pull factors are mainly maintenance attributes without which one might not achieve some degree of tourist satisfaction (Uysal et al., 2008). Figure 2.2 shows examples of push and pull factors that motivate the individual to travel.



Source: (Uysal & Hagan, 1993)

Figure 2.2: Pull and Push Factors.

Exploratory research on tourism motivation determined several basic motivational dimensions, namely: sociopsychological, prestige, cultural, social, educational, and utilitarian (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994). After Crompton's initial effort, some studies have tried to find push and pull motivational factors in different contexts such as nationalities (such as Cha et al., 1995; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Zhang & Lam, 1999), destinations (Jang & Cai, 2002) and events (such as Lee et al., 2004; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). The regular push factors revealed in most of the studies may include family

togetherness, relaxation, and knowledge-seeking, while most frequent pull factors include environment, facilities, natural and historic, cost, ease of access, and safety (Jang & Wu, 2006).

According to Uysal et al. (2008) push and pull factors are the forces at play in choosing a destination. The choices depend on a number of variables. The variables used in explaining selection decisions usually fall into four groups: (a) internal variables (i.e. push motivation, lifestyles, values, images, tourists' personality); (b) external variables (i.e., destination pull factors, hindrances, marketing mix, family and reference group influences, social class, household-related variables such as power structure, lifestyle, and group decision making style); (c) the features of the proposed trip (party size, distance, time, and trip duration); and (d) trip experiences (feeling or mood while on vacation, post-purchase assessment); the nature of interaction among all these variables results in the ultimate choice of a destination.

Travel is seldom the result of a single motive; rather, it is a multipart form of behaviour in which the person tries to satisfy diverse needs (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). A number of researchers claim that tourists could have a variety of motivations to travel (Crompton, 1979; Kozak, 2002a; Mansfeld, 1992; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). For example, the demand for unusual destinations is mainly decided by social and intellectual rewards and even just to relax (Correia et al., 2007).

2.4 Importance of Tourism Motivation

In the tourism field, researchers, marketers, and practitioners are interested in determining why people travel and why they select a particular destination. Therefore, understanding the theory of pull and push motivations gives several benefits for destination marketers (Correia et al., 2007; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Dann, 1977; Fodness, 1994; Gnoth, 1997; Kim et al., 2007; Klenosky, 2002; Kozak, 2002b; Lee et al., 2004; Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Uysal and Jurowski (1994) pointed out that knowledge about push and pull factors can aid destination marketers and tourism destination developers in determining the most successful push and pull factors.

Crompton and McKay (1997) argued that understanding travel motivations may help as follows; (a) understanding tourists' motivations would pave the way for providing better products and services, (b) satisfaction with the tourism experience is fundamentally related to the preliminary motives of tourists, and (c) motives must be determined before destination marketers can understand the decision-making processes.

Many researchers argued that tourists' decisions are best expected by the push and pull approach in decision making travel (Kim et al., 2007). Klenosky (2002) claimed that the pull and push theory has been known as a useful framework for marketers to examine the different factors that persuade travellers to take a trip and, given that decision, the factors that attract that traveller to select a specific destination. Gnoth (1997) also reported that the push and pull theory help in behaviour explanation for practical and managerial reasons as well as assist in the satisfaction of its original cognitive and arousing motives. Uysal and Jurowski (1994) also suggested that simultaneous examination of destination

attributes and tourist motivation helps in designing marketing programmes and in decision making of destination development. Uysal et al. (2008) also pointed out that they allow destination managers to remain competitive and increase their market share.

The advantage of approaching tourist motivation from the perspective of push and pull factors is to understand the relative importance of destinations attributes as part of motivation factors and the degree to which destination marketers might have control over some of these factors (Uysal et al., 2008). Understanding that tourists are motivated by several variables is important to destination area developers who must be able to present a broad array of activities, attractions and services to meet the specific psychological needs of the individual traveller (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). According to empirical findings, destination marketers would either promote destination attributes that meet tourist motivations or focus on a different market where tourist motivations and destination attractions meet each other (Kozak, 2002a).

Understanding travel motivation could help in the markets segmentation; thereby tourism marketers can maximize allocation of scarce tourism resources and promote their tourism destinations (Correia et al., 2007; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Lee et al., 2004; Uysal et al., 2008). Effective tourism marketing would be impractical without an understanding of travel motivation (Fodness, 1994). Iso-Ahola (1982) also stated that motivation is one of the most important determinants of leisure travel. Furthermore, the delineation of underlying motivations gives practical insights by understanding the destination selection decision processes (Crompton, 1979).

Getz (1991, p. 84) highlighted the importance of understanding tourists' motives for attending festivals and events. In a planning and resource management context, motivation knowledge enables key players to identify usage levels of specific resources, however, they are requested to continuously observe motivation behaviour (Gnoth, 1997).

2.5 Push and Pull Motivation Relationship

The push and pull motivation, as mentioned earlier, represent the base for understanding tourist behaviour. However, the interaction of pull and push is considered debateable in tourism literature. In general, these factors have been distinguished as relating to two split decisions made at two separate spots in time. One of them concentrates on whether to go and the other on where to go (Kim et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007; Klenosky, 2002). Although these are separate decisions, many researchers have discussed these factors and described them as not operating independently of one another. For example, Kim et al. (2006) pointed out that they are interconnected in that tourists may take vacation decisions unintentionally or intentionally at a single point in time.

One of the suggestions is that tourists travel because they are pushed by their own internal desires and simultaneously pulled by the external factors of a destination's attributes (Cha & McCleary, 1995; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994). Other researchers described the pull factors of a destination as responding to the motivational push (Oh et al., 1995). Thus, it is suggested that a tourist's attitude towards a vacation destination reflects a destination's ability to pull or attract the tourist. However, the hypothesis is that in order for a destination attribute to meaningfully strengthen the motivation to travel, it should be perceived by the tourist as pulling him/her. This approach to motivation is from an

interactions perspective, using destination 'pull' in response to motivational 'push' (Uysal et al., 2008).

Uysal et al. (2008) claimed that people travel or indulge in leisure activities because they are pushed or pulled by the forces of motivation and destination attributes. Thus, Dann (1981) pointed out that tourists' motivation should be examined in a two tiered framework; 'push' and 'pull' domains. Crompton (1979) argued that push factors "may be useful not only in explaining the initial arousal, energizing, or 'push' to take a vacation, but may also have directive potential to direct the tourists toward a particular destination" (p. 412). Dann (1981) also noted that "once the trip has been decided upon, where to go, what to see or what to do (relating to the specific destinations) can be tackled. Thus, analytically, and often both logically and temporally, push factors precede pull factors".

Push factors are said to predispose individuals to travel, while pull factors shed light on the destination selection decision (Uysal et al., 2008). Although the two variables have been seen as relating to different decisions, they should not be viewed as operating completely independently of each other (Dann, 1981, p. 191, p. 206). Uysal and Jurowski (1994) also supported the correlation between push and pull factors indicating the existing relationship between them.

Crompton (1979) pointed out that disequilibrium in an individual's cultural, social, and psychological needs can be a primary motivation for travel. He suggested that people live in a socio-psychological equilibrium, which may become unstable over time. This can occur during a period of routinized and repetitive action, such as at work or in the home environment. The need for change, relaxation, or escape from a perceived mundane

environment results in psychological disequilibrium. The interaction between the two also has a behavioural dimension that not only includes reasons for travel but also the perception of destination attributes.

Some studies with canonical correlation analysis (such as Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Oh et al., 1995; Pyo et al., 1989) demonstrate that there is a reciprocal interaction between push and pull factors of travel behaviour. For example, Pyo et al. (1989) attempted to delineate the nature and extent of the relationship between two sets of factors, motives (push) and destination attributes (pull), by utilizing canonical correlation analysis. They demonstrated that it is possible to combine attraction attributes with motives. One of their four variates for the US touring trip market revealed that tours to museums and galleries should meet intellectual needs. Destinations with attributes of outdoor recreation, nightlife activities, and amusement parks should try to cater to social and stimulation motives (Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

It is assumed that push and pull factors are interrelated and, thus, should be understood as critical factors that influence people's trip decision and their efforts to meet individual needs and desires (Kim et al., 2006). However, Kim et al. (2007) argue that while these two sets of forces seem to be independent, it should be noted that they are actually interdependent, as individuals, be it consciously or unconsciously, base their travel decisions on both, and take them in a two-step process. Bogari et al. (2004) also supported that significant relationships were found between the push and pull factors.

2.6 Push and Pull Motivation Factors

Several studies of push and pull factors have been identified in destination marketing research. However, some studies focus on identifying **both push and pull factors** (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Crompton, 1979; Oh et al., 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Yuan & McDonald, 1990), while others give more attention to **push factors only** (Cha & McCleary, 1995; Fodness, 1994) **or pull factors only** (Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997). Moreover, the approaches used in these studies to determine push and pull factors are also different. Some used qualitative approaches such as personal interviews (Crompton, 1979), others focused more on scale development approaches (Dann, 1978; Fodness, 1994) and others utilized multivariate analyses (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Crompton, 1979; Oh et al., 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Some studies tried to explore the relationship between push and pull factors (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Kim & Chalip, 2004; Kim et al., 2003; Oh et al., 1995)

2.6.1 Push and Pull Studies

Crompton's study (1979) first sought to identify push and pull relationships in tourism. The study used unstructured in-depth interviews and classified nine resulting motivational categories as "socio-psychological motives" or "cultural motives". The socio-psychological motives (push factors) include "escape from a perceived mundane environment", "exploration and evaluation of self", "relaxation", "prestige", "regression", "enhancement of kinship relationship", and "facilitation of social interaction" while the cultural motives (pull factors) were "novelty", and "education", which are at least partially aroused by the particular qualities of a destination.

Devesa et al. (2010) empirically studied the relationship between motivation and tourist satisfaction in the rural tourism sector in Spain. Seventeen pull and push items were used in cluster analysis. The study results revealed four market segments, namely: “a visitor looking for tranquillity, rest and contact with nature”, “cultural visitor”, “proximity-gastronomic and nature visitor”, and “return tourist”. The results of the study also indicated that tourists evaluate activities and destination attributes according to the determined objective of the trip.

Sangpikul (2008) adopted a push and pull motivations framework to examine tourism motivations of Japanese senior travellers to Thailand. By using factor analysis, three push factors were extracted: “novelty and knowledge-seeking”, “rest and relaxation” and “ego-enhancement”. Four pull factors were also derived, labelled: “cultural and historical attractions”, “travel arrangements and facilities”, “shopping and leisure activities”, and “safety and cleanliness”. The study found that “novelty and knowledge-seeking” and “cultural and historical attractions” are the most important push and pull factors, respectively. The results also indicated that “psychological well-being” and “education” influence the travel motivations of Japanese senior travellers to Thailand.

Correia et al. (2007) examined the relationships between the push and pull motivations to identify their contribution to the destination perception. By using factor analysis, fifteen push motives (items) were reduced to three push factors and nineteen pull motives were reduced to three pull factors. The three push factors were named: “knowledge”, “leisure”, and “socialization” while the three pull factors were labelled: “facilities”, “core attractions” and “landscape features”. Moreover, the study used structural equation modelling to investigate the relationships among push and pull factors and overall

perception of the destination. The results indicate that the relationships are weaker than the relationship between pull and push and the six motivator factors affecting the formation of the perceptions and the choice of a tourist destination.

Jang and Wu (2006) attempted to investigate the travel motivation of Taiwanese seniors. By using twenty-three push and twelve pull items of travel motivation, five push factors resulted from the factor analysis and were labelled; “ego-enhancement”, “self-esteem”, “knowledge seeking”, “relaxation”, and “socialization”. Three pull factors were derived, namely: “cleanliness & safety”, “facilities”, “event & cost”, and “natural & historical sight”. “Knowledge seeking” and “ego-enhancement” were the most important factors to motivate the Taiwanese seniors followed by “relaxation” and “socialization”. The results of the study indicate that the pull motivations are stronger factors in Taiwanese seniors than the push motivations, and that “health status” and “positive and negative affects” significantly influence the travel motivation of Taiwanese seniors.

Kim et al. (2006) conducted a study on how university students are pushed and pulled when making trip-decisions to international destinations. By using a web-based survey, the respondents were asked to determine how important each item is from a list of thirty-one push and twenty-five pull motivation items. Seven push factors and six pull factors were extracted by principal components factor analysis. The push factors were labelled: “escape”, “seeing and learning”, “adventure and thrill”, “visiting friends and relative”, “indulgence”, “nature”, and “fun and entertainment”. The pull factors were labelled: “sun and beaches”, “time and cost”, “sports”, “attractions”, “family”, and “natural environment”.

