

YOUNG WOMEN TRAVELERS' INTENTION TO VISIT HALAL DESTINATION

Imelda Rahmawati Khaerudin¹

¹Bachelor of Management Program, Faculty of Economics and Business, Universitas Mercu Buana
Jl. Raya Meruya Selatan, Kembangan, Jakarta 11650
imeldarmwt75@gmail.com

Abstract – *The purpose of this paper is to introduce the variable of Travel Motivation (TRMT), Travel Constraints (TCO), and Destination Image (DI) with Push-Pull Motivation theory to investigate Indonesian young female Muslim travelers' intention to visit Lombok as a halal destination. Data were collected through 187 distributed questionnaires toward Indonesian young female Muslim travelers. The collected data was analyzed by using SmartPLS. Indonesian young female Muslim travelers are highly motivated for travel-related activities, specifically to obtain a level of independence and empowerment. This study only focusing on Lombok as a halal destination. Young female Muslim travelers appear as a lucrative segment; thus, Lombok should provide marketing promotion that target this segment. Further, halal destination also provides the young women Muslim travelers to express their religious beliefs, in ways that are relevant to Muslim women. The value of this study is the finding that young women Muslim travelers are eager to visit a halal destination, and appear to be capable to overcome both internal and external factors that might prohibit them to travel.*

Keywords: *Young women traveler; travel motivation; travel constraints; destination image; halal destination.*

INTRODUCTION

The halal industry is experiencing a rapid development on a global scale. As reported by the State of the Global Islamic Economy Report 2019/2020, the average spending of Muslims worldwide reached USD 2.2 trillion in 2018 on food, pharmaceutical and lifestyle sectors. Meanwhile, Muslims spent USD 1.8 billion on the travel sector for the same year. The report also estimates that Muslims would account for 31% of the global population Muslims globally for the next 45 years. Accordingly, it is projected that the global Muslim spending on Halal travel sector would reach USD 274 billion by the year 2024.

In line with this, the Global Muslim Travel Index 2018 predicted that there will be 2.8 billion or around one in three people practicing Islam worldwide by 2050 (Mastercard-Crescentrating, 2018). In terms of demographic global trends, Muslim millennial travelers will generate US\$100 billion by 2025 in travel expenditure, about one-third of the overall Muslim travel segment's expenditure of US \$300 billion (MasterCard and Crescent Rating, 2019a). It can be argued that the increasingly affluent young Muslims are major rather than minor players supporting the market growth of all Muslim tourism (Mastercard & HalalTrip, 2017). It can be noted that 60% (around one billion) of the Muslim population in Muslim-majority countries are under 30 years of age (Puvanewary, 2018). The millennials would rely on social media and online reviews in planning their travels. They seek information from influencers and other travelers whose comments and videos are considered as inspirational content (Permana, 2018). They also tend to share their experiences with their peers by actively post images and videos, to provide recommendations on Muslim-friendly amenities and engage with larger audience (Oktadiana et al., 2016). For Muslim millennials, a particular trait stands out from their global counterparts. That is, the likelihood to pursue modern affairs while utterly taking the religious issues, with Islam as their core value.

Further, Mastercard-Crescentrating (2019) reported that the numbers of female Muslim millennial travelers are growing and represent one of the top 10 Halal Travel Trends. There are rising numbers of young and well-educated Muslim women. The numbers are growing due to the rise of the middle class in countries with large Muslim populations, higher disposable income and financial stability, later marriage, the participation of Muslim women in the workforce, and global trends for

growing numbers of women travelers in general. All these forces are contributing to the growing cohort of female Muslim tourists (Ratthinan & Selamat, 2019).

On the same token, women travelers are also increasing in Indonesia. The 2018 Statistics of Domestic Tourists reported that while the Indonesian domestic travel are mostly conducted by male tourists which account for 50% of all trips made, the trend is declining by around 1% over the last four years. Meanwhile, the female tourists counterpart's travel have reached 49%, indicating an increasing trend by 1% within the same period. Additionally, majority of the trips on the domestic level were made by the age cohort with the range of 15-44 years old (Statistics Indonesia, 2018). Both reports showed that young female travelers are growing and represent a lucrative segment within the tourism industry, specifically for the halal tourism. Moreover, the Millennial Muslim women have also been shown to exert growing independence in their travel decision making (Oktadiana et al., 2020).

Indonesian halal tourism

The Indonesian government launched the Halal Economy Masterplan 2019-2024 as the official guideline and support to strengthen the country's economy through the development of halal industry. Among six sectors covered in the Masterplan, halal tourism become one of the promising sectors, due to its recent development initiatives as conducted by the Ministry of Tourism. Such initiative is documented on the Indonesia Muslim Travel Index (IMTI), where 10 most potential provinces were identified as part of the Ministry's acceleration program to develop halal tourism (MasterCard and Crescent Rating, 2019b). This acceleration program was initiated on 2018, during which, coaching clinics, technical guidelines, and data collection were conducted, and currently has entered its second phase on 2019 to measure the improvement made. Each provinces' development is measured based on four key strategic areas, with its respective weightages and criteria: (1) Access (10%): air access, rail access, sea access, and road infrastructure; (2) Communication (15%): Muslim visitor guides, tour guides, stakeholder education, market outreach, and digital marketing; (3) Environment (30%): domestic and international tourist arrivals, internet coverage, and commitment to halal tourism; and (4) Services (45%): halal restaurants, Mosques, airports, hotels, and attractions.

