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Can a woman travel as a woman?
Perceptions of travel barriers to women by personality trait

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine differences in women's perceptions of travel constraints by personality trait, according to age, educational level, personal income, travelled destination, the purpose of travelling, the time spent travelling, the region travelled to and the factors that affect the choice of destination. The survey data collected from a sample of 304 women travellers were analyzed by performing one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results showed that there are significant differences between women's perceptions of travel constraints and personal income, the region they travelled to and the purpose of travelling. Significant differences between women's personality traits and age, education level, duration of travel, destination and destination choice were also found.

KEYWORDS

women travellers, travel constraints, five-factor personality traits, Türkiye

1. Introduction

People have equal rights regardless of their economic and social status (Wilson, 2004). Although rights are equal, gender as understood in society imposes various roles on men and women. These social roles are changing rapidly due to causes such as globalization and urbanization. When the lives of men and women living in different geographies are examined, it shows that changes seen in the social, economic and political fields also affect their lives (Lie, 2000). Along with the

effect of these changes, roles have changed and role adaptations of women and men in both their domestic and working lives are inevitable (Attanapola, 2004; World Health Organization [WHO], 1998).

Today, changes are seen in socio-demographic, political and economic fields (Attanapola, 2004; Kay, 2000; Kinnaird, Hall, 2000). For example, the fact that women are more often employed full time (Pringle, Kay, Jenkins, 2011) and achieve economic independence (Valaja, 2018), with changes in lifestyle and family life (Kay, 2000), have enabled women to participate more

in travel. However, the social roles and expectations imposed on women prevent them from participating in travel defined as leisure.

Endler and Magnusson (1976) and Iso-Ahola (1980) have assumed that social roles may have a restrictive effect on women's participation in leisure time activities (cited in Henderson, Stalnaker, Taylor, 1988; Cambronero-Saiz, 2013). For women who are considered to have a major responsibility for housework and parenting (Cambronero-Saiz, 2013; Gregory, 1982; Hochschild, Machung, 1989; Moya, Expósito, Ruiz, 2000), continuation of home and family care even on vacation are expected (Deem, 1996). In addition, Harris (2002) stated that women travelling for work felt that they had to continue with the care of their spouse, children and home even when they were away by e-mail, phone calls and other means. Therefore, the concept of women's leisure becomes more problematic in travel for work. For this reason, going outside the domestic boundaries for women does not mean a real escape, both for work and leisure.

In the literature review on the social status of women in human history and today, one of the most common problems is gender (Wilson, 2004) and that the historical development of tourism studies related to this dates back to the mid-1990s (Aitchison, 2005; Mottiar, Quinn, 2004). Conceptually, gender is the cultural meanings associated with the biological sex of individuals (Henderson et al., 1996). Studies on gender are associated with understanding social world power relations between women and men and how they are gendered in ways that shape their identities (Pringle, Kay, Jenkins, 2011). According to the roles and expectations attributed to individuals with the concept of gender, the most important duty for men is to provide livelihood for the family, while the most important duty for women is to raise their children and ensure the continuity of family life (Moya, Expósito, Ruiz, 2000). The roles and expectations imposed by the concept of gender (Henderson et al., 1996) can turn into constraints on women's lives. These restrictors can greatly affect individuals' behavior, travel choices and perceptions of tourist activities (Özkök, Cesur, 2015). For example, compared to men, women's freedom to travel is restricted especially by familial roles and responsibilities (Khan, 2011). Henderson, Stalnaker and Taylor (1988) suggested that gender-role characteristics and personality types could be an important obstacle for women to participate in leisure activities.

Researchers have provided meaningful contributions to the tourism literature. Surprisingly, to our best knowledge, few studies have hitherto focused on personality traits and their role in women's travel intentions. However, the relationship between personal income, destination travelled to, the purpose of travel and women's perception of travel constraints have not been given attention. Moreover, the relationship

between demographic variables (age and educational level), the time spent travelling, the region travelled to, the factors that affect the choice of destination and women's personality traits have not been given attention either. Therefore, to fill this gap, this study examines differences in women's perception of travel constraints and their personality traits according to several variables.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