Kau and Lim (2005) conducted a study to understand the factors motivating tourists from China to visit Singapore and their levels of satisfaction with Singaporean attributes. Twenty-eight push items were used for factor analysis resulting in six factors, which were labelled: “prestige/knowledge”, “escape/relax”, “adventure/excitement”, “exploration”, “pleasure seeking/sightseeing” and “enhance family/social relationship”. While nine factors were extracted from forty-six destination attributes, namely: “attractions/activities”, “service quality/hospitality”, “food and accommodation”, “level of prices”, “shopping”, “Chinese language communication”, “environment”, “airport and local transport”. Moreover, the study clustered the respondents into four main segments labelled as “family/relaxation seekers”, “novelty seekers”, “adventure/pleasure seekers”, and “prestige/knowledge seekers”. The four segments differed significantly from each other.

Bogari et al. (2004) investigated the most important push-pull factors of Saudi Arabian tourists. Factor analysis was applied to thirty-six push motivational items and forty pull motivational items. The study identified nine push factors, namely: “cultural value”, “utilitarian”, “knowledge”, “social”, “economical”, “family togetherness”, “interest”, “relaxation”, and “convenience of facilities”. Nine pull factors were also extracted, namely: “safety”, “activity”, “beach sports/activities”, “nature/outdoor”, “historical/cultural”, “religious”, “budget”, “leisure”, and “upscale”. In addition, the relationship between push and pull factors was examined by using correlation and regression analysis. The results supported the significant relationship between the push and pull factors.

Jang and Cai (2002) used a logistic regression (logit) model to determine the motivation factors that significantly affect the destination choice of British travellers. They identified twenty-two push items and nineteen pull items. Factor analysis was used,

resulting in six push factors and five pull factors. The six push factors were labelled: “novel experience”, “escape”, “knowledge seeking”, “fun and excitement”, “rest and relaxation”, and “family and friend togetherness”. The five pull factors were labelled: “natural and historic environment”, “cleanliness and safety”, “easy to access” and “economical deal”, “outdoor activity”, and “sunny and exotic atmosphere”. The study identified the motivational factors that influenced the destination selection by British travellers and revealed that the British tend to visit the United States for “fun and excitement” and “outdoor activities”, Oceania for “family and friend togetherness” and Asia for “novel experience”.

Lee et al. (2002) compared the push and pull motives influencing the destination selection and holiday activities of German pleasure travellers to the US, Canada, and Asia. Seventeen push items and twenty-two pull items were factor analysed. Six push factors were derived and labelled: “escape”, “getaway”, “novelty seeking”, “relaxing”, “bragging about trip”, and “family togetherness”. Seven pull factors were also extracted, namely: “environmental quality”, “nature/ecology”, “ease and value”, “art and culture”, “atmosphere and weather”, “unique and different people”, and “outdoor activities”.

Kozak (2002b) tried to determine the motivational differences existing between tourists from the same destination who visited two different countries and across those from two different destinations who visited the same country. The study investigated the ‘push’ and ‘pull’ motivations of 1,872 British and German tourists visiting Mallorca and Turkey in the summer of 1998. Fourteen push items were subjected to factor analysis and resulted in four push factors, which were labelled: “culture”, “pleasure seeking/fantasy”, “relaxation”, and “physical”. Content analysis was employed on the qualitative data to determine

particular factors affecting the tourists' selection of Mallorca and Turkey. The results indicated that "accommodation facilities", "weather", "level of prices", "location of resort", and "access to the sea and beaches" were the most important motivations for British tourists to visit both Mallorca and Turkey. The most important motivations for German tourists to visit Mallorca were "weather", "access to the sea and beaches", "the length of flight time", "level of prices" and "the location of the resort", respectively. While "weather", "access to the sea and beaches", "level of prices", "people/culture", and "scenery and landscape" were, respectively, the five most important motivations for those selecting Turkey.

You et al. (2000) investigated the differences between the travellers from the United Kingdom and Japan in terms of push and pull forces. Seventeen push items and fifty-three pull items were used in this study. The only pull items were subjected to factor analysis. Ten pull factors were extracted and named: "nature-based activities", "outdoor sports activities", "culture and heritage activities", "city sightseeing and shopping", "safety and hygiene", "people-interactive activities", "prices of restaurants and hotels", "guiding services", "exotic atmosphere and nice weather", and "camping". The study supported that UK and Japanese travel motives differed significantly. In addition, it was found that the top five push motives for UK travellers were "going places I have not visited before", "being together as family", "increase one's knowledge about places, people, and things", "visit friends and relatives" and "escaping from the ordinary". For Japanese travellers the top five push motives were "going places I have not visited before", "having fun being entertained", "getting a change from busy job", "just relaxing", "increase one's knowledge about places, people, and things".

Cha and Jeong (1998) examined the motives of Korean travellers to Australia and New Zealand. The study revealed four push factors, namely: “sports”, “safety and maximization of pleasure”, “experience of new culture” and “self improvement”. Five pull factors were also identified and, named: “tourist attractions”, “natural environment”, “leisure activities”, “resort environment” and “tourism infrastructure”. The study also examined the motivations among three groups of tourists: “student/backpacker group”, “honeymoon group” and “package group” and supported that the three groups allocated different importance to the different motivational factors.

Oh et al. (1995) adopted a canonical correlation analysis to investigate the relationship between fifty-two pull factors and thirty push factors. Their results identified four market segments in the Australian tourism market. The first segment was labelled: “safety/comfort seekers” who prefer travelling to secure places as far as possible. The study suggested that destinations willing to target this category should provide “personal safety”, “a good standard of hygiene and cleanliness”, and “a warm welcome for these travellers”. The second segment was named “culture/history seekers” who usually aim to “increase their knowledge”, “experience different cultures”, “visit historical cities”, “local festivals”, “see crafts and handiwork”, and “try local cuisine”. The third segment is “novelty/adventure seekers” who are characterized by looking for novelty and adventure. The fourth segment is “luxury seekers” who usually target destinations that highlight products such as “high quality restaurants”, “nightlife and entertainment”, and “first class accommodation”.

Baloglu and Uysal (1996) replicated the Oh et al. (1995) study by investigating the relationship between push and pull motivational factors to recognize product bundles in

order to structure market segments. Thirty push and fifty-three pull items were determined and used in canonical analysis. The results identified four significant variates/products bundles that were labelled: “sports/activity seekers”, “novelty seekers”, “urban-life seekers”, and “beach/resort seekers”. The study indicated that “sports activity” pull factors related to “sports” push factors, and have a relation to “beach-resort factors”. Push motives such as “learning new things”, “seeing and experiencing foreign destinations” and “experiencing new and different lifestyles” were matched with destination attributes, which provide opportunities to “increase knowledge”. The study also found that push motives such as “travelling to historical”, “safe and secure places” were found to match with destinations that have attributes such as “high quality restaurants”, “historical sites”, “warm hospitality”, “guided tours”, “museums and art galleries”, and “safety and cleanliness”. Travellers who need escape and excitement have been found to be attracted by destinations that provide “reliable weather”, “an exotic environment”, and “beaches”.

In the Uysal and Jurowski (1994) study, twenty-six push items and twenty-nine pull items were factor analysed. Four push factors were extracted, namely: “re-experience family togetherness”, “sports”, “cultural experience”, and “escape”. Four pull factors were also identified: “entertainment/resorts”, “outdoor/nature”, “heritage/cultural”, and “rural/inexpensive”. The study also supported a correlation between the push and pull factors indicating a significant relationship between them.

Kim and Lee (2002), and Kim et al. (2003) replicated the study by Uysal and Jurowski (1994) and supported their findings. They argued that the relationship between the two groups of factors is often positive. Twelve push items and twelve pull items were extracted to three pull factors and four push factors by factor analysis. Their findings

revealed a significant positive correlation between four push factors: “family togetherness and study, appreciating natural resources and health, escaping from everyday routine, and adventure and building friendship” and three pull factors “various tourism resources and information, the convenience of facilities, and easy access to national parks” at the .05 level of significance. The only exception was the correlation between the pull factor of “easy access to national parks” and the push factor of “family togetherness and study”.

Hanqin and Lam (1999) based their study on the push and pull model to determine motivations of Chinese travellers visiting Hong Kong. The study used twenty-two push motivation items and twenty-six pull items. The results of factor analysis identified five push factors, namely: “knowledge”, “prestige”, “enhancement of human relationship”, “relaxation”, and “novelty”, and six pull factors labelled: “hi-tech image”, “expenditure”, “accessibility”, “service quality and attitude”, “sightseeing variety”, and “cultural links”.

Yuan and McDonald (1990) investigated the push and pull motivations for overseas travellers by collecting data from four countries: Japan, France, West Germany, and the United Kingdom. The study used twenty-nine push items and fifty pull items. Five push motivation factors were derived, namely: “escape”, “novelty”, “prestige”, “enhancement of kinship relationships”, and “relaxation/hobbies”. Seven pull or attraction factors were derived labelled: “budget”, “culture and history”, “wilderness”, “ease of travel”, “cosmopolitan environment”, “facilities”, and “hunting”.

Jamrozny and Uysal (1994) attempted to define the role and variations of the pull and push dimensions of travel and leisure behaviour. By using thirty push items, eight push factors were extracted by factor analysis, namely: “escape”, “novelty”, “experience”,

“family, friends togetherness”, “sports activities”, “adventure”, “excitement”, “familiar environment”, “luxury”, “doing nothing, and prestige”. Fifty-three pull items were also subjected to factor analysis and resulted in eleven pull factors: “active sports environment”, “unique natural environment”, “clean safe environment”, “sunshine environment”, “inexpensive environment”, “cultural activities”, “entertainments”, “sightseeing”, “local culture”, “different culture and cuisine”, and “small towns, villages, and mountains”. The study identified five travel groups and related them to the delineated factor groupings of motivational push-and-pull factors. The five groups were alone, wife and husband, girlfriend and boyfriend, family and friends, and organized tour groups.

Another study by Turnbull and Uysal (1995) investigated push and pull factors and type of information sources by destination types among German overseas visitors to North America, Latin America, and the Caribbean. Thirty push items and fifty-three pull items were subjected to factor analysis. Five push factors were extracted; “cultural experience”, “re-experience family”, “sports”, and “prestige”, and six pull factors were also derived namely: “heritage/culture”, “city enclave”, “comfort-relaxation”, “beach resort”, “outdoor resources”, and “rural and inexpensive”. The findings of this study also indicated that push-pull factors of motivations are tied to destination preferences, and that these motivation factors show variations from place to place.

Klensoky (2002) examined push and pull motives of university students using fifty-three on-site interviews. Personal interviews were used to identify a limited number of push and pull items that arouse students to travel for spring break. The study provided helpful insights into the relationship between the pull factors and push factors in motivating travel

behaviour. However, the study results do not identify the motivational behaviour of college students.

Qu and Ping (1999) tried to determine the motivation factors of Hong Kong cruise travellers in addition to identifying their satisfaction level. From eight motivation factors, namely: “Escape from normal life, Social gathering, Beautiful environment and scenery, Cultural understanding, Social status, Business purpose, Health and exercise, and Self-discovery”, the study identified that the major travelling motivation factors were; “escape from normal life”, “social gathering”, and “beautiful environment and scenery”. By using Logistic regression analysis, travellers expressed a high satisfaction level with “food and beverage facilities” and “quality and staff performances”. However, they were dissatisfied with the factors of “attractiveness, variety and organization of entertainment”, “sport/fitness, shopping and child care facilities”, and “seating space in F&B outlets”. The most important factors of joining cruise travel again were “accommodation”, “food and beverage” and “entertainment”.

Pyo et al. (1989) utilized canonical correlation analysis to investigate the push and pull factors of travel behaviour simultaneously. Twenty-two push items and thirty-eight destination attributes or pull items were identified. The study identified four product bundles based on the significant relationship between push and pull items. The first attraction attributes include “first class superstructure and cultural components”. The second indicated that “tours to museums and galleries” should match intellectual needs. The third basic items of the touring trip revealed two negatively correlated tourist market segments. The first segment was “budget conscious people with kinship and relaxation motives”. They also want “a safe destination environment and good weather” to travel. The

second segment wants to “experience different cultures”. The fourth pair of variates revealed that family oriented and health conscious people visit “natural attractions”, as opposed to those who want to be indulged by travelling to “restaurants and enjoying nightlife activities”.