Among 10 designated provinces, 3 provinces have made the most improvement, they are Lombok (West Nusa Tenggara), Aceh, and Riau and Riau Islands, which ranked 1st, 2nd. and 3rd respectively. As a result, these provinces are clustered as the leading regions for Indonesian halal destinations. Most notably, Lombok has the highest score on its environment (80) and communication (76) component, where they are fully committed to the development of halal tourism by promoting themselves as halal and halal honeymoon destination, as well as published visitor guides in both English and Arabic. Meanwhile, Aceh had improved on communication and services component scores, that increased from 47 and 50 on 2018 to 58 and 63 on 2019, respectively. This was made possible by conducting more trainings and workshops to educate its related stakeholders to develop halal tourism. Finally, Riau and Riau Islands managed to surpass Jakarta into the third place, with their high commitment in developing its halal tourism. The main reasons are the ability to conduct trainings and workshops by involving academicians, proactively conduct business initiatives to attract potential investors, and organized various events to promote their halal tourism.

Overall, the development of halal tourism in Indonesia is progressing, while its improvement is monitored closely by the Ministry of Tourism. This revealed that Indonesian halal tourism has sufficient resources and critical success factors to compete on the global level. Supported by the government and high commitment from the designated provinces, such global position would soon be realized. Nevertheless, Lombok is ranked 1st by IMTI, thus it would be adequate to be considered as the Indonesian halal destinations for the time being. As such, Lombok provides Muslim travelers' requirements to visit, in that they are able to practice their religious rituals, while able to experience the unique experiences that each destination have to offer. For this reason, it would be appropriate to investigate the young Muslim women's motivation factors to visit halal destination in Lombok.

Research Gap

In general, academic studies concerning travel patterns of young women Muslim travelers are limited with only a few publications focusing on this particular segment (Bakar et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2018). Further, according to Mastercard-Crescentrating's report (2019) on Muslim Women in Travel, little research exists about the emerging sub-segment of Muslim woman travelers. On this account, past studies call for academic studies to investigate the Islamic influence on young women Muslim travelers' motivation to travel along with other factors that might impede their travel behavior

(Oktadiana et al., 2020). Meanwhile, another study also recommends to investigate young Muslim women travelers' expectation related to Muslim-friendly services (Vargas-Sánchez & Moral-Moral, 2019).

Drawing from the discussion, a research gap is identified related to young Muslim women travelers' travel motivation within the context of halal tourism. Thus, to address this gap this study aims to investigate young Muslim women travelers' intention to visit halal destination by using the push-pull motivation theory. Further, this study also introduces travel constraints variable to assess young Muslim women's potential restrictions for travelling. Additionally, this study would be conducted in Indonesian halal destinations for the following reasons: (1) Indonesia is among the highest ranked favorite halal destination; (2) the increase of young women traveler on domestic trip; and (3) halal tourism is among the halal industry sectors that are formulated by the Indonesian government to enhance the country's economic growth.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Push-Pull Motivation

Research in tourism is focused on the motives of visitors and why they travel (Oktadiana & Pearce, 2018). Visitors' motivation generated by a set of individual needs that can be satisfied by visiting a destination or experiencing an attraction (Battour et al., 2017). In this sense, visitor motivation is considered as a crucial factor that explains visitor behavior (Chang et al., 2014). In other words, motivation is the most important driver of visitors' behavior, which intended to fulfill their need (Dean & Suhartanto, 2019).

The push-pull motivation concept is a widely accepted concept among scholars, which enable them to investigate visitors' travel behavior (Battour et al., 2017; Suni & Pesonen, 2019; Xu & Chan, 2016). Push factors refer to the travellers' purpose of a particular visit, in which they seek for the benefits during their travel on a destination. Push motivations are driven internally to fulfill the needs of relaxation, escape, interaction with others, health, education purpose, status, as well as discovery and adventure (Prebensen et al., 2013). As the result, push motivations reflect the emotional aspects where tourists would ensure that their need to be fulfilled as they evaluate potential attractions, destinations, and any other tourism features on offer (Tang, 2014).

Meanwhile, pull motivation represents the alignment between a particular attraction or destination and tourists' push motivation factors (Valduga et al., 2019). There are two forms of pull motivation factors. Firstly, pull motivation could be tangible in nature, such as specific facilities, price value, accessible services, reputation, and staff hospitality. Secondly, they also may comprise of intangible characteristics that would depend on the visitor's evaluation, perceptions, expectations and interpretation regarding image, uniqueness, and perceived contrast from home in terms of culture, food, language, and the overall environment (Prayag, 2010). Tourists mainly consider the pull motivation factors as attractions that would provide a unique experience for them. Thus, pull motivations generally comprise of external attributes that are likely to cater the visitor's push motivation (Suni & Pesonen, 2019).

Young Muslim Women Motivation to Travel

In the context of halal tourism, the tourist would have a distinct motivation to visit the halal destination. In general, they expect to practice their religious rituals, while enjoying the available attractions when visiting a destination. In particular, young Muslim women would seek the opportunity to connect with their companions, learn new cultures, share their experience, enjoying entertainment and adventure while staying spiritual at the same time on their travel activities. Women travelers also seek a sense of achievement, which driven by the increasing independence of decision making and the tendency to become a trendsetter. Further, they also keen to rectify the misunderstandings of Islam by experiencing a religious journey, and would actively share their opinion to a wider audience. Following the discussion, the young Muslim women are seeking to balance the leisure and spirituality as their motivation to travel. Most importantly, these motivations are likely to be catered by the halal destinations. However, despite their motivation, women also perceive several constraints to travel. Some of the prominent constraints are safety and security concerns when travelling, which have to be negotiated internally through a psychological process (Chung et al., 2017).

Perceived Travel Constraints

As indicated earlier, young women become one of the most significant market segments in halal tourism. However, past studies suggested that women travelers were susceptible to specific risks such as health, theft, violent crimes, and sexual harassment (Park et al., 2017; Yang & Tung, 2018). In addition, women travelers have to deal with travel constraints such as conspicuousness, restricted access, and vulnerability (Mohammad J. Khan et al., 2019). Nevertheless, many young women consider traveling activities to embrace independence and empowerment despite the difficulties they have to overcome the travel constraints.