2.1. WOMEN AND TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

The issue of women and leisure had not been studied much until the 1980s. In fact, even until the 21st century, it does not seem to have been a focused topic. The history of research on women's participation in travel goes back approximately 25 years (Freysinger et al., 2013; Özkök, Cesur, 2015). Within the scope of this work, many results have been revealed about how women participate in travel, what their travel motivations are, and what kind of restrictions they encounter in their trips (before and during) (Arab-Moghaddam, Henderson, Sheikholeslami, 2007). Gregory (1982) argued that women's lives are shaped by the integration of work and vacation periods. He also argued that for women, factors such as access to work, housing, education, traditional leisure time, mobility and safety all constitute obstacles to leisure time. However, it is known that the first integrative research on women's travel activities was carried out by Henderson in 1990. Henderson developed various methods to understand women's place in leisure in his research. He analyzed the meaning that women attribute to travel activities with the methods he developed. As a result of his analysis, it was concluded that the most basic and common problem for women travelling is gender inequality in the social sense (Arab-Moghaddam, Henderson, Sheikholeslami, 2007). In this context, many researchers in the relevant literature argue that compared to men, women experience more restrictions as a result of gender and socio-cultural differences (Özkök, Cesur, 2015). When the historical process is examined, the higher number of men compared to women in travel is due to the fact that women are faced with more restrictions (Nyaupane, Andereck, 2008).

In the academic tourism field, most of the work on gender, women and tourism has focused on the experiences of women as 'producers' of tourism and those who represent them. In their study, Henderson and Gibson (2013) emphasize more research is needed on emerging issues regarding women in tourism and other marginalized groups. It is clear, therefore, that

studies of women travellers are potentially a necessary field for academic research.

The difficulties faced by women in daily life and travel differ. At the individual level, women may be exposed to discrimination and harassment in the workplace, in society and in their spare time. Negative attitudes towards sexism can prevent or limit participation in leisure time. In addition, it can limit individuals' freedom to express themselves and develop a positive identity through leisure time (Freysinger et al., 2013).

Henderson, Stalnaker and Taylor (1988), in their study on the factors acting as an obstacle to leisure time for women mentioned ten factors: time, money, facilities, family concerns, unawareness, lack of interest, decision making, body image, skills and social inappropriateness. Wilson and Little (2005) also focused on the restrictions and difficulties faced by women while trying to participate in leisure and tourism activities. As a result of the study, several restrictors were identified: lack of self-confidence, anxiety, fear, psychological problems, an individual's desire to spend free time with a friend or being away from a friend, and social perception. Common constraints discussed are fear and security. While Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) pointed out in their study that travel intentions are determined by the level of travel anxiety and perceived safety level, Westwood, Pritchard and Morgan (2000) drew attention to women's concerns about security both before a journey and on arrival at a destination. In addition, Wilson and Little (2005) show that women's experiences limit their opportunities to go further because they often have to travel on safe routes.

In the international literature, there are a lot of studies on women travelling alone (Carvalho, Baptista, Costa, 2014; Chiang, Jogaratnam, 2006; Harris, Wilson, 2007; Jordan, Aitchison, 2008; Jordan, Gibson, 2005; McNamara, Prideaux, 2010; Myers, 2010; Obenour, 2005; Seow, Brown, 2018; Wilson, 2004; Wilson, Little, 2005, 2008; Valaja, 2018; Yang, Khoo-Lattimore, Arcodia, 2018). The increase in studies on women travellers, especially in recent years, can be attributed to an increase in women's tendency to travel alone. It is possible to mention a number of studies on travel restrictions for women travellers (Chen, Chen, Okumus, 2013; Crawford, Godbey, 1987; Fleischer, Pizam, 2002; Gilbert, Hudson, 2000; Lai, Li, Harrill, 2013; Lee, Agarwal, Kim, 2012; Li et al., 2011; Nyaupane, Andereck, 2008; Pennington-Gray, Kerstetter, 2002; Sparks, Pan, 2009; Wilson, Little, 2005).

2.2. Five-factor personality traits

Patterns of cognition, beliefs and conduct that are comparatively stable are referred to as personality traits (Mammadov, 2022) and are among the factors that determine the actions people take. Various types of behavior and personality traits are related to each other (Abdelrahman, 2022). Moreover, they distinguish one person from another and form the basis of our predictions about the future behavior of that person (Atkinson et al., 2019). Research leads to the conclusion that most of the consistency in our behavior can be represented by five basic personality dimensions: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness (Barnett, 2013; McCrae, Costa, 1987; McCrae et al., 1999). Donnellan and Lucas (2008) briefly explained these five-factor personality traits as follows: extraversion (traits like being energetic and sociable), agreeableness (traits like being considerate and kind), conscientiousness (traits like being hard-working and orderly), neuroticism (traits like being nervous and tense) and openness (traits like being artistic and creative) (Donnellan, Lucas, 2008).