2.6.2 Push Motivational Factors Only

Some other empirical studies focused on push motivational factors only. For example, Boo and Jones (2009) attempted to determine tourist market segments by identifying push motivation factors among the heterogeneity of tourists to a major metropolitan area. By using factor analysis, six push motivation factors were derived from the twenty motivation items labelled: “social/interaction”, “excitement/fun”, “relaxation”, “sightseeing”, “family/friends”, and “sports”.

Cha et al. (1995) attempted to determine the push factors of Japanese tourists to travel abroad for tourism. Thirty push motivational items were factor analysed into six main factors, namely: “relaxation”, “knowledge”, “adventure”, “travel bragging”, “visit friends and relatives”, and “sports activities”. By using cluster analysis, three groups were determined: (a) the “sport seekers” who are interested in sports activities; (b) the “novelty seekers” who like increase “knowledge”, “adventure” and “travel bragging”; (c) the “family/relaxation seekers” who are interested in “relaxation” and “family togetherness”.

Kim et al. (2007) replicated the study by Cha et al. (1995) to determine the push motivational factors among US colleges and university students. Using a list of twenty-six push motivation items, seven factors were extracted from factor analysis, namely:

“knowledge”, “sports”, “adventure”, “relax”, “lifestyle”, “travel bragging”, and “family”. Comparing with the study of Cha et al., only one factor was added, labelled: “lifestyle”.

Beh and Bruyere (2007) in their study identified the tourist motivations for visiting SNR, BSNR and SHNR; three Kenyan national reserves. Forty-nine items were used as motivation indicators to identify specific motivation factors using an exploratory factor analysis. The K-means cluster analysis approach was used to determine different tourist segments based on their motivation. Eight factors were generated from the motivation items by factor analysis, namely: “escape”, “culture”, “personal growth”, “mega-fauna”, “adventure”, “learning”, “nature”, and “general viewing”.

Chiang and Jogaratnam (2006) tried to investigate the patterns of solo women travellers focusing on their travel motivation. The study used twenty leisure travel motivations to run factor analysis. Five push motivations were extracted from the analysis, namely: “experience”, “social”, “self-esteem”, “relax”, and “escape”. Kim and Prideaux (2005) conducted a study to examine the travel motivation for visiting Korea among five traveller groups: American, Australian, Japanese, Chinese (Mainland), and Chinese (Hong Kong SAR). By using twenty-one motivational items, five push factors were identified from factor analysis. These factors were labelled: “enjoying various tourist resources”, “culture and history”, “escaping from everyday routine”, “socialization”, and “social status”.

Mehmet (2005) attempted to cluster nature tourists into two segments (specialists and general) in northern Norway by using twenty travel motives. Six factors were determined

by factor analysis, namely: “nature”, “physical activities”, “novelty/learning”, “mundane/everyday”, “social contract”, and “ego/status enhancement”.

Kim and Jogaratnam (2002) conducted a study to investigate the travel motivation of Asian international and domestic American college students. Seven push factors were extracted from the factor analysis using twenty-six motivations items labelled: “experience”, “sports”, “entertainment”, “relax”, “leisure”, “family”, and “travel bragging”. The study reported that the most important motivation for both domestic and Asian students was “Having fun or being entertained”, followed by “finding thrills or excitement” for the domestic students and “seeing and experiencing a foreign destination” for the Asian students.

Kim and Lee’s study (2000) used twenty-four push motivational items in factor analysis. The study revealed five push factors, namely: “prestige/status”, “family togetherness”, “novelty”, “knowledge” and “escape”. Three factors out of a possible five were found to be significant on the travel motivation of Japanese and Anglo-American tourists. Japanese tourists were found to be more interested in the “prestige/status” and the “family togetherness” motivation than Anglo-American tourists. Conversely, Anglo-American tourists were found to be more interested in the “novelty seeking” than Japanese tourists.

Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991) attempted to determine the important motivations to sightseeing tourists as well as their satisfaction. They used twenty push motivational items, which revealed six dimensions from the factor analysis, termed: “general

knowledge”, “social interaction”, “escape”, “impulsive decision”, “specific knowledge”, and “shopping for souvenirs”.

2.6.3 Other Motivation-Based Studies

Lee (2000) identified event motivations between Caucasian and Asian visitors in the Asian setting of the 1998 Kyongju World Cultural Expo in Korea. The study used thirty-two motivation items subjected to factor analysis. Seven underlying factors were extracted from factor analysis, termed: “cultural exploration”, “family togetherness”, “escape, novelty”, “external group socialization”, “event attractions” and “known group socialization”. Lee et al. (2004) duplicated the study conducted by Lee (2000) and attempted to identify event motivations for visitors attending the 2000 World Culture Expo. Six factors were derived from thirty-one items by using factor analysis, named: “cultural exploration”, “family togetherness”, “novelty”, “escape”, “event attractions”, and “socialization”.

Formica and Uysal (1998) examined the travel motivations of people who attended the Spoleto Festival in Italy. By using factor analysis, six factors emerged, namely: “socialization/entertainment”, “event attraction/excitement”, “group togetherness”, “cultural/historical”, “family togetherness” and “site novelty”. Among the six motivation factors, the most important motivation for attending the festival was “cultural/historical factor”. Uysal et al. (1993) also examined festival motivations for attending a county Corn Festival in South Carolina. Using factor analysis, five factors of motivation were extracted using twenty-four items labelled: “escape”, “excitement/thrills”, “event novelty”, “socialization” and “family togetherness”.

Crompton and McKay (1997) attempted to identify festival motivations for attending a Fiesta in San Antonio, TX. Twenty-eight motivation items were subjected to factor analysis and six factors were derived, labelled: “cultural exploration”, “novelty/regression”, “recover equilibrium”, “known group socialization”, “external interaction/socialization” and “gregariousness”. Scott (1996) also determined event motivations in three festivals; Bug Fest, the Holiday Lights Festival and the Maple Sugaring Festival. By using factor analysis, six factors were extracted from twenty-five motivational items, labelled: “nature appreciation”, “event excitement”, “sociability”, “family togetherness”, “curiosity” and “escape from routine”.

Formica and Uysal (1996) tried to identify festival motivations among those attending the Umbria Jazz Festival in Italy. Twenty-three items were used in factor analysis. Five factors of motivation resulted, labelled: “excitement and thrills”, “socialization”, “entertainment”, “event novelty” and “family togetherness”. Schneider and Backman (1996) also examined festival motivations in the Jerash Festival for Culture and Arts in Jordan. The factor analysis of twenty-three motivations resulted in five factors labelled: “family togetherness/socialization”, “social/leisure”, “festival attributes”, “escape”, and “event excitement”. Mohr et al. (1993) also attempted to determine festival motivations for those attending a Freedom Weekend Aloft (a hot air balloon festival) in Greenville, South Carolina. Five motivation factors were identified using twenty-three items, namely: “socialization”, “family togetherness”, “excitement/uniqueness”, “escape”, and “event novelty”.

Hung and Petrick (2010) determined cruising motivation on intention to cruise. By using exploratory factor analysis, four motivation factors out of five were identified after

dropping the “socialization” factor. The four factors of cruise motivation were “self-esteem & social recognition”, “escape/relaxation”, “learning/discovery & thrill”, and “bonding”.

Huang and Tsai (2003) identified the travel motivation of Taiwanese seniors. The most important travel motivation was found to be “get rest and relaxation” (35.6%) followed by “Meet people and socialization” (20.1%). The study also revealed three travel barrier factors using factor analysis, termed: “the traveller capabilities”, “direct travel suppliers” and “indirect travel motivators”. Fleischer and Pizam (2002) also determined that the most common travel motivations of seniors’ were “rest and relaxation”, “social interaction”, “physical exercises”, “learning”, “nostalgia”, and “excitement”. Similarly, Horneman et al. (2002) found that the common travel motivations were “education/learning”, “rest/relaxation”, “physical exercise/fitness”, and “visiting friends and relatives”.

Heung et al. (2001) investigated Japanese travellers motivations. By using factor analysis, twenty-five items were extracted to five factors, namely: “exploration”, “attractions and climate”, “dream fulfilment”, “benefits sought” and “trip characteristics”. Card and Kestel (1988) also identified the travel motivations for travellers who travel to Germany or are from Germany. The travellers were asked statements representing McIntosh's four motivational categories. Three motivational categories were extracted from factor analysis, termed: “curiosity”, “social interaction”, and “rejuvenation”.

Josiam et al. (1999) explored the travel motivations of college students on spring break by conducting focus groups. The study revealed that the major travel motivation for choosing Panama City Beach was a “good party reputation”, followed by “friends going

there”, and “right price”. Sirakaya and McLellan (1997) also investigated the importance of fifty-six attributes in choosing a spring break destination. Nine factors were extracted from factor analysis, labelled: “local hospitality and services”, “trip cost and convenience”, “perception of a safe/secure environment”, “change in daily life environment”, “recreation and sporting activities”, “entertainment and drinking opportunities”, “personal and historical link”, “cultural and shopping services”, and “unusual and distant vacation sport”.

Hill et al. (1990) investigated the motivation of resort vacation and how the motivation differed among four lifecycle stages: (a) single-no children, (b) married-no children, (c) single with children, and (d) married with children. The study revealed no significant differences between life cycles for motivations labelled: “relaxation and escape”, “novelty”, “education”, and “prestige”. The study found that “relaxation and escape” is the most important motivation for every life cycle, and “novelty”, “education”, and “prestige” are relatively unimportant to all life cycles. However, the motivation of enhancement of kinship relationships is more important to those who are married than those who are single. Health and social motivations are more important to single vacationers than married vacationers.

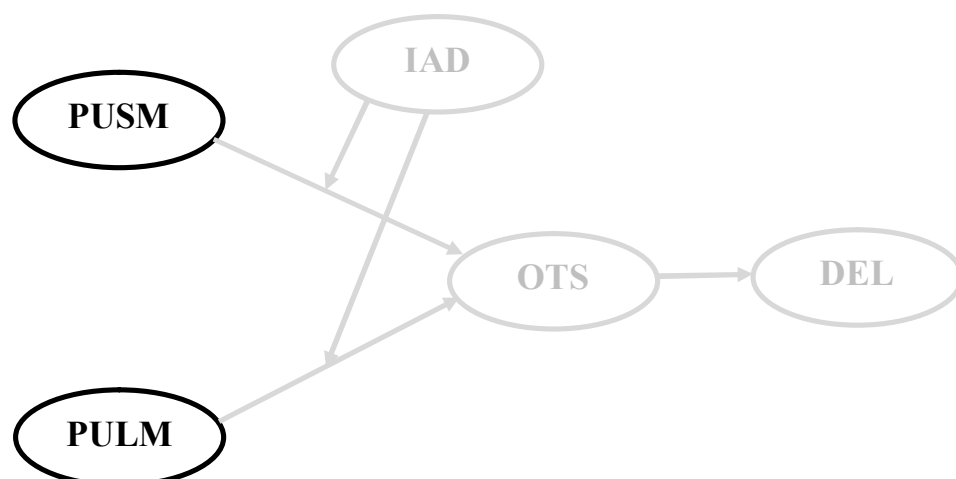
From the previous tourism research, it was proposed that people are pushed first by internal desires such as “the need for escape”, “relaxation”, “adventure”, “prestige”, “health”, “knowledge”, “fitness”, “adventure and social interaction”, “family togetherness”, and “excitement” (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Cha & McCleary, 1995; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994; Jang & Cai, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kozak, 2002b; Oh et al., 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). They are then pulled by destination attributes such as “natural

scenery”, “historical attractions”, “expenditure”, “sport”, “outdoor activities”, “beaches”, “entertainment”, “shopping”, and “parks”, and so forth.

It is noticed that most of the studies applied exploratory factor analysis to extract the motivation items. Furthermore, some differences were found between researchers regarding the items loaded under each motivational factor. Most of the push and pull motivation factors and items are summarized in Appendix C.

2.7 Research Gap in Tourism Motivation Literature

It is noticed that very few empirical studies examine the travel motivations for Muslim tourists only. Moreover, it is very important to recognize that no research has been done to investigate tourism motivations for Muslim tourists from different nationalities. To fill this gap, the current study will try to determine the possible tourism motivations that drive Muslim tourists to travel and select a specific destination. Figures 2.3 shows the push and pull motivations included in the proposed theoretical framework.



Key: PUSM – Push motivations; PULM – Pull motivations; OTS – overall tourist satisfaction; DEL – destination loyalty; IAD – Islamic attributes of destination

Figure 2.3: Theoretical Framework Development.