Travel constraints refer to the barriers or reasons that avoid tourists to visit a specific destination. It confines continual traveling activities which leads to a negative travel experience. In other words, travel constraints are the key factors that prevent people from initiating or continuing any travel activities. In leisure tourism context, travel constraints are determined by both internal and external factors that limit the formation of leisure preferences and thus, impede participation and enjoyment of travel (Zheng et al., 2018). However, in many instances, individuals implement constraint negotiation process as a mean to reduce the travel constraints, which allow them to participate in travel activities.

The most widely used model of travel constraints in tourism studies is the hierarchical model (Zheng et al., 2018). In this model, constraints comprise of three different categories, such as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints that simultaneously inhibit travel and leisure activities (Mohammad J. Khan et al., 2019). Intrapersonal constraints are related to individual psychological states and attributes that influence his or her preferences (e.g., lack of interest and concern). Interpersonal constraints are the absence of social interactions, relationships, companion, and approval (e.g., family members and friends). Meanwhile, structural constraints consist of external factors that might hinder individual's preference and participation to travel, such as lack of time and money, destination environment, distance to the destination, climate, seasonality, safety, security, travel document applications, lack of transportation, accommodations, and tourism promotions. Therefore, people are required to overcome those constraints effectively to participate in travel activities.

Destination Image

The primary definitions of destination image consider the totality of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people hold about a destination. In this sense, destination image captures multiple pull factors that attract visitors to visit a particular destination (Chew & Jahari, 2014). The positive image of a destination is thus become the crucial factor for future visit behavior (Molinillo et al., 2018), while enhancing its competitiveness (Ritchie and Crouch, 2010). Further, destination image also reflects the mental state a person grasps about a destination, regarding its tourism infrastructure to cultural, natural, and social attributes (Beerli & Martin, 2004). In other words, destination image consists of physical attributes of a destination that are evaluated by people, to provide a positive travel experience (Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Ryan & Gu, 2007). As such, destination image covers a holistic view that is perceived about a destination.

Previous studies documented destination images within the context of domestic halal destination. Gannon et al. (2017) found that positive global image, local hospitality, cultural and heritage values, and safety are among the destination image attributes that are expected to be provided on domestic halal destinations. Meanwhile, Nassar et al. (2015) revealed that educational opportunities along with humbleness, self-aware, and national pride are expected to be experienced by tourists when visiting a domestic halal destination. Additionally, local food, climate, and place attachment are also considered as the important destination image that would attract visitors (Khan et al., 2017). Based on the discussion, destination image reveals the alignment between tourists' motivation and their expectation before, during and after a visit (Gannon et al., 2017). In turn, destination image would influence tourists' intention or re-visit intention toward a destination (Afshardoost & Eshaghi, 2020).

Intention to Visit

Intention is referred as the guidance or plans that people created by themselves to act in particular manners. Such guidance is driven by personal motivational and psychological factors, such as attitude, perception, social norms, personal effort, and willingness to perform a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In turn, those motivations would be reasoned consciously as in their decision-making

purposes (Grunert et al., 2012). In general, people's intention would be manifested in through future planning, willingness to spend more, switching to a better destination, and recommend to others. In terms of managerial concern, these factors or beliefs need to be identified, to make sense of consumers' decision-making process. This implies that the data acquired from consumers' intention would allow the tourism practitioners to meet tourists' needs and expectations to visit a destination.

Hypotheses development and Research Framework

Motivation is a frame of mind that arises due to a need that drives an individual to perform different types of actions to fulfil that need. In the context of tourism, a person's motivation is viewed as an effort to fulfill the needs of culture interaction, explore new places, eat novel food, and being adventurous, all of which are expected to be satisfied through visiting a destination away from home. Accordingly, motivation would act as the predecessor for tourists' behavior. For example, culture differences and learning new language have a significant influence on Chinese students' intention to visit Japan. In another instance, young women travelers' intention to visit India are influenced by their motivation to explore historical sites and tasting exotic food. Lastly, the need to escape from daily routines, restore mental health, and shopping motives significantly influence the Kuwaiti travelers' intention to visit halal destinations (Nassar et al., 2015). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is presented as follows:

H1. There is a positive relationship between travel motivation and intention to visit a destination.

Travel constraints might impede tourists' intention to visit a destination. Lack of money, time, information, absence of companion and safety generally become the reasons of constraints among travelers. Accordingly, travel constraints would have a negative relationship toward intention to visit a destination. For example, past study found that lack information on a destination and absence of companion become the young women constraints on their intention to visit India (Khan et al., 2019). Meanwhile, potential radiation contamination and anti-Japanese sentiments are the constraints that impede Chinese college students's intention to visit Japan (Park et al., 2017). Finally, social expectations and approval from significant others impede the intention of Malaysian Muslim women to conduct their travel activities (Ratthinan & Selamat, 2019). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H2. There is a negative relationship between travel constraints and intention to visit a destination.

Tourists would travel to a destination if they could align between their motivation and the destination image. Such alignment would motivate tourists to fulfill their needs that are available and offered by a destination's positive physical attributes and overall image. Several studies confirmed the positive relationship between travel motivation and destination image. For example, tourists' motivation to experience a calm atmosphere, cultural attractions, and learning about historical sites have a positive relationship with the destination image of Hoi An World Heritage Site in Vietnam (Su et al., 2020). Further, motivation to learn new cultures, visit wildlife areas, and be close to nature among inbound tourists have a positive relationship with the destination image of Tanzania as a country with rich natural resources (Jani, 2018). Lastly, the motivation of young Malaysian women travelers to seek new places, rest, and relaxation have a positive relationship with the destination image of India (Khan et al., 2017). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H3. There is a positive relationship between travel motivation and destination image.