The five-factor personality model emphasizes features of inheritance, temporal stability and the generalization of personality traits across genders and cultures (Grumm, von Collani, 2009; Tan, 2020). McCabe et al. (2013) argued that the trait theory of personality, developed by Allport (1937), forms the basis of the five-factor personality model. Tappin (2014, p. 75), on the other hand, stated that the five-factor personality development was discussed extensively from 1884 until 1992. It is also argued that most studies on the five factor model and the development of a scale related to McCrae and Costa (1985) were the greatest contribution (Çiçek, Aslan, 2020).

In addition to models related to personality traits, the five-factor personality model has been widely applied in various disciplines in social sciences due to its universality (Jani, Jang, Hwang, 2014), and its high reliability across cultures (Allık, McCrae, 2004; Benet-Martínez, John, 1998; Schmitt et al., 2007).

It is believed that personality traits vary according to geographic location. Although the five-factor personality model is thought to have a universal structure, the model has been analyzed by researchers due to the differences between cultures, for example, Allık and McCrae (2004) analyzed the model in 36 countries.

Benet-Martínez and John (1998) developed the five-factor personality scale adapted to Türkiye. Research conducted within 56 countries (Aydoğan et al., 2017; Basım, Çetin, Tabak, 2009; Schmitt et al., 2007). After this, different authors carried out studies on the adaptation of the five-factor personality scale created by different authors to Turkish culture. For example, Horzum, Ayas and Padır (2017) conducted a study to adapt the ten-item personality scale developed by Rammstedt and John (2007), which measures five basic personality traits, to Turkish culture. As a result, the five-factor model supporting the basic personality structure has gained more importance by being proven cross-culturally (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae, John, 1992).

It is seen that the five-factor model of personality is used in different disciplines from the social sciences. Tourism is one of these disciplines. Since personality is generally thought to be stable, this model helps to understand tourist behavior, which consists of emotional and thought components (Jani et al., 2014) while it is known that personality affects tourist behavior (Decrop, 2006; Hsu, Kang, Wolfe, 2002; Kotler, 2000). Recent studies on tourism and the five-factor analysis are as follows: Jani et al. (2014) associating personality with the internet behavior of tourists, Abbate and Di Nuovo (2013) discovering religious travel motivations, Kvasova (2015) determining the relationships between personality and tourists' environmentalism, while Passafaro et al. (2015) used the five-factor model to determine the profile of sustainable tourists to investigate the effects of personality traits on different types of recreation, and to determine the effect on the intention of visiting green hotels.

2.3. HYPOTHESES

Results from Wilson's (2004) study show the restrictions that prevent women from travelling alone are explained under four headings: socio-cultural, personal, objective and spatial constraints. It is concluded that these restrictions prevent women from travelling alone.

The factors that restrict those who travel are examined under two items, namely supply-side restrictors and socio-demographic restrictors. The visa procedures required for the region to be travelled to, weather conditions, distance, adverse conditions in accommodation, and security problems are specified as supply-side restrictors; variables such as gender, age, marital status, race, education and income status are included under socio-demographic constraints (Cesur, 2014; Henderson, Stalnaker, Taylor, 1988; Pennington-Gray, Kerstetter, 2002; Wilson, Little, 2005).

In the travel decision-making process, people generally take into account leisure travel restrictions that affect tourist destination choices, such as financial and time constraints, lack of interest or travel companions, and security concerns (Chen, 2019; Tan, 2020). It is possible to say that the income levels of individuals have an effect on their travel behavior. For example, in the study of Jang et al. (2004), it has been suggested that Japanese tourists travelling abroad with different income levels may exhibit different travel consumption behaviors. The research conducted by Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) on restrictions to participating in leisure activities in Arizona has shown that financial resources are the most important limiting factor for those aged 71 and over.

Travel restrictions may vary depending on socio-demographic and socio-economic factors, including gender, age, income, ethnicity and life cycle (Lai, Li, Harrill, 2013). For example, while structural constraints such as money and time are prominent among Western tourists, emotional constraints such as family roles, negative perception of old age, and fear of disapproval are observed in Eastern tourists (Hsu, Kang, 2009). The findings of Li (2007) showed that the restrictions vary according to age, gender, education, occupation and income, while motivations vary according to age, education, profession and income. In the light of this, the H_1 hypothesis was created.

H_1. There is a significant difference in women' perception of travel constraints due to personal income.

In Cesur's (2014) study, H_{2a} and H_{2b} hypotheses were created because women stated that there is a difference in the time they spend on their trips, the regions they travelled to and their travel purposes due to fear, suspicion and security factors.