2.8 Tourist Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is essential for organizations to survive, including tourism organizations. Many tourism organizations and travel destinations that compete in the worldwide tourism market have begun to consider customer satisfaction as extremely important and give its achievement high priority (Kozak, 2002b; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Wong & Law, 2003; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yu & Goulden, 2006; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007), as it influences the destination selection, the products and services consumption, and the revisit decision (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). Tourists generally have primary expectations regarding the quality of services provided in a specific destination (Akama & Kieti, 2003). Thus, the success of some destination marketers will depend on how they achieve satisfaction to maintain a comparatively attractive destination (Turner & Reisinger, 2001).

Customer satisfaction can be viewed as a performance measure and one of the greatest sources of competitive advantage in a business market (Kozak, 2002b). Furthermore, satisfaction could result in main outcomes, including increased profitability, market share, purchase intentions, usage rates, positive word-of-mouth, and customer loyalty (Arnold et al., 2005; Machleit & Mantel, 2001; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007). Similarly in the tourism market, satisfaction could enhance the retention of tourists' patronage rates, loyalty, which in turn helps in achieving economic goals such as increased inbound tourists and revenue (Akama & Kieti, 2003).

Tourists' satisfaction is, therefore, vital and logical in this leisure, pleasure and luxurious industry. This is because satisfied tourists are less price sensitive and if

everything goes well during their pleasure trip they will talk positively about the tourist spots, the travel agents, tour guides, the hotels, caterers and so forth (Nageshwar & Das, 2002). As a result, a positive association between tourist satisfaction and the destination's long term economic success does exist (Akama & Kieti, 2003).

Tourist satisfaction has been thoroughly studied by marketing professionals and academicians for quality improvement. Thus, understanding tourists' satisfaction with the destination is vital to marketers to improve the products and services offered, and to effectively promote them to the target markets for new and repeat tourists (Yu & Goulden, 2006). The level of tourist satisfaction is determined by tourist expectations. If the overall performance goes beyond or matches initial expectation, then the tourists may be satisfied. However, if perceived performance is less than the initial expectation then the tourist is considered dissatisfied (Akama & Kieti, 2003). In other words, tourist satisfaction is a function of the closeness between the tourist's product expectations and the product's perceived performance (Nageshwar & Das, 2002).

Although there are many definitions of satisfaction, as shown in Table 2.1, it is generally recognized as a post-purchase variable that is related to how much customers like or dislike a product or service after trying it (Woodside et al., 1989). Oliver (1997, p. 13) defined Satisfaction as "*a judgment that a product, or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption related to fulfilment, including levels of under or over fulfillment*". Hunt (1977) also defined customer satisfaction by customer's post-purchase evaluation of service received and comparison of customer's expectations and the actual service experience.

Table 2.1: Concepts of Satisfaction

Author	Definition	Key words	Object
Oliver (1981, p. 27)	Final psychological state resulting from the disconfirmed expectancy related to initial consumer expectations	Evaluation, Final psychological state, Emotional response	Surprise, Disconfirmed expectancy with relation to pre purchase expectations
Swan et al. (1982, p. 17)	Evaluative or cognitive opinion, which analyses whether the product represents a satisfactory or poor result for its end users Emotional response towards product	Evaluative or cognitive opinion, Emotional response	Product results
Churchill and Surprenant, (1982, p. 491)	The conceptual response by the consumer to the purchase and use of a product which comes from the comparison of the rewards and cost of purchase relative to expectations Result Comparison of costs and rewards of product relative to expectations. Operatively, similar to an attitude because it can be measured as the total satisfaction from various attributes	Result Attitude	Comparison of costs and rewards of product relative to expectations
Labarbera and Mazursky (1983, p. 394)	Subsequent evaluation of Purchase. Evaluation of surprise derived from the purchase of a product or service	Evaluation	Surprise
Cadotte et al. (1987, p. 305)	Impression after the evaluation of use of the product or service	Impression created by evaluation	Use of product or service

Tse and Wilton (1988, p. 204)	Consumer response to the evaluation of the perceived difference between expectations and final result after consumption	Response made by evaluation	Perceived difference between expectations (other measures of results) and the actual result of the product
Westbrook and Oliver (1991, p. 84)	Subsequent evaluative opinion of choice relative to specific purchase	Evaluative opinion	Choice of specific purchase
Fornell (1992, p. 11)	Overall evaluation after purchase	Overall evaluation	Comparison of the perceived result after purchase with expectations prior to purchase
Oliver (1992, p. 242)	The coupling of coexisting attributes to other sensations derived from consumption	Addition of attributes to other sensations derived from consumption	Product attributes
Halstead et al. (1994, p. 122)	Emotional response associated with a specific transaction resulting from the comparison of the result of the product to some set standard prior to purchase	Emotional response	Product result compared to standard expected prior to purchase
Oliver, (1996, p. 13)	Judgement of sufficient level of satisfaction offered by a product or service during consumption	Evaluative response of satisfaction level during consumption	Product or service

Adopted from Millán and Esteban (2004)

In the tourism field, Tribe and Snaith (1998) defined tourists' satisfaction with a destination as "*the degree to which a tourist's assessment of the attributes of that destination exceeds his or her expectations for those attributes*". Similarly, Pizam et al. (1978) define tourist satisfaction as "*the results of the comparison between a tourist's experience at the destination visited and the expectations about the destination*". Moutinho (1987) also reported that tourists' satisfaction is a post-purchase variable that generally works as a function of pre-travel expectations and travel experiences.

In the tourism literature, several researchers have assessed tourist satisfaction using various theories, such as the norm theory, expectation/disconfirmation theory, equity theory and overall actual performance model (Assaker et al., 2010; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Although the expectancy-disconfirmation theory is considered the most acceptable theory to assess tourist satisfaction, its use has been questioned (Assaker et al., 2010). Therefore, the overall actual performance model suggested by Tse and Wilton (1988) is recommended to measure tourist satisfaction as an alternative to the expectancy-disconfirmation model (Assaker et al., 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Qu & Ping, 1999).

In the expectation-disconfirmation theory suggested by Oliver (1980), customers have some expectations about a product/service before they buy and then they compare the actual performance with these expectations. Positive disconfirmation happens if performance is better than expectations and this leads to customer satisfaction. However, negative disconfirmation happens when expectations are greater than performance and this leads to customer dissatisfaction.

According to the perceived performance model suggested by Tse and Wilton (1988), consumer dissatisfaction only occurs as a function of the actual performance, and is unrelated to customer expectations. Thus, tourists' satisfaction with travel experiences is evaluated, regardless of their expectations. This model is successful when tourists have no idea about what they enjoy and have no knowledge regarding their destination circumstances, hence, only their actual performances/experiences are estimated to evaluate tourist satisfaction (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

The reason behind using overall actual performance as a better measure to assess tourist satisfaction is because the actual performance and initial expectations should be considered separately, which is better than comparing performance with past experiences (Pizam et al., 1978; Tse & Wilton, 1988). Moreover, tourist satisfaction is influenced independently by service performance from expectations and matters of equity (Qu & Ping, 1999). Thus, Pizam et al. (1978) used the actual performance model to assess tourist satisfaction with particular destinations. Qu and Ping (1999) also adopted the actual performance model to determine the satisfaction level of Hong Kong cruise travellers. Kozak and Rimington (2000) conducted a study to identify destination attributes critical to the overall satisfaction levels of tourists. As a result, the overall/actual performance model is followed to measure tourist satisfaction by the current study.

2.8.1 Tourists' Satisfaction and Tourism Motivations

There is a need to examine the relationship between tourism motivation and tourists' satisfaction to understand tourists' behaviour after visiting destinations. For practical reasons, a theory of tourism motivation may help to explain tourist behaviour (Gnoth,

1997). Therefore, motivation and satisfaction are fundamental constructs to understand tourism behaviour (Devesa et al., 2010; Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Lee et al., 2004). Since motivation is multidimensional and tourists want to experience more than one attribute in a destination (Pyo et al., 1989), marketers may provide tourism products and packages with aspects that meet the satisfaction of expressed wants (Gnoth, 1997). Therefore, it is expected that the concept of motivation is considered as a building block of market segmentation in many empirical studies (Kozak, 2002a).

Intrinsically motivated activities could be associated to an awareness of possible satisfaction in a future situation (Deci, 1975; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In line with that, Lubbe (1998) reported that a tourists' motivation to travel starts when the tourist becomes aware of specific needs and perceives that particular destinations may satisfy those needs. Gnoth (1997) also argued that once the needs and/or values of the tourist have been stimulated, the generated motivation comprises a main parameter in expectation structure. Expectations then determine performance perceptions of products and services and perceptions of experiences. Thus, motivation may affect the satisfaction pattern.

Motives are linked to expected outcomes of behaviour. Consequently, behaviour is often expected to generate personal satisfaction (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). In other words, motives occur before the travel experience and satisfaction occurs after that. For example, Crompton and McKay (1997) pointed out that if needs are met, then satisfaction will be achieved. Thus, knowing the needs that visitors are seeking to satisfy is very important for monitoring satisfaction. Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) also supported that motivation occurs before a vacation experience and as an antecedent to satisfaction. Past research also supported that a more diversified tourist experience could possibly improve

tourist satisfaction (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). Furthermore, Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) also argued that traveller behaviour can be determined by the underlying motivation.

A relationship between tourism motivation and the post-consumption satisfaction level has also been supported in destination marketing literature (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Dann, 1981; Devesa et al., 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zabkar et al., 2010). Although motivation is critical to understand travel behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994), little research has been conducted to assess overall tourist satisfaction other than identifying particular motivation factors (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). Since customers have their motives before their actual vacation experiences and satisfaction has been established after the experience (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991), satisfaction is fundamentally related to the initial motive in any confirmation/disconfirmation model (Kozak, 2002a). Crompton and McKay (1997) also claim that understanding travel motivation lies in their close relationship with satisfaction. Dann (1981, p. 203) supported that by his comment; *“It makes little sense to study satisfaction in isolation from motivation”*.

The destination attributes may arouse and strengthen intrinsic push motivations. Different combinations of push and pull factors are then anticipated to increase different perception levels of a tourist destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Correia et al. (2007) pointed out that perceptions are predicted by push motivations, and also by pull motivations. Tourists' satisfaction level is significantly connected to their travel needs. Therefore, it is important to obtain a clear picture of motivation, which responds to different levels of satisfaction (Qu & Ping, 1999).

Fisher and Price (1991) reported that a significant relationship between intercultural interaction and travel motivation was found, such as “meeting new people”, “education”, “escape”, and “kinship”, which were linked to the travellers satisfaction. Devesa et al. (2010) reported that tourist satisfaction of certain tourism factors or destination attributes is determined by the reasons that motivated or determined the trip, which means that tourist satisfaction is related to tourism motivation.

Motivation is considered a meta-concept that works as a prompter for travel behaviour and establishes different kinds of tourist activity (Devesa et al., 2010). Therefore, identifying travel motivations for specific destinations can be seen as a significant construct to develop a guide programme designed at offering a satisfactory tourist experience (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994). Kim et al. (2006) also reported that the identification of push and pull motives towards multiple international destinations should form the basis for the development of effective marketing plans and a means to attract as well as satisfy tourists.

Empirically, some studies have found relationships between travel motivation and tourist satisfaction. For example, Devesa et al. (2010) empirically confirmed that motivation is a determinant of the visit evaluation criteria and influences the level of tourist satisfaction. The study suggested that product/service providers should give more attention to particular destination attributes and services, as they will affect the level of satisfaction of tourists. Moreover, the study findings revealed that the existence of particular aspects “general satisfiers” strongly affect visitor satisfaction such as “treatment received”, “gastronomy quality”, “opening hours”, “availability of services like restaurants and leisure activities”, and “tourist information”.

Zabkar et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between the quality of destination attributes, experience satisfaction, and behavioural intentions using structural equation modelling. The data were collected from 1,056 tourists at four tourist destinations in Slovenia. The study results found that the pull factors “destination attributes” affect the perceived quality of tourist offerings, which are positively linked to satisfaction.

Chi and Qu (2008) examined the relationship between destination image, tourist attributes and overall satisfaction, and destination loyalty using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The data were collected in Eureka Springs, Arkansas. The study supported that satisfaction with destination attributes have a positive impact on overall tourist satisfaction. Fang et al. (2008) reported that destination attributes importance, performance, and motivation are a function of measuring tourists’ overall satisfaction. Yoon and Uysal (2005), in their study, explored the theoretical and empirical evidence on the causal relationships between the push and pull motivations and satisfaction. It indirectly revealed the structural relationship between motivation and satisfaction.