Tourists' visit on a destination would be hindered if they face constraints, both internally and externally. As a result, tourists would cancel their trip and would not be compensated even when a destination has a positive image and excellent reputation. Previous studies have documented the negative relationship between travel constraints and destination image. Khan et al. (2017) found that young Malaysian women's constraints lack of travel interest among peers and expensive ticket price have a negative relationship with destination image. Chinese tourists' feeling lack of security and safety and current nuclear weapon testing have damaged North Korea's destination image, indicating a negative relationship (Li et al., 2018). Another study found that extreme cultural and religious

difference are the constraints among Taiwan students which have a negative impact toward Brunei's destination image (Chen et al., 2013). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:
H4. There is a negative relationship between travel constraints and destination image.

As tourists' total belief and evaluation, destination image represents the overall performance perceived by tourists. It also comprises of both physical tourism infrastructure and subjectively evaluated experience that attract tourists into a destination. In turn, destination image would have a positive relationship toward intention to visit. Previous studies have confirmed such positive relationships. Cuba's destination image such as local festivals, beautiful landscape, and quality restaurants have a positive influence on US tourists' intention to visit the country (Chaulagain et al., 2019). Khan et al. (2017) reported that natural attractions, appealing local food, and historical attractions become the image of India among young Muslim women, which led to the increase of intention to visit the country. Meanwhile, unique and delicious food along with rich food culture are Hong Kong's destination image which positively influence inbound tourists' intention to visit the country as a culinary destination (Choe & Kim, 2018). Following the discussion, the hypothesis is stated as follows:

H5. There is a positive relationship between destination image and intention to visit a destination.

The image of a destination acts as an external stimuli that attracts tourists to visit a destination (Rahman et al., 2016). Further, people would evaluate whether their travel motivation are aligned with a destination image, where both tangible and intangible attributes of tourism are able to fulfill their needs. As a result, when tourists' motivation is aligned with a destination image, their intention to visit would be generated. Accordingly, destination image would link a tourists' motivation and their intention to visit, which also become the mechanism of before, after, and during a travel. In other words, destination has a mediating effect that explain tourists' behavior to conduct various reason of travel. Such mediating effect of destination image has been documented by previous studies (Alcázar et al., 2014; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Rahman et al., 2016; Su et al., 2020), which conducted from various context. Following the discussion, the hypotheses are stated as follows:

H6. Destination image will mediate the relationship between travel motivation and intention to visit a destination.

H7. Destination image will mediate the relationship between travel constraints and intention to visit a destination.

Drawing from then hypotheses development, the research framework is depicted on Figure 1.

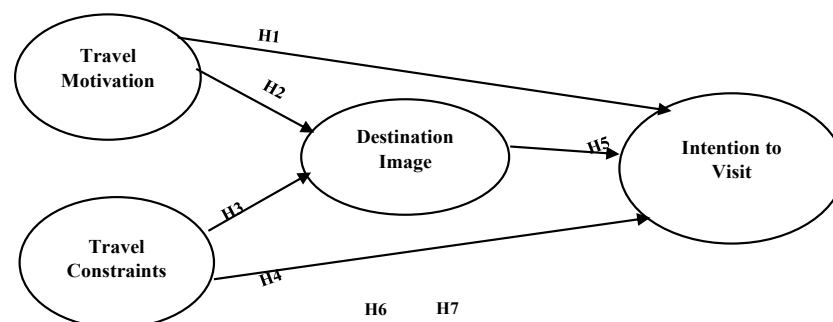


Figure 1. Research Framework

METHODS

Method

Based on the study's problem characteristic, the explanation between identified variables are the concern of the study (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). Following this reasoning, the quantitative methodology would be used to address the problem of this study. This study would adopt the

correlational study to investigate the problem. The first reason is that the current study would examine if the relationship between the variables do exist. Secondly, the existing variables are considered to be associated with the problem, which would not lead to a causal relationship (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). Finally, the variables would not be manipulated as the study is aimed to observe them in a normal condition. Therefore, the correlational study is the most appropriate type of investigation in this study.

Measures and sampling

In this study, measurement scales for all constructs were adapted from previous studies. Specifically, all constructs (TRMT, TCON, DI, and VI) were adapted from Khan et al.'s. (2017) study that contain 5 items for each construct. This study would collect data from young Muslim women that had never been travel to Lombok as a halal destination. Further, the Indonesian millennials are mostly concentrated on Java Island and its respective province's Capital Cities (i.e. Jakarta, Bandung, Semarang, and Surabaya), where internet usage are also the highest (APJII, 2018). Thus, a snowball sampling was employed where 5 representatives from each capital cities were approached by the researchers to pass on the questionnaire to their closest friends and relatives (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Additionally, a non-probability purposive sampling was employed to ensure that the respondents are Muslim and within the classification of millennial generation. Accordingly, the following screening questions were asked: "Are you a Muslim?" and "Are your age fall between the range of 20-40 years old?", and "Are you a female?".

Data collection and analysis

The data would be collected through questionnaire distribution with 7-point Likert scale. Data would be collected through an online questionnaire, in order to reach the targeted population on a wider scale. For this purpose, the questionnaire would be distributed through online platform using Google Form and social networking sites, such as Twitter and Facebook. The online distribution through online platform also conducted as a compliance of Covid-19 social protocol. In addition, questionnaire is a sufficient tool for data collection in this study to evaluate the psychological response from the respondents (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The sample size is calculated using G Power 3 software to meet 80% of predictive accuracy with the following parameters: effect size=0.15; α error=5%; power=0.95%; and 3 predictors (Faul et al., 2009; Hair Jr et al., 2017). Based on the calculation, the minimum amount of sample required are 119, thus, 200 questionnaires would be distributed.

The collected data would be analyzed with SmartPLS version 3.3.2. It is a structural equation modeling (SEM) software which is intended to analyze the significance on each relationship. Due to the variance based on its statistical algorithm, the fit indices are not necessary to be conducted (Hair et al., 2016). Data analysis would be conducted on two steps: (1) outer model, which includes the testing of composite reliability (CR), discriminant and convergent validity, outer loading, and collinearity assessment; (2) structural model, which includes the evaluation of t-value for hypotheses testing, coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2), and predictive relevance (Q^2). The mediation analysis in this study would follow the bootstrapping and confidence interval criteria (Zhao et al., 2010).

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

Respondents' profile

The majority of the respondents are male (54,8%), with the range of age between 25-35 years old (35,7%). The respondents' occupation are mostly within the private sector (40,5%), with monthly income of Rp. 5.000.000 – 10.000.000 (27,4%). Lastly, the majority of the respondents are bachelor graduates (48,2%). Table 1. summarizes the respondents' profile.

Table 1. Respondents' Profile

Demographic Profile		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	92	54,8
	Female	76	45,2
Age	Less than 25	20	11,9
	25 – 35	60	35,7

	36 – 45	47	28,0
	46 – 60	30	17,9
Occupation	More than 60	11	6,5
	Students	17	10,1
	Government Sector	36	21,4
	Private Sector	68	40,5
	Self-Employed	20	11,9
Monthly Income	Housewife	27	16,1
	Below Rp. 2.500.000	20	11,9
	Rp. 2.500.000 – Rp. 5.000.000	40	23,8
	Rp. 5.000.000 – Rp. 10.000.000	46	27,4
	Rp. 10.000.000 – Rp. 15.000.000	27	16,1
Education Level	Above Rp. 15.000.000	35	20,8
	Elementary School	25	14,9
	Diploma	17	10,1
	Bachelor Degree	81	48,2
	Master Degree	43	25,6
	Doctoral Degree	2	1,2

Measurement Model Assessment (Outer Model)

On this stage of analysis, the reliability and validity of the constructs would be evaluated. It was conducted by using the Partial Least Square (PLS) algorithm procedure with 300 iterations. The result revealed that the outer loading values for DI constructs ranged between 0.570 – 0.827; TCON construct ranged between 0.882 – 0.965; TRMT construct ranged between 0.708 – 0.877; and VI construct ranged between 0.766 – 0.857. All loading values met the cut-off values as specified by Hair et al. (2016), hence there are no items deleted during the assessment. Meanwhile, the reliability analysis showed that all constructs have met the cut-off values. Both Cronbach's Alpha (lower bound reliability) and composite reliability (upper bound reliability) values are above the cut-off values of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2016): DI ($\alpha = 0.774$, CR = 0.846); TCON ($\alpha = 0.963$; CR = 0.967); TRMT ($\alpha = 0.877$; CR = 0.911); and VI ($\alpha = 0.860$; CR = 0.900). Finally, the convergent validity is assessed by looking at the average variance extracted (AVE) value, which should be greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2016). The AVE value of greater than 0.5 indicates that a construct contains its own meaning. The AVE value of DI construct is 0.529; TCON construct is 0.855; TRMT construct is 0.673; and VI construct is 0.642. Based on this output, the AVE values for all constructs have met the cut-off value, and thus, possess the adequate level of convergent validity.

Overall, the outer (factor) loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE values are within the acceptable cut-off values. Therefore, deletion of indicators is not necessary to be performed. Table 2 summarizes the measurement model evaluation for first-order model.

Table 2. The measurement model evaluation for first-order model

Construct	Items	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
DI	DI1	0,745	0,774	0,846	0,529
	DI2	0,646			
	DI3	0,570			
	DI4	0,827			
	DI5	0,814			
TCON	TCON1	0,959	0,963	0,967	0,855
	TCON2	0,965			
	TCON3	0,929			
	TCON4	0,886			
	TCON5	0,882			
TRMT	TRMT1	0,877	0,877	0,911	0,673
	TRMT2	0,708			
	TRMT3	0,809			
	TRMT4	0,870			

	TRMT5	0,827			
VI	VI1	0,786	0,860	0,900	0,642
	VI2	0,771			
	VI3	0,766			
	VI4	0,824			
	VI5	0,857			

Discriminant Validity

The next analysis would be conducted to evaluate the discriminant validity for all constructs. Discriminant validity analysis is performed to assess whether each construct carry its own conceptual meaning and different from the other constructs (Hair et al., 2016). Failure to establish the discriminant validity would result to error on further analysis, as redundancy would occur. In this study, discriminant validity is performed through two analysis. First, the Fornell-Larcker criterion is conducted to assess the square root of AVE value on each construct. This analysis requires that all square root of AVE value on each construct that greater than its adjacent values. The Fornell-Larcker criterion analysis revealed that the requirement is met, and all square root of AVE values of each construct that greater than its adjacent values are indicated with bold fonts. Table 3. summarizes the result.

Table 3. Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Constructs	DI	TCON	TRMT	VI
DI	0,727			
TCON	-0,036	0,925		
TRMT	0,496	-0,063	0,821	
VI	0,592	-0,081	0,659	0,801

Second, the discriminant validity is evaluated by using the Heterotrait – Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio (Henseler et al., 2015). HTMT computes the ratio between correlations of items measuring different constructs and correlations of items measuring the same constructs. In addition, HTMT requires that all correlations ratio for all constructs should be below the value of 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2016). The result of HTMT ratio evaluation revealed that all ratio correlation values are below 0.90, which indicated that discriminant validity for all constructs have met the required value. Table 4 summarizes the result.