Alegre and Cladera (2006) analysed the impact of visitation repeat rates on destination revisit intention and on tourists’ satisfaction in the Balearic Islands. The study supported that the overall satisfaction level is affected by the satisfaction levels with destination attributes. It was found that the main destination attributes contributing to overall tourist satisfaction are “sun and sand product”, “the climate”, “beaches”, “quality of the accommodation” and “surroundings”. Other factors were also reported as contributing to satisfaction, such as “prices”, “cultural and social”, “hospitality”, and “tranquillity”.

Lee et al. (2004) used two-way ANOVA tests to assess the potential importance of four motivation clusters as factors influencing overall satisfaction. The study findings revealed that there was a significant major impact of four clusters on overall satisfaction level. The study supported that the motivation factors affect overall satisfaction level. Turner et al. (2001) also investigated the level of importance for service attributes identified by tourists from Australia, USA/Canada, Japanese and Mandarin speaking Chinese and satisfaction levels with their visit to Melbourne. The results of the study revealed that there is modest support of a causal relationship between service quality attribute and satisfaction.

Some studies examined the level of satisfaction related to tourists for some destination attributes. For example, Yu and Goulden (2006) examined international tourism development in Mongolia and analysed international tourists' satisfaction with tourist attractions, facilities, services and prices by surveying international tourists from four regions: Europe, the US, Japan and other Asia/Pacific countries. The study revealed that there was relatively positive satisfaction with their visit to Mongolia. Ryan and Mo (2002) investigated the satisfaction level of Chinese visitors to New Zealand with different activities. The study reported that the factors achieved high rating importance and satisfaction were: "visiting sites of Maori culture", "national parks", "city parks and gardens", "city tours", "farms", "museums and historical sites", and "taking scenic boat cruises".

Kau and Lim (2005) found that the "family travellers" were the most satisfied overall with Singapore, however, indicating the lowest probability of a repeat visit to Singapore. Nevertheless, family travellers were more likely to suggest Singapore to others. The "novelty seekers" got the lowest overall satisfaction and the lowest probability of

suggesting to others, although they indicated a more modest level of repeat visit likelihood. The “prestige/knowledge seekers” got the second highest overall satisfaction, however, the highest level of repeat visits likelihood. The “adventure seekers” were more modest in all three kinds of satisfaction measures.

Heung and Qu (2000) conducted a study to determine the satisfaction levels of Japanese travellers according to thirty-one travel attributes on Hong Kong. The study revealed that “overall accessibility” was the most satisfactory attribute, and “accommodation and food” were the most important factors in the assessment of overall satisfaction and likelihood of suggesting Hong Kong to other tourists, followed by “price and culture”.

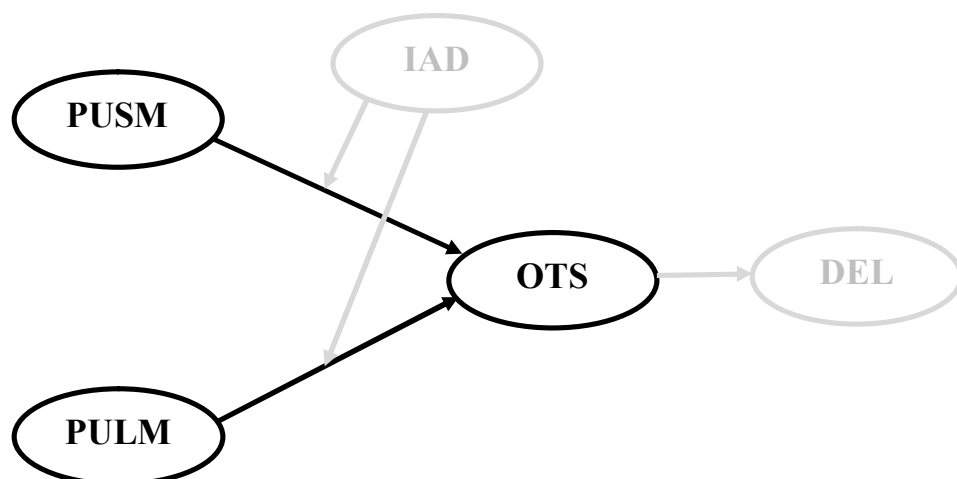
Reisinger and Turner (2000) also conducted a study to determine destination attributes affecting Japanese tourists’ satisfaction in Hawaii and the Gold Coast of Australia. Twenty-seven items of satisfaction with destination selection were used and compared between the two destinations. Japanese tourists were more satisfied with destination attributes in Hawaii than those on the Gold Coast. The study reported that more destination attributes in Hawaii were rated with higher satisfaction levels by Japanese tourists and the multifaceted attribute of the Gold Coast was not acknowledged by Japanese tourists. Qu and Li (1997) attempted to determine the satisfaction levels of Mainland Chinese who visited Hong Kong. The study found that tourists were satisfied with all the destination attributes of Hong Kong except the price.

Tourism motivation should be considered the main element for destination marketing strategies (Pyo et al., 1989). If travel destinations are interested in the satisfaction of

tourists, and perhaps increasing it, they could do well to identify the travel motivations first and then try to meet them by tours (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). Thus, the quality and the availability of tourism supply resources are significant aspects in meeting the needs of the ever-changing and upward tourism market. It is critical for destination management to monitor visitor satisfaction with pull factors such as facilities, services and programmes to ensure a viable and expanding business (Uysal et al., 2008).

2.8.2 Research Gap in Tourist Satisfaction Literature

Using the travel motivation theory (push and pull) as a base, many researchers have tried to give more attention in the pull and push relationship by frequently modifying items associated with the constructs. However, very limited research focused on empirically testing the overall tourist satisfaction relationship with the existing model. To fill this gap, in addition to studying the tourism motivation for Muslim tourists only, this research will investigate the relationship between tourism motivation and overall tourist satisfaction, as shown in Figure 2.4.



Key: PUSM – Push motivations; PULM – Pull motivations; OTS – overall tourist satisfaction; DEL – destination loyalty; IAD – Islamic attributes of destination

Figure 2.4: Adding OTS to Theoretical Framework Development.

2.8.3 Tourists' Satisfaction and Destination Loyalty

Customer Loyalty is well-known in marketing literature by word-of-mouth communication and the willingness to repurchase (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998). The willingness to repurchase is defined as customers' willingness to purchase the products again (Szymanski & Henard, 2001), while word-of-mouth communication (WOM) is defined as the customer's intention to maintain the relationship with the seller (Maxham, 2001). Thus, a customer who repeats purchases or recommends the product to other people is usually defined as having customer loyalty.

Customer satisfaction is well known as a significant determinant of customer loyalty and repeat sales in the literature (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cronin et al., 2000; Taylor & Baker, 1994; Williams, 2002). If customers are delighted with the quality of products and services, they are more willing to spread positive WOM, and are more likely to continue to purchase (Chi & Qu, 2008).

Similarly in destination marketing, repeat visitation or recommendations to other people are also well known in the theoretical context of destination loyalty (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Chen, 2010; Hui et al., 2007; Zabkar et al., 2010). The willingness to recommend a destination to other people and the intention to revisit the destination in the future are positively influenced by satisfaction (Chen & Chen, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008; Del Bosque & Martín, 2008; Bigne' et al 2005; Bigne' et al 2001; Jang & Feng, 2007; Kozak & Rimmington 2000; Lee et al., 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Therefore, if there is high quality performance and high satisfaction levels, the loyalty and future visitation will be increased (Baker & Crompton, 2000).

Yoon and Uysal (2005) pointed out that destinations should be viewed as products, and tourists may recommend or revisit destinations to other potential tourists such as relatives or friends. Thus, the degree of tourists' destination loyalty may be viewed in their willingness to suggest it and in their intention to repeat visit to the destination (Oppermann, 2000a). Crompton and McKay (1997) claim that for tourists to revisit, they must be relatively delighted with their previous experience. Chi and Qu (2008) agreed with Crompton and McKay and reported that tourists' positive experiences of services, products, and other resources offered by travel destinations could be a source of repeat visits as well as positive word-of-mouth effects to relatives and/or friends.

Oppermann (1998) pointed out that the importance of repeat visitation in destination marketing comes from four advantages: (a) the marketing costs to attract repeat tourists are less than those needed for first timers, (b) repeat visitation is a positive sign of tourist satisfaction, (c) repeat tourists are the type of visitor most likely to revisit a destination, and (d) they might suggest the destination to relatives and friends. Yoon and Uysal (2005) argue that understanding destination loyalty should take into consideration both motivation and satisfaction constructs simultaneously. Satisfied tourists are more likely to revisit the same destination, and are more willing to share their positive travelling experience with their relatives and friends (Chi & Qu, 2008).

Kozak (2001) suggested that the overall tourist satisfaction impact on the intention to revisit the same destination effectively indicates that the experience with certain destinations could arouse future behaviour and revisits. Akama and Kieti (2003) reported that tourist satisfaction usually increased the retention rates of tourists' patronage. Hui et

al. (2007) pointed out that quality services and tourist satisfaction build a long-term relationship with tourists and, in turn, support destination loyalty.

In destination marketing literature, recent empirical studies supported that satisfaction has been viewed as one of the main constructs to explain destination loyalty, suggest the destination to other people, and repeat visit intention. For example, Zabkar et al. (2010) confirmed that satisfaction is linked to destination loyalty and represents a viable element for increasing customer retention. Kim (2008) confirmed the significant association of tourist satisfaction with destination loyalty. Yu and Goulden (2006) in their study also supported that the satisfied tourists in Mongolia would like to repeat visit to Mongolia and would like to suggest Mongolia highly to others. Kau and Lim (2005) also provided evidence that satisfied travellers will revisit Singapore.

Chen and Chen (2010) examined the relationships between the perceived value, quality of experiences, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions by using the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique. The study provided empirical evidence that the behavioural intentions are influenced by satisfaction. Huang and Hsu (2009) examined the impact of mainland Chinese visitors' travel motivation, perceived constraint, past experience, and attitude on their intention of repeat visiting Hong Kong. The study supported that satisfaction positively influenced revisit intention to Hong Kong.

Del Bosque and Martín (2008) attempted to examine a model explaining the interrelationships between psychological variables of the tourist. The data were collected from 807 tourists visiting Spain. The study findings revealed that satisfaction has a positive significant impact on behavioural intentions in terms of destination loyalty.

Lee et al. (2010) examined the relationship between tourist expectations, tour quality, tourist motivations, tourist complaints, tourist satisfaction and tourist loyalty of Chinese tourists in the Republic of Korea using path analysis. The study revealed that the tourist satisfaction is influenced by perceived tour quality and a positive relationship exists between satisfaction and loyalty.

Hutchinson et al. (2009) attempted to examine the relationships between golf travellers' perceptions of quality, equity, value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The data were collected from 309 golf travellers. The study supported that both value and satisfaction had significant effects on word-of-mouth behavioural intention and the intention to revisit.

Chi and Qu (2008) found statistically significant relationships between overall satisfaction and destination loyalty. Yüksel and Yüksel (2007) also supported that the existence of tourist's shopping satisfaction has a direct effect on loyalty intentions. Yoon and Uysal (2005) supported that destination loyalty has a causal relationship with motivation and satisfaction. Um et al. (2006) also recommended that repeat visit intentions is determined by perceived attractiveness, satisfaction, perceived quality of service and perceived value for money. They also conclude that revisits are determined more by perceived attractiveness than by overall satisfaction. Chen and Tsai (2007) also provided empirical evidence that tourist satisfaction influences behavioural intentions.