Table 4. Discriminant Validity: HTMT Ratio

Constructs	DI	TCON	TRMT	VI
DI				
TCON	0,094			
TRMT	0,570	0,074		
VI	0,717	0,076	0,750	

Following the result of both Fornell - Larcker criterion and HTMT Ratio, discriminant validity has been established in this study. This indicates that all constructs carry its own meaning and different from each other. Furthermore, there are no indicators necessary to be deleted during the analysis. Therefore, the PLS analysis would proceed to the next stage of analysis: the structural model or the inner model. Figure 1 depicts the measurement model performed by the PLS algorithm.

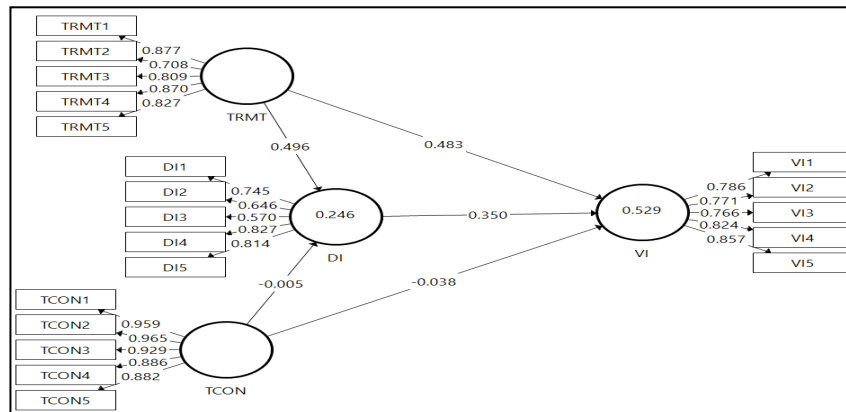


Figure 1. Research Framework

Collinearity assessment

Prior to perform the structural model analysis, the collinearity assessment should be conducted (Hair et al., 2016). Collinearity assessment is conducted to ensure to eliminate redundancy on the observed relationships. To this end, the value of variance inflated factors (VIF) on the observed relationships should be below 3.3. VIF analysis is conducted through the PLS algorithm, and showed that the inner VIF values on the observed relationships are below 5. Therefore, redundancy would not occur on the later stage of the analysis. Table 5 summarizes the result.

Table 5. Collinearity Assessment

Relationships	VIF
TRMT->DI	1,004
TCON->DI	1,004
TRMT->VI	1,330
TCON->VI	1,004
DI->VI	1,327

Structural Model Assessment (Inner Model)

The structural model assessment would analyze the predictive accuracy of the model developed in this study. Specifically, R^2 , f^2 , and Q^2 would be evaluated as the parameters of the model predictive accuracy. Subsequently, the analysis is followed by the hypotheses testing, on both direct and indirect relationships (i.e., mediation). In this regard, the structural model assessment is performed by using the bootstrapping procedure with 5000 iterations (Hair et al., 2016).

Predictive model assessment

The predictive model assessment begins with assessing R^2 , as it represents the overall variance that is caused by the independent variables toward the dependent variable. The values of R^2 are within the range of 0.19, 0.33, and 0.67, which represent weak, moderate, and strong, respectively. In this study, the R^2 is 0.529, which indicates that the coefficient of determination value is strong. In other words, the independent variables in this study are able to explain 56.5% of variance on the dependent variable. Meanwhile, effect size (f^2) represents the effect value of a particular independent variable towards a dependent variable (Hair et al., 2016). The range of f^2 values are 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, which represent weak, medium, and strong effect, respectively. f^2 values in this study is found to be ranged between no effect to large effects of the observed relationships. Specifically, TCON->DI ($f^2 = 0.000$); TCON->VI ($f^2 = 0.003$); TRMT->DI ($f^2 = 0.325$); TRMT->VI ($f^2 = 0.373$); and DI->VI ($f^2 = 0.196$). Finally, the predictive model analysis would be analyzed through the value of Q^2 . Predictive relevance is conducted to assess the predictive ability of the model with the omission of several data. The assessment is performed using the blindfolding procedure to determine the data omission. The blindfolding procedure in the SmartPLS provide the range of data omission (D), with the range between 5 – 12 (Hair et al., 2016). Since the default omission value is 7, this study applied the value on the blindfolding procedure. The Q^2 value should be greater than 0 in order the model to be classified to have an adequate predictive relevance. The result of the blindfolding procedure showed

that the Q^2 is greater than 0 ($Q^2 = 0.331$). Thus, together with the value of R^2 , f^2 , and Q^2 , the model developed in this study has a sufficient level of predictive ability. Table 6.6 summarizes the result of the predictive model assessment.

Table 6. Predictive model assessment

Relationships	R-square	Q-square	f-square	Effect Size
TRMT->DI			0,325	Medium-Large
TCON->DI			0,000	No effect
TRMT->VI	0,529	0,331	0,373	Large
TCON->VI			0,003	No effect
DI->VI			0,196	Medium-Large

Hypotheses testing (direct and indirect relationships)

The hypotheses testing for direct relationships revealed that two hypotheses are not supported: H3 (TCON->DI; $t = 0,067$, $p=0,947$), and H4 (TCON->VI, $t = 0,616$, $p = 0.538$). Meanwhile, the rest of the hypotheses are supported: H1 (TRMT->VI, $t=6,229$, $p=0.000$); H2 (TRMT->DI, $t=9,849$, $p=0.000$); and H5 (DI->VI, $t=5,237$, $p=0.000$). Meanwhile, the hypotheses testing for indirect relationship revealed that H6 is supported: (TRMT->DI->VI, $t=4,984$, $p=0.000$, CI [UL,LL]=[0,110, 0,246]). On the other hand, H7 is not supported: (TCON->DI->VI, $t=0.065$, $p=0.948$, CI [UL,LL]=[-0,053, 0,055]). Table 7 summarizes the result of hypotheses testing for direct relationships.