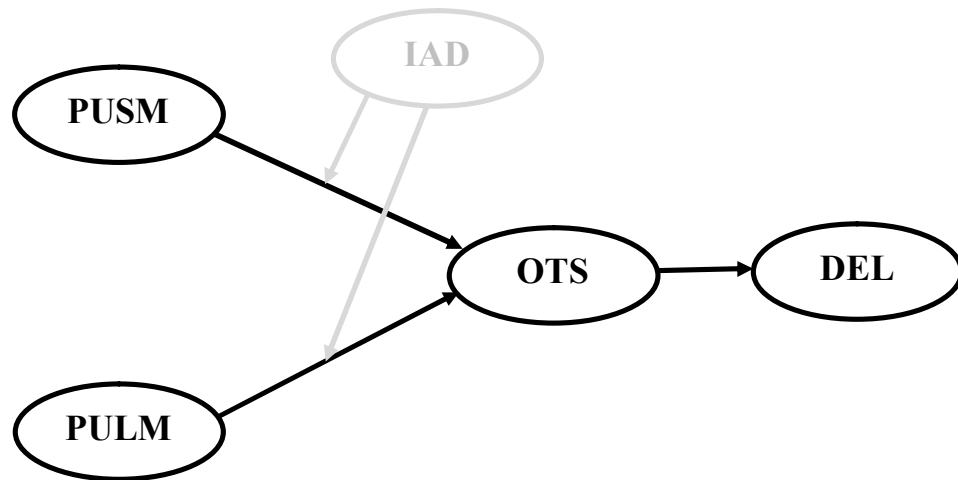
Jang and Feng (2007) attempted to explore the effects of tourists' novelty seeking and destination satisfaction on revisit intention. It was found that satisfaction is a direct precursor of shorter visits. Bigné et al. (2005) supported that visitor satisfaction positively

influences the loyalty towards a theme park while Rittichainuwat et al. (2002), in their study on the likelihood of tourists to repeat visit to Thailand, found a significant relationship between satisfaction and intention to repeat visit to Thailand. Bigné et al. (2001) also supported that satisfaction does influence the intention to return and makes tourists willing to recommend the destination to others. Bitner (1990) supported that destination loyalty is influenced by overall tourist satisfaction.

Lee et al. (2004) found that there was a significant difference between first and repeat visitors in respect of satisfaction levels –repeat visitors satisfaction is higher than first visitors satisfaction. Furthermore, Kozak and Rimmington (2000) supported that overall tourist satisfaction with vacation experiences had an impact on the intention to repeat visit to the same destination.

2.8.4 Research Gap in Destination Loyalty Literature

The research on how tourist satisfaction influences future purchase intentions remains limited. Oppermann (2000, 1998) suggested that there is a need for additional study of the link between overall tourist satisfaction and revisiting. Del Bosque and Martín (2008) claim that the study of loyalty is a more current phenomenon in tourism. Therefore, it is time to conduct more research on loyalty to increase the knowledge of this construct in tourism. Furthermore, no research has examined the relationship between overall tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty in the context of Islamic countries. To fill this gap, destination loyalty was added to the proposed theoretical framework as shown in Figure 2.5. Thus, the possible causal relationships between overall tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty will be examined.



Key: PUSM – Push motivations; PULM – Pull motivations; OTS – overall tourist satisfaction; DEL – destination loyalty; IAD – Islamic attributes of destination

Figure 2.5: Adding DEL to Theoretical Framework Development.

2.9 Islamic Attributes of Destination

The relationship between tourism and religion has been addressed in the tourism research literature (see for example Chattopadhyay, 2006; Digance, 2003; Erik, 2003; Aliza Fleischer, 2000; Joseph & Kavoori, 2001; Poria et al., 2003; Richard & Priya, 2005; Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008). Although religion is associated with a large number of tourism issues, most of these issues have been linked to pilgrimage. Poria et al. (2003) suggests that religion is associated with three main areas of tourism research: research relating to the supply of tourism, research relating to the link between religion and tourism on a more theoretical level, and research investigating tourist behaviour. Religious tourism, which is classified as one tourism type, represents the interconnectedness between religion and tourism (Rinschede, 1992).

While many studies have been conducted to investigate the various types of destination attributes, there has been a lack of research on the religious attributes of the destination and its impact on tourist's choice as well as satisfaction. Moreover, when it comes to Islamic religious attributes, the lack of study is more noticeable and profound.

The Muslim tourism segment may be considered a target for destination marketers. Assuming religion represents one of the important factors in the decision-making process with regard to travel destinations (Collins & Tisdell, 2002), it is important to ensure that Islamic attributes are available in those destinations. This may lead to tourist satisfaction as well as encourage multiple return visits. Muslims are well-ordered to follow Islamic teachings, which directly and indirectly impact on their decisions concerning leisure and travel plans (Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010). In this regard, plans to market destinations for Muslim tourists should be guided by *Shariah* (Islamic code of life) rules, specifically those that pertain to tourism activities.

The negative side of western tourism, which has a negative impact on the Muslim community, such as the consumption of alcohol, prostitution, inappropriate dressing, kissing in public and open affection between sexes in public, is causing Halal tourism to be increasingly popular among Muslims (Sindiga, 1996). However, non-Muslim countries continue to attract Muslim families, including those from the Arab Gulf region who are interested in visiting attractions such as nature parks.

Muslims constitute a global market of 1.82 billion potential customers (Muslim population worldwide, 2009). Islamic attributes are bound to be very important considerations when a Muslim decides to travel abroad. Given the potential problems

expected from non-Islamic tourism, a Muslim tourist may decide not to travel to a particular destination due to the absence of these attributes. Uysal et al. (2008, p. 413) suggest that studying the specific attributes of a destination would give destination marketers clues or insights for developing and marketing their tourism destinations. Bogari et al. (2004) argue that destination attributes and issues related to Islamic culture were not adequately researched. In effect, the current study focuses on the Islamic attributes of destinations, which could be used as a base to attract Muslim tourists in destination marketing programmes.

The marketing of Islamic destinations is certainly not an easy task (Henderson, 2008b) because of the variance between the demands of western tourists and the Islamic teachings. Therefore, exploring Islamic attributes may help destination marketers to tailor products and services that satisfy Muslim tourists, which may increase the number of inbound tourists and improve economic growth. Marketers may also use Islamic attributes in promotional programmes. In addition, this study attempts to offer insights into the tourism expectations and experiences of followers of the Islamic religion. Muslim tourists could be influenced by religious aspects in their destination choice.

2.9.1 Tourism and Religion

Religion plays a major influence on many people's behaviour as customers (Essoo & Dibb, 2004). In the context of tourism, religion may influence the choice of destination and tourists' product preferences (Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008). According to Poria et al.(2003), the effects of religious belief on behaviour come from two main sources: first, the explicit and clear guidelines on acceptable and unacceptable behaviour or practices, and second,

religion shapes the culture, attitudes and values of society. This is supported by Grigg (1995) whose research provides evidence on the influence of religion and religiosity on dietary habits. Further support is found in Essoo and Dibb (2004) who demonstrated the influence of religion on consumer behaviour by identifying the differences in consumer spending between Muslims and Hindus.

Religion and religiosity are acknowledged as factors that influence behaviour according to various social settings. In spite of this widely acknowledged fact, research that explores the relationships between religion, behaviour and tourist destination choice remains highly limited (Din, 1989; Fleischer, 2000; Howe, 2001; Poria et al., 2003; Rinschede, 1992; Weidenfeld, 2006; Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008). Din (1989) argues that social scientists have tended to overlook the importance of religion in tourism studies. Its importance is emphasized by Weidenfeld and Ron (2008) who underline the general importance of the relationship between tourism and religion. For this reason Heo et al. (2004) recommend more related studies that identify and discuss special tourist requirements and preferences. Although neglecting to mention religion specifically, Meng et al. (2008) conclude that tourists are more likely to choose destinations that are believed to best satisfy tourist 'push' needs and preferred destination attributes.

Studies conducted in this area include Weidenfeld (2006) who investigated the religious needs of Christian tourists in the hospitality industry and Fleischer and Nitzav (1995), who investigated the religious needs of Christian pilgrims in the tourism industry. Likewise, Hoffmann(1994 Cited in Weidenfeld 2006) conducted research on the Jewish ultra-orthodox tourism segment. In addition, some papers complement the aforementioned research by discussing the religious requirements in the tourism food sector. For example,

Dugan (1994) presents the religious necessities in food supply for Muslim, Christian, Jews, Hindus and Buddhists.

When it comes to the relationship between tourism and religion, the lack of literature is more noticeable, especially regarding religious attributes and their impact on tourist needs. Very few of the available studies typically focus on the needs of tourist pilgrims. However, Weidenfeld and Ron (2008) forecast an increased number of religiously-minded tourists who join dynamic multipurpose packages, especially from developing countries of which many are Muslim countries.

2.9.2 Religious Attributes

What does the term ‘religious attributes’ of destinations really mean? Many aspects can constitute ‘religious attributes’ of destinations. The following sections present the literature on the matter:

2.9.2.1 Hotels meeting the religious needs of patrons

Additional religious services and provisions in hotels may result in attracting new markets and improved hotel rates (Weidenfeld, 2006). A study in Israel conducted by Mansfeld et al. (2000) recommended placing ‘Makkah stickers’ or ‘Qibla stickers’ (Stickers with ornamented arrows pointing towards the city of Makkah in Saudi Arabia for prayer directions) as well as placing a copy of the Holy Qur’an in every room occupied by Muslim visitors. Din (1989) found that hotels in Kuantan, Malaysia, catered to Muslim needs in the hospitality industry by requiring first class hotels to provide prayer rooms fully equipped with prayer mats, the Holy Qur’an, Suruh Yasin, and Tasbih, plus Qibla stickers.

Weidenfeld (2006) presented a number of suggestions to improve the religion-friendliness of hotels. The suggestions begin by simply providing a Bible in hotel rooms along with providing information on religious activities and institutions. This keeps religiously minded tourists in direct contact with scripture and informed of available services. Employment of Christian workers creates a religious atmosphere in the hotel. The hotel may choose to organize its own religious activities. It should provide a place of worship within the hotel itself or be in close proximity to a church. Christian symbols within a hotel such as a cross and images of the Virgin Mary help to provide a religious environment and décor.

Religious values play a role in catering to religious needs. For example, Collins-Kreiner and Kliot (2000) hypothesize the Protestants' need for a Bible in hotel rooms based on their belief in direct communication with God. Fleischer (2000) compares between Catholic and Protestant pilgrims in terms of the peculiarities of their tourist needs. The study reveals that Protestants appreciate religious symbols and opt for religious-sensitive tourist packages more so than Catholics. Moreover, Weidenfeld (2006) recommended catering to such Christian needs in the hotel room as that may increase the satisfaction of Christian tourists.

Empirical studies on the impact of catering to Islamic religious needs and the level of satisfaction of Muslim tourists are rare. Some of the studies that discuss services of this nature may include Muslim religious restrictions such as activities of vice and forbidding entry for unmarried couples (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2003; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010). They also found that hotels may provide religious information such as the location of nearby mosques or prayer times and nearby Halal restaurants (Henderson, 2003).

Furthermore, as Muslims avoid free mixing between the sexes, hotels could offer separate swimming pools and recreational facilities (Al-Hamarnah & Steiner, 2004; Henderson, 2003; Timothy & Iverson, 2006). Hashim et al. (2007a) suggested that the availability of Halal food and a list of nearby Halal restaurants satisfy Muslims during their holidays. Timothy and Iverson (2006) also suggested that hotels should educate their staff on cross-cultural communication to allow them to treat Muslim tourists with respect and consider recruiting religious staff. In addition, it may be better if there are staff hostels for men and women (Henderson, 2003).

2.9.2.2 Places of worship

Prayer is the greatest virtue in Islam and is considered one of the five pillars. The Holy Qur'an states: "*And be steadfast in prayer; practise regular charity; and bow down your heads with those who bow down in worship*" (Holy-Qur'an, 2:43). Muslims are ordered to pray five times daily (Early morning, Noon, Mid-afternoon, Sunset, and Evening) in Masjid (a Muslim house of worship). One of the five pillars of Islam and perhaps the most witnessed manifestation of Islamic teachings is the Muslim five time daily prayer. Prayer keeps a Muslim regularly thinking of his Lord, communicating to Him his fears and aspirations, and giving thanks for the blessings He has provided.

The five time daily prayers are organized in specific timeframes. A Muslim is not permitted to delay his/her prayer outside of the designated time frame without due cause. This reason alone makes it necessary for the tourism and hospitality industry to provide sufficient facilities for Muslims to perform their religious obligation. Tourist sites, along with hotels, should make the necessary arrangements to accommodate Muslim tourists.

According to the Holy Qur'an and Islamic tradition, Muslims around the world must face Makkah (where the sacred masjid is located) during their daily prayers. The Holy Qur'an states:

“We have certainly seen the turning of your face, [O Muhammad], toward the heaven, and We will surely turn you to a Qiblah with which you will be pleased. So turn your face toward al-Masjid al-Haram. And wherever you [believers] are, turn your faces toward it [in prayer]. Indeed, those who have been given the Scripture well know that it is the truth from their Lord. And Allah is not unaware of what they do” (Holy-Qur'an, 2:144).

The five daily prayers are of great importance to practicing Muslims. Therefore, the mosque (a Muslim house of worship) or prayer room is considered to be one of the most crucial facilities for Muslims (Al-Hamarneh & Steiner, 2004; Syed, 2001). Weidenfeld (2006) suggests that proximity to a mosque may influence Muslim tourist preferences when making hotel reservations. Mohsin (2005) conducted a study to assess the attitude of Peninsular Malaysians towards choosing the Northern Territory of Australia for a holiday as a tourism destination and found that Muslim respondents were concerned about the availability of mosques.