Table 7. Hypotheses Testing result

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path Coefficient	T Statistics	P Values	CI (LL)	CI (UL)	Supported
H1	TRMT -> VI	0,483	6,229	0,000			Yes
H2	TRMT -> DI	0,496	9,849	0,000			Yes
H3	TCON -> DI	-0,005	0,067	0,947			No
H4	TCON -> VI	-0,038	0,616	0,538			No
H5	DI -> VI	0,350	5,237	0,000			Yes
H6	TRMT -> DI -> VI	0,174	4,984	0,000	0,110	0,246	Yes
H7	TCON -> DI -> VI	-0,002	0,065	0,948	-0,053	0,055	No

CONCLUSION

This study aims to investigate the factors that drive young Muslim women to visit Lombok as a halal destination. Travel Motivation and Travel Constraints are introduced as the independent variables, while Destination Image acts as the mediating variable that influence the visiting intention. The result revealed that travel motivation has a positive and significant influence towards visiting intention. This indicates that young women travelers possess high motivation to visit Lombok as halal destination. Most notably, such high motivations are related to learn new cultures, intellectual improvement, relaxation, and adventurous purposes. These motivations also show that young women travelers are seeking their role as Muslim, by immersing themselves with a halal destination. In this context, the young women Muslim travelers perceived Lombok to provide the fertile ground for such relationship.

Furthermore, Lombok's image as a halal destination also strengthens their motivation to visit the destination. That is, visiting Lombok is not only perceived as a leisure activity, but also a destination that facilitates a strong Islamic tradition, which enhance the motivation to further explore the universal values of Islam. Meanwhile, the young women travelers apparently do not see their personal constraints to hinder their trip to Lombok. In fact, personal constraints have no significant effect among the young women travelers to plan their trip to Lombok. Such finding suggests that a halal destination is safe to be visited by women travelers. Additionally, young women travelers are quite certain that Lombok would be a worthy destination to be visited, as there are no signs of hesitation to visit halal destination with their female groups.

Drawing from the discussion, several managerial implications could be determined. Since young women travelers are one of the most fast-growing sub-segments in the industry, it would be timely for the Lombok tourism board to focus on them. Higher education and higher salary earnings are the major contributors on the rising young women sub-segment. As a result, they are more capable to determine their own decision, and independently choose the most proper halal destination to visit. Particularly, Lombok should begin to allocate several spots that potentially accommodate women travelers' motivation that involve cultural attractions that is aligned with Islamic traditions which stimulate the intellectual improvement. On this account, promotion messages should also convey such cultural properties that might stimulate their interest to visit Lombok. Lastly, Lombok tourism board also need to strengthen their position as a safe haven for women visitors. It is probable that such positioning would stimulate the interest of non-Muslim young women travelers.

Several limitations in this study are acknowledged and provide avenues of research for future studies. Firstly, the respondents in this study are restricted to the young Muslim women that reside on the main capital cities on Java Island. Future studies should widen the demographic geography that includes other capital cities and also other areas on other islands. Secondly, other variables should be introduced as mediators to increase the mediating effect into full mediation. Variables such as altruistic motivations, sharing motivations, and information sources are worthy to be investigated as they are relevant with women travelers' behavior. Lastly, since respondents in this study consist of younger generations, motivation differences between women generations are also strongly recommended to be investigated by future studies. Such study would further generate knowledge related with the emergence of women sub-segment in the context of halal tourism.

REFERENCES

- Afshardoost, M., & Eshaghi, M. S. (2020). Destination image and tourist behavioural intentions: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 81, 104154.
- Ajzen. (1991). The theory of planned behavior as a predictor of growth in risky college drinking. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs*, 72(2), 322–332.
<https://doi.org/10.15288/jsad.2011.72.322>
- Alcázar, M. del C. H., Piñero, M. S., & Maya, S. R. de. (2014). The effect of user-generated content on tourist behavior: The mediating role of destination image. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 10(ESPECIAL), 158–164.
- APJII. (2018). Hasil Survei Penetrasi dan Perilaku Pengguna Internet Indonesia 2018.
<https://www.apjii.or.id/content/read/39/410/Hasil-Survei-Penetrasi-dan-Perilaku-Pengguna-Internet-Indonesia-2018>
- Bakar, A., Barkathunnisha, E. T., Nair, S., & Lim, T. (2018). 'Halalifying' Travel: Reaching for the muslim millennial travellers. *Proceedings of the Council for Australasian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) Conference 2018*.
- Battour, M., Ismail, M. N., Battor, M., & Awais, M. (2017). Islamic tourism: An empirical examination of travel motivation and satisfaction in Malaysia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(1), 50–67.
- Chaulagain, S., Wiitala, J., & Fu, X. (2019). The impact of country image and destination image on US tourists' travel intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 12, 1–11.
- Chen, H.-J., Chen, P.-J., & Okumus, F. (2013). The relationship between travel constraints and destination image: A case study of Brunei. *Tourism Management*, 35, 198–208.
- Chew, E. Y. T., & Jahari, S. A. (2014). Destination image as a mediator between perceived risks and revisit intention: A case of post-disaster Japan. *Tourism Management*, 40, 382–393.
- Choe, J. Y. J., & Kim, S. S. (2018). Effects of tourists' local food consumption value on attitude, food destination image, and behavioral intention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 71, 1–10.
- Chung, J. Y., Baik, H.-J., & Lee, C.-K. (2017). The role of perceived behavioural control in the constraint-negotiation process: The case of solo travel. *Leisure Studies*, 36(4), 481–492.
- Dean, D., & Suhartanto, D. (2019). The formation of visitor behavioral intention to creative tourism: The role of push–Pull motivation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 24(5), 393–403.

- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G* Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41(4), 1149–1160.
- Gannon, M. J., Baxter, I. W., Collinson, E., Curran, R., Farrington, T., Glasgow, S., Godsman, E. M., Gori, K., Jack, G. R., & Lochrie, S. (2017). Travelling for Umrah: Destination attributes, destination image, and post-travel intentions. *The Service Industries Journal*, 37(7–8), 448–465.
- Grunert, K. G., Shepherd, R., Traill, W. B., & Wold, B. (2012). Food choice, energy balance and its determinants: Views of human behaviour in economics and psychology. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 28(2), 132–142.
- Hair Jr, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) (2nd ed.)*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Jani, D. (2018). The impacts of travel motives and information needs on destination image. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, 18(1), 1–15.
- Khan, Mohammad J., Chelliah, S., & Ahmed, S. (2019). Intention to visit India among potential travellers: Role of travel motivation, perceived travel risks, and travel constraints. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 19(3), 351–367.
- Khan, Mohammad Jamal, Chelliah, S., & Ahmed, S. (2017). Factors influencing destination image and visit intention among young women travellers: Role of travel motivation, perceived risks, and travel constraints. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(11), 1139–1155.
- Li, F., Wen, J., & Ying, T. (2018). The influence of crisis on tourists' perceived destination image and revisit intention: An exploratory study of Chinese tourists to North Korea. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 9, 104–111.
- MasterCard and Crescent Rating. (2019a). *Global Muslim Travel Index 2019*. <https://www.crescentrating.com/reports/global-muslim-travel-index-2019.html>
- MasterCard and Crescent Rating. (2019b). *Indonesia Muslim Travel Index 2019*. <https://www.crescentrating.com/reports/indonesia-muslim-travel-index-2019.html>
- Nassar, M. A., Mostafa, M. M., & Reisinger, Y. (2015). Factors influencing travel to Islamic destinations: An empirical analysis of Kuwaiti nationals. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*.
- Oktadiana, H., & Pearce, P. L. (2018). Motivated Muslims: Exploring Travel Career Patterns Among Indonesian Tourists. In *Asian Cultures and Contemporary Tourism* (pp. 101–119). Springer.
- Oktadiana, H., Pearce, P. L., & Chon, K. (2016). Muslim travellers' needs: What don't we know? *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 20, 124–130.
- Oktadiana, H., Pearce, P. L., & Li, J. (2020). Let's travel: Voices from the millennial female Muslim travellers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*.
- Park, S. H., Hsieh, C.-M., & Lee, C.-K. (2017). Examining Chinese college students' intention to travel to Japan using the extended theory of planned behavior: Testing destination image and the mediating role of travel constraints. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 34(1), 113–131.
- Permana, D. (2018). Tourist's Re-visit Intention from Perspective of Value Perception, Destination Image and Satisfaction. *European Research Studies Journal*, 21(3), 254–265.
- Prayag, G. (2010). Images as pull factors of a tourist destination: A factor-cluster segmentation analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(2), 213–226.
- Prebensen, N. K., Woo, E., Chen, J. S., & Uysal, M. (2013). Motivation and involvement as antecedents of the perceived value of the destination experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2), 253–264.
- Rahman, M. S., Osmangani, Aa. M., Hassan, H., Anwar, M. A., & Fattah, F. A. M. A. (2016). Consumption values, destination cues and nostalgia on the attitude in the selection of destination for educational tourism: The mediating role of destination image. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*.

- Ratthinan, S. P., & Selamat, N. H. (2019). Negotiating Travel Constraints via Technology: A Study of Malay Muslim Women through a Hierarchical Constraint Model Perspective. *Asian Journal of Business Research*, 9(2), 55.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Su, D. N., Nguyen, N. A. N., Nguyen, Q. N. T., & Tran, T. P. (2020). The link between travel motivation and satisfaction towards a heritage destination: The role of visitor engagement, visitor experience and heritage destination image. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, 100634.
- Suni, J., & Pesonen, J. (2019). Hunters as tourists—an exploratory study of push–pull motivations. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 19(2), 175–191.
- Tan, E., Abu Bakar, B., Lim, T., & Nair, S. (2018). Hijababes travel: Insights from Asian female Muslim millennial travelers. *CAUTHE 2018: Get Smart: Paradoxes and Possibilities in Tourism, Hospitality and Events Education and Research*, 653.
- Tang, Y. (2014). Travel motivation, destination image and visitor satisfaction of international tourists after the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake: A structural modelling approach. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(11), 1260–1277.
- Valduga, M. C., Breda, Z., & Costa, C. M. (2019). Perceptions of blended destination image: The case of Rio de Janeiro and Brazil. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*.
- Vargas-Sánchez, A., & Moral-Moral, M. (2019). Halal tourism: State of the art. *Tourism Review*.
- Xu, J. B., & Chan, S. (2016). A new nature-based tourism motivation model: Testing the moderating effects of the push motivation. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 18, 107–110.
- Yang, R., & Tung, V. W. S. (2018). How does family influence the travel constraints of solo travelers? Construct specification and scale development. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(4), 507–516.
- Zhao, X., Lynch Jr, J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2), 197–206.
- Zheng, C., Zhang, J., Qian, L., Jurowski, C., Zhang, H., & Yan, B. (2018). The inner struggle of visiting 'dark tourism' sites: Examining the relationship between perceived constraints and motivations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 21(15), 1710–1727.