Mohsin and Ryan (1997) recommend that the ease of access to Islamic services are important when they explored the attitudes of Malaysian and Indonesian business people towards the possibility of holidaying in Australia. It is also suggested that Middle Eastern countries take concrete steps to develop Islamic tourism internally by having prayer rooms at tourism sites (WTM, 2007). Syed (2001) also suggested that the availability of mosques

at tourist destinations may increase satisfaction levels. The mosque itself may be considered as a tourist attraction if they are unique and outstanding (Henderson, 2003).

2.9.2.3 Availability of Halal food

Dugan (1994) presented findings on food service requirements by Jews, Muslims, Hindus, Buddhists and Christians. Evidence from Brown's (1996) ethnographic study shows the influence of religious prohibitions on determining their expectations regarding services provided by a hotel such as appropriate ingredient choice and preparation. This is further supported by Williams (2002) who identified the role of the Jewish Kashrus (Jewish religious requirements) in prohibiting certain foods and regulating compliance procedures for food preparation.

For Muslims, the issue is centred on the concept of *Halalness*. *Halal* food refers to food that can be lawfully consumed when conditions for Islamic food preparation are met. Foods that are unlawful to Muslims include pork, pork-derived foods including lard and bacon and meat and other products from carnivorous animals or those that feed on carrion. The Holy Qur'an states: "***He hath only forbidden you dead meat, and blood, and the flesh of swine and that on which any other name hath been invoked besides that of Allah. But if one is forced by necessity, without willful disobedience, nor transgressing due limits, then is he guiltless. For Allah is Oft-forgiving Most Merciful.***" (Holy-Qur'an, 2:173). The verse instructs on the types of foods prohibited to Muslims. Consumption of any food or drink with alcoholic content is also prohibited (Dugan, 1994). One important distinguishing feature of the *Halal* label is that animals must be slaughtered in a specific way and with the person carrying out the slaughter reciting the name of *Allah* (God).

Many studies show the importance of the availability of *Halal* food to Muslims in choosing their tourist destinations (Mohsin, 2005; Mohsin & Ryan, 1997; Syed, 2001; Weidenfeld, 2006; Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008). The importance of this to some Muslims is reflected by the fact that even when served Halal food, many are still concerned over whether the food is genuinely *Halal*. Henderson (2003) found that some firms in the Western tourism industry are concerned over this issue. Some Muslims ask about the ingredients the meal is made up of because pork and alcohol in all its many forms are forbidden. Therefore, meals provided to Muslims have to be free from alcohol and pork and the utensils have to be uncontaminated by these two elements (Dugan, 1994).

Catering to Muslim tourists' needs in terms of providing *Halal* food in any particular destination may increase their overall satisfaction and loyalty. Mansfeld et al. (2000) gives explicit recommendations for providing food that complies with Shariah laws. Therefore, a caterer who is aware of how to satisfy Muslims or who offers religious groups' dietary needs will attract more Muslim customers (Dugan, 1994).

2.9.2.4 Banning of alcohol consumption and gambling activities

According to Islamic teachings, it is completely forbidden for Muslims to drink or sell alcohol. Muslims are also prohibited from gambling and being involved in the gambling industry. It is stated in Holy Qur'an: "***O ye who believe! Intoxicants and gambling, (dedication of) stones, and (divination by) arrows, are an abomination—of Satan's handwork: eschew such (abomination), that ye may prosper.***" (Holy-Qur'an, 5:90). Moreover the Prophet of Islam, Muhammad (Peace Be Upon Him) said: "***Alcohol is***

the mother of all evils and it is the most shameful of evils.” (Ibn Majah, 2004). It is also not permissible for Muslims to visit places where alcohol is consumed and gambling is practiced (Al-Hamarnah & Steiner, 2004; Din, 1989; Hashim et al., 2007b; Henderson, 2003, 2008a; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010).

Muslim countries like Saudi Arabia, Iran, Bangladesh and Pakistan implement very restrictive policies on the public consumption of alcohol and gambling. However in some other Muslim countries, such as Egypt and Turkey the situations are not so restrictive. For example, in most states in Malaysia alcohol is freely available although Muslims can be punished for drinking in public (Aljazeera, 2009).

2.9.2.5 Sexual permissiveness

Islamic teachings expressly forbid Muslims from engaging in fornication or adultery. Activities deemed conducive to sexual permissiveness are not allowed to take place in public. This is based on many verses in the Holy Qur’an including: “*Nor come nigh to adultery: for it is a shameful (deed) and an evil, opening the road (to other evils).*” (Holy-Qur’an, 17:32).

Many Muslim scholars take the view that it is *Haram* or not permissible to visit, for the sake of tourism, places where sexual permissiveness is rampant. Their opinion is based on the principle that Islam came to impede all roads leading to evil. If some tourist activities result in the facilitation or the commission of sins then it is not permissible for Muslims to be involved in such tourist activities (Rasma, 2008).

Most Muslim countries including Malaysia prohibit adultery. The Malaysian licensing policy prohibits prostitution and behaviour such as public or indecent displays of affection (Din, 1989; Henderson, 2003, 2008a; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2010). Moreover, in some Malaysian towns municipal enactments for lodging establishments explicitly forbid unmarried couples from being in close proximity (Din, 1989). Many Muslim authorities frown on tourism in general due to the perception that tourism is associated with sexual permissiveness (Din, 1989). Therefore, some Muslim scholars prohibit sex tourism as practiced by some Arab Muslims from the Middle East in travelling to Europe or Bangkok (Din, 1989).

What is more, using sexually provocative images in marketing tourist destinations to Muslim customers is also frowned upon. According to Islamic teachings, promotion techniques must not use sexual appeal in international marketing (Saeed et al., 2001). Female images are, therefore, not featured in tourism promotion in some Malaysian states like Terengganu (Henderson, 2003). Mohsin (2005) is of the opinion that the use of sexually provocative images of bikini-clad girls to promote a destination will not attract Muslim tourists.

2.9.2.6 Dress code

According to the Islamic teachings, Muslim women must not expose their hair and body. The Holy Qur'an states: *“O Prophet, tell your wives and daughters and the believing women to draw their outer garments around them (when they go out or are among men). That is better in order that they may be known (to be Muslims) and not*

annoyed...” (Holy-Qur’an, 33:59). Men are supposed to cover their thighs (Timothy & Iverson, 2006).

In deciding tour destinations, Muslims look at the local dress codes in that particular region of the world that is being considered. Such considerations are to gauge the level of conformity to Islamic dress norms in order to determine if they will or will not be comfortable visiting that particular destination. This is particularly so for Arab tourists who have to observe strict dress codes in their native countries and prefer not to expose themselves and families to environments that may threaten their sense of proper dressing.

Hashim et al. (2007a) demonstrated the Malaysian Tourist Board’s awareness of Islamic dress sensitivities by restricting their marketing campaigns to present only traditional Malay Muslim dress codes. Women with headscarves and men wearing Songkoks – a black rimless hat worn by Malay men usually for praying – were depicted on advertising billboards and home pages. Some conservative Malaysian states enforce appropriate dress norms prohibiting people from disturbing cultural norms by wearing revealing clothes such as bikinis. Furthermore, western tourists are expected to adorn the Islamic attire when visiting religious places like mosques (Henderson, 2003).

Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2010) claim that Islamic teachings prohibit improper dressing. Al-Hamarneh and Steiner (2004) assert that considerations of the religious conservatism of any particular region including prescribed dress codes should be respected. Such cultural considerations are expected more so of tourism operators in all aspects of the tourism industry as they are interacting directly and regularly with foreign tourists (Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008).

2.9.3 Tourism and Islam

Each religion has an impact on its believers or followers. In Islam, it is Islamic law (Shariah) that addresses all trade and industry related issues including domestic and global tourism. True Islamic teachings emerge from two main streams: Al-Qur'an, the Holy Book of Islam and the Sunnah or documented deeds and sayings of the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him). Tourism in Arabic, which is the original language of the Holy Qur'an, has many connotations but in current practice it is confined to a few meanings – travelling the earth recreationally or for research purposes and not for the sake of earning money, working or settling down anew (Majma, 2004, p. 467).

Islamic teachings regulate this type of tourism to conform with the higher objectives of Shariah, which uphold five necessities; the protection of religion, life, mind, lineage and property. Some Muslim scholars are of the view that all five necessities, by which all heavenly religions are in agreement, are necessary ingredients without which communities cannot live and prosper (Badhdah, 2005). Therefore, understanding and observing Islamic teachings in the tourism and hospitality markets may be considered a competitive advantage as the needs of Muslim customers traveling overseas may be a source of anxiety for themselves and others (Syed, 2001). In the following sections the term “Shariah” is discussed as well as the sources of Shariah, followed by examples of Shariah implications on tourism practice.

2.9.3.1 Shariah

Increasing Muslim concern for products and services that compliment their faith has led Muslim scholars to review contemporary knowledge and disciplines. This critically

analytical trajectory is termed 'Islamization'. Based on the belief that Islam is a comprehensive way of life with solutions for all predicaments, the term Islamization consists of a wide variety of approaches that seek to implement Islamic values into any given scenario seen as problematic by a religious perspective. Islamization has led to increasing awareness amongst Muslims resulting in the need for Islamic options for their needs as opposed to the majority of options currently available. The crux of the problem rests however in the question of how to formulate and deliver practical Islamic solutions to these problems (Muhammad, 1989, p. 24).

The term 'Shariah' is literally understood as meaning the fountainhead from which water springs. 'Shariah' refers to the set of divine rules and regulations ordering human life and man's interaction with all creatures in this world.¹ With a mixture of broadly defined purposes and objectives and detailed injunctions Shariah determines man's place in this world. In Islam man exists with a particular purpose and is given a special responsibility to build and inhabit this world in truth and righteousness according to the rules set by his Creator. From an Islamic point of view man is not free to do as he pleases.

Through Shariah man engages this world with the higher consciousness of the hereafter. Heavenly values are injected into worldly affairs. In this there is a symbolic relationship between the rules and regulations that is Shariah and its literal meaning as a source of water since water is the source of life (Edge, 1996, p. xv). Accordingly, Shariah is thus a comprehensive guide and is viewed by Muslims as synonymous to Din. The various places in which Shariah is mentioned in the Holy Qur'an (5: 48; 7: 163; 42: 13 and

¹These divine rules and regulations are based on interpretations of the Holy Qur'an and Hadith by Muslim scholars. Since these scholars lived in different time periods, faced different circumstances, their opinions differ on some matters. Some are very strict and some are less so.

21; 45: 18) testify to its dynamic and comprehensive nature. It can be easily claimed that the practical manifestation of Islam is none other than Shariah (Murad, 1981, p. 86).

The holistic meaning of Shariah embracing both the practical and spiritual dimensions of life means that a large spectrum of issues is addressed. From mundane rituals of everyday life both private and public, individual and social, attitudes and behaviours; nothing is left unaddressed by Shariah's comprehensive nature. By virtue of its comprehensiveness in addressing all spheres of life Shariah is well equipped to guide man in all that he does. Islam teaches that success is found in conforming to the rules and regulations, or perhaps more aptly put as 'guidance' directing man to the best conduct and behaviour to approach any given situation. Shariah is a complete solution. It cannot be fragmented and we cannot pick and choose as we wish. This may be considered to be at the very heart of the Islamic message, as dutiful Muslims who wilfully conform to Shariah norms increasingly find it the source of internal happiness and worldly success. For a serious and dedicated Muslim there is no alternative.

In the eighth-century hijrah Imam Abu Ishaq Al-Shatibi (790 H, p. 393) expounded the higher objectives ordering Shariah. Imam Al-Shatibi numbered them as five, in order of importance they are the protection of religion, self, mind, wealth and property, and lastly lineage or the ability to procreate. The entire Shariah, Imam Al-Shatibi correctly observes, serves one of these five objectives and all objectives serve the highest objective of the preservation of religion. From here extends the plethora of legal rulings, which, collectively, can be traced to serving one or more of these five higher objectives. All actions of any nature directly or indirectly threatening the preservation of the higher

objectives is prohibited in Islam, similarly, actions promoting them are encouraged in Islam. In broad strokes this is the spectrum of obligation in Islam.

Ethics shares a symbiotic relationship to Shariah in that Shariah supports and condones ethical practices through legislation, in other words Shariah is itself ethical. The advancement to ethics through Shariah is that Shariah is proactively promoting ethical practices through its range of commandments and prohibitions. In order to be meaningful, Shariah requires that whosoever observes and practices its injunctions is sincere and does so in good faith and spirit.

2.9.3.2 Sources of Shariah

There are two main sources of the Shariah –the Holy Qur’an and the Sunnah of Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him). In addition to the Holy Qur’an and the Sunnah, there are secondary sources of the Shariah such as Ijma (consensus), Qiyas (analogical deduction), Ijtihad (personal reasoning), and Maslaha (public interest).

Islamic Shariah is not the product of collective or individual genius. It is not the result of moments of brilliance or years of perfected legislation though years of trial and practice. Shariah is far from human limitation and imperfection. In Islam it is the divine practical guide to a virtuous life. Shariah is in principal the expression of the teachings of the Holy Qur’an. The Holy Qur’an is the beating heart of Islam. It is Allah’s words to mankind revealed to His last Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) through the Archangel Gabriel. The Holy Qur’an is Islam. It is the primary source of Shariah, its fountainhead and the indisputable source of divine authority for all Muslims (Edge, 1996, p. XVII). For this

reason the answers to all questions posed to Muslims regarding any issue whatsoever must first be referred to and sought for in the Holy Qur'an.

Following the Holy Qur'an is the second source of authority in Islam –Al-Sunnah. Literally it is held to mean 'practice', 'tradition' and 'precedent' (Edge, 1996, p. XVII). Sunnah is second only to the Holy Qur'an and its authority extends from the Holy Qur'an itself in that the Messenger Muhammad (PBUH) was the Messenger of Allah to all mankind conveying only that which has been inspired to him by his Lord. The Holy Qur'an states; "***To obey him is to obey God***" (Holy-Qur'an, 4:80). Sunnah is technically defined as the verbal and physical teachings of the Prophet along with his attributes and the decisions he made. No action of the Messenger (PBUH) in what is related to conveying the Message of Islam is unaccepted by Muslims when its authenticity is proven beyond reasonable doubt. There exists a primary significance in the fact that Allah chose Muhammad (PBUH), a man, to be His Messenger.

The significance is that Muhammad (PBUH) was a human being who shares in the one and same human nature shared by all defined as human. This means that the prophet Muhammad (PBUH) shares the same biological and intellectual constitution as other members of the human race. He, PBUH, could not breathe under water or fly in the air, he tired and slept, he hungered and ate, he came of age and married, he participated in the seemingly infinite activities humans are capable of. What all this means is that, fundamentally, the Sunnah of the Prophet (PBUH) is repeatable by all human beings. His Sunnah is an example we can emulate. It is then no surprise that the Sunnah is highly regarded by most Muslims. The Sunnah has been preserved through the tireless efforts of

Muslim scholars throughout the ages who spared no resource and energy in collecting and authenticating hundreds and thousands of Hadiths (Murad, 1981, p. 102).

Third, in successive order of religious authority in Islam, is 'Ijma' or mutual consensus. Ijma is where scholars gather and unanimously agree on a ruling for a specific issue. There are several types of Ijma, which range in authority and degree of binding. The Ijma of the Sahabah or the companions of the Prophet (PBUH) is the highest and most authoritative form. It is where a gathering of companions collectively agree on a ruling upon a certain issue. This form of Ijma cannot be annulled and replaced by another, later Ijma. The reason for this is based on the status of the Companions as having graduated from the Prophetic school of religious instruction and having witnessed revelation and championed its cause, not to mention their keen religious perception, religious commitment and intimate knowledge of Shariah and the Arabic language.

Ijma in itself, not being a religious authority, derives its authority from the Holy Qur'an and must subsequently conform to the general teachings of Islam. Ijma cannot contradict the established teachings of the Holy Qur'an and Sunnah. Rather it is a mechanism that allows for a continuous provision of ongoing legislation that meets an ever changing world (Murad, 1981, p. 55). The exercise of Ijma presupposes the ability for Muslims to engage Islamic sources of legislation in search of solutions for contemporary problems.

Endeavours of Muslim scholars to formulate Islamic solutions is termed 'Ijtihad' and is perhaps the most significant level in the process of formulating rulings in Islam in contemporary times. Ijtihad denotes a method of inquiry into Islamic sources and consists

of a variety of steps that use the tool of ‘Qiyas’ (analogical reasoning) in various ways. Other initiatives from the varied schools of Islamic Jurisprudence are ‘Istihsan’ (equity) ‘al-Maslahah al-Mursalah’ (public good) ‘Sad al-Thariah’ (preventing harm) among others (Edge, 1996, p. 200). Having said this, it can never be over emphasized that all attempts to engage the sources of Shariah must conform to the overall framework of Islamic teaching.

2.9.4 Shariah Implication on Tourism Practice

Although the tourism and hospitality industry in Muslim countries aims to attract many non Muslim tourists, currently the increasing numbers of Arab and Muslim travellers and their high purchasing power have motivated the industry to implement Islamic teachings to directly meet the needs of Muslim tourists. In other words, Muslim travellers have become an important target market, especially in the Arabic Gulf region. As a consequence, Islamic tourism has emerged as a new concept based on Shariah and ethical codes. Shakiry (2007) says; “*Islamic Tourism has been putting the spotlight on new dimensions of tourism in addition to the traditional one by adopting the moral principles of tourism*”. Accordingly, many tourist organizations have begun to implement Islamic teachings and invest in Islamic tourism considering it as a competitive advantage. Halal tourism appears to focus more on the Middle Eastern demographic, in particular the Gulf families, with their conservative customs and traditions and desire for Islamic Shariah teachings.

Since the September 11th attacks the United Arab Emirates has increasingly attracted Muslim Middle Eastern tourists. In recent years it has become a popular attraction for regional short-term travel. It is not uncommon to find weekend vacationers enjoying the

wide plethora of activities and services offered. They find the common culture a source of security and the short travel distance attractive (Al-Hamarneh & Steiner, 2004). Dubai investment agencies have invested in Halal tourism through the introduction of Islamic hotels, which are becoming increasingly popular, in the aim to profit from regional investment in the tourism sector. They serve only Halal foods, are alcohol free, and provide women only floors.

Almulla Hospitality, a Dubai-based hospitality group, launched the world's first Shariah-compliant hotel portfolio in October 2007. It comprises three brand tiers – Cliftonwood, Adham and Wings—and operates under universal Shariah rules, which are illustrated in Table 2.2. Moreover, the Shariah board was formed along the lines of Shariah committees of the Islamic financial institutions to control facilities, work and performance within the Shariah compliant hotels.

Almulla, Chairman of Almulla Hospitality, is also planning to set up 150 Shariah compliant hotels around the world by 2013 at the forecasted cost of \$2 billion, first targeting Saudi Arabia, the UAE, Jordan, Egypt and Malaysia, followed by Thailand and Europe (Greaves, 2008). There are other companies in the UAE that have Shariah-compliant hotels such as Shaza Hotels from Kempinski Hotel, the Rezidor Hotel Group, Tamani Hotels & Suites from the KM Group and Rotana Hotels, which recently launched Rayhaan Hotels & Resorts (Heyer, 2008).

Table 2.2: Almulla Hospitality Shariah Rules

Halal services in Almulla hotels
No alcohol to be served on the premises
No entertainment such as nightclubs
Halal food served, no pork allowed
Gender segregated prayer rooms
Male staff for single men and female staff for women and families
In-house religious figures that host seminars and preaching sessions
Traditional uniforms
Markers indicating direction of Makkah
Staff to be predominantly Muslim
Separate wellness facilities such as gyms
Conservative TV channels
Plumbing considerations –toilets not to be facing Makkah
Art should not depict the human form
Beds not to be placed in the direction of Makkah
Holy Qur'an, prayer mats, tasbi (rosary beads) in each room or at the front desk

Source: Almulla Hospitality Corporate Culture (2008).

Malaysia is considered to be the premier country that has succeeded in marketing itself strongly in recent years as the ideal destination for Arab Gulf families who are looking for enjoyable ecological and urban tourism without undermining Islamic customs and traditions. Malaysian international hotels provide Halal food slaughtered according to the Shariah and pork-free fat. In addition, they provide Muslim employees who speak Arabic to help those who are not proficient in other languages. It has become familiar to find Arab television stations providing Arabic news and some religious programmes within a whole range of television channels offered by hotels. Markers are placed inside hotel rooms to indicate the direction of Makkah with prayer rugs and prayer times provided (Shakiry, 2008).

Saudi Arabia is the Muslim country that implements the strictest Shariah rules. Alcohol, nightclubs and free intermingling of men and women are strictly prohibited.

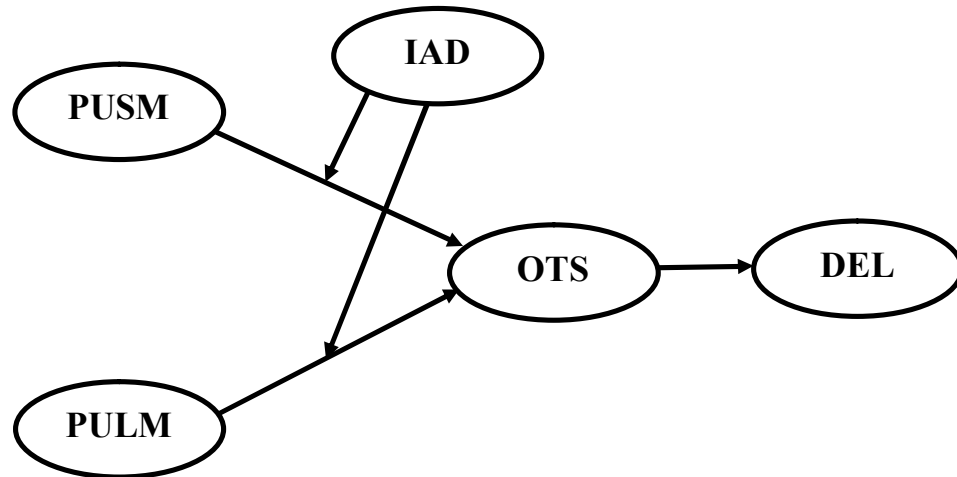
Women are forbidden from checking into hotels or travelling without the presence of a male family member. The Rosewood Corniche Hotel in Jeddah considers a Halal-based business strategy to meet the needs of Muslim female travellers a good business choice and, therefore, offers a floor exclusively for women (Abdullah, 2007). Similarly, in 2007 under a ministerial decision in Bahrain, alcohol was limited to five-star hotels and forbidden in all restaurants near mosques, schools or residential areas. Moreover, about 85% of non-five-star hotels have been obligated to close nightclubs on their premises and to stop selling alcohol if they are in Shariah compliant designated areas (Alferian, 2007).

In May 2008, in Egypt, Saudi sheikh Abdel Aziz Ibrahim owner of the Grand Hyatt Hotel, ordered his staff to empty every alcohol bottle on the premises into the Nile (Shenker 2008). Thus the Grand Hyatt Hotel, which occupies one of the most expensive sites overlooking the River Nile, became alcohol free and alcoholic drinks were replaced with juices. The Hyatt management said the owner did that because foreign tourists have to respect Muslim cultural norms and to conform with Islamic law. On a similar note, alcoholic drinks are not provided to passengers on Egypt Air flights.

2.9.5 Research Gaps in Islamic Attributes of Destination Literature

Future research is recommended in catering to the religious needs of tourists (Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008). Bogari et al. (2004) recommended research in the area of Islamic culture and destination attributes. Furthermore, it is noticed that no research has been done to explore the Islamic attributes of destinations, which may be important to the Muslim tourist. Furthermore, no study currently exists that provides a model that includes Islamic attributes of destination that test their impact on Muslim tourist satisfaction.

Therefore, as a moderating variable in the proposed model, Islamic attributes of destination was added, as shown in Figure 2.6.



Key:PUSM – Push motivations; PULM – Pull motivations; OTS – overall tourist satisfaction; DEL – destination loyalty; IAD – Islamic attributes of destination

Figure 2.6: Final Theoretical Framework.

2.10 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the theory of pull and push motivations has been presented. The literature on the push and pull approach suggests that people are initially pushed by internal desires or emotional factors. They are then pulled by external or tangible factors. Recent researchers supported that these push factors and pull factors influence overall tourist satisfaction, which also has an impact on destination loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Fang et al., 2008; Um et al., 2006; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Therefore, tourist satisfaction was discussed as well as its relationship with push and pull motivation, and destination loyalty. The Islamic attributes of destination were also discussed. Research gaps were presented at the end of each section and discussed with the intention of developing the theoretical framework.