H_2. There is a significant difference in the women' perception of travel constraints due to the travel destination (Hypothesis 2a) and purpose of travelling (Hypothesis 2b).

Lucas and Donnellan (2009) argue that there is important evidence that five-factor personality traits change over time. They stated that this evidence supports the conclusion that extraversion, neuroticism and openness decrease with age, while agreeableness and conscientiousness, increase with age. Also, Donnellan and Lucas (2008) found that extraversion and openness were negatively associated with age whereas agreeableness was positively associated with it. In Yazıcı-Çelebi's (2021) study, it was concluded that there was a significant difference in the personality traits of extraversion/introversion and balance/neuroticism sub-dimensions in terms of the education levels of women. Accordingly, H_{3a} and H_{3b} hypotheses have been created.

H_3. There is a significant difference in women' personality traits due to age (Hypothesis 3a) and educational level (Hypothesis 3b).

When studies on leisure behavior are examined, several studies point to the existence of important relationships between personality in general and leisure behavior (Barnett, 2006; Jani, 2014) which shed light on the relationship between personality and travel. Plog (1974), whose personality trait analysis is clearly found among researchers in tourism, explained the possible destination choice of the tourist. For example, Sönmez and Graefe (1998) stated that they would choose the destination that best suits the needs of a tourist and offers the most benefit with the least risk, while Plog (1974) also stated that psychocentric tourists (passive and risk-averse) are likely to seek peace and choose destinations that are perceived as safe. He stated that allocentric tourists (active and risk-taking) are most likely looking for excitement and pay less attention to destination choice based on safety factors.

In studies focusing on how psychological factors affect tourists' decisions about travel destinations within the scope of tourism (Qui, Masiero, Li, 2018), it is seen that different personality traits are linked to the final choice of the destination travelled to. Remarkable studies emphasize that people with different purposes tend to choose different travel destinations (Kozak, 2002; Moscardo et al., 1996).

Tan (2020) discusses how the personality traits of tourists affect perceived travel restrictions during the destination choice process. H_{4a}, H_{4b} and H_{4c} were formed in accordance with these.

H_4. There is a significant difference in women' personality traits due to the time spent travelling (Hypothesis 4a), the region travelled to (Hypothesis 4b), and the factors that affect the choice of destination (Hypothesis 4c).

3. METHODOLOGY

This research is concerned with women travellers living in Türkiye. These were selected because there are very few studies on Turkish women travelling alone in the literature. Judgmental sampling (also called purposive or expert sampling), one of the non-probability sampling methods, was used in the study. This kind of sampling strategy is suitable if the population to be examined is hard to find or if some participants are considered to be more suitable (knowledgeable, experienced, etc.) than others for the study. Women who are on Facebook and Instagram, which are among the social media tools used extensively in Türkiye, can be found through the www.gezginkadinlar.com web address. The founder of the website was contacted and stated that the number of active travelling women on the webpage was 1400; the sample size was calculated according to this information. The data was collected between January and June 2019 and 304 questionnaires were found suitable for analysis.

In this study, a quantitative descriptive research model was used, one that describes a given situation as thoroughly and carefully as possible (Büyüköztürk et al., 2008). In a descriptive model, the event, individual or object that is the subject of research is defined in its own terms. No effort is made to change or affect it in any way (Yıldırım, Şimşek, 2008). In the research, data were obtained by using the survey technique, a quantitative research method. The first two parts of the scale used for the survey technique was taken from Şahin, Sönmez and Kahveci (2014). Horzum, Ayas and Padır (2017) was used for the scale in the third part of the questionnaire. The first section includes demographic questions, the second part includes statements about travel obstacles, while the third consists of a five-factor personality scale

in order to find the characteristics that distinguish the respondents from others in a way that is related to travel obstacles. A 5-point Likert-scale was adopted for the survey items ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

4. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The research includes statistics obtained as a result of a CFA analysis of the travel disability scale. The items' factor loadings, R^2, error and, t values is presented in Table 1. When Table 1 was examined, it was determined that the factor structure obtained as a result of the explanatory factor analysis of the travel disability scale was confirmed by CFA findings in terms of item statistics. Accordingly, the factor loading values of the items vary between 0.33 and 0.72. These values can be considered as an acceptable factor load. The t values, which are the expressions of the statistical significance level of the relationships between the items and latent variables, were found to be significant at the $p < 0.01$ level and all values were found to be greater than 2.58. Below (Figure 1) is the DFA path diagram. When it was examined, no modification was required, as the fit indices of the model were at the desired level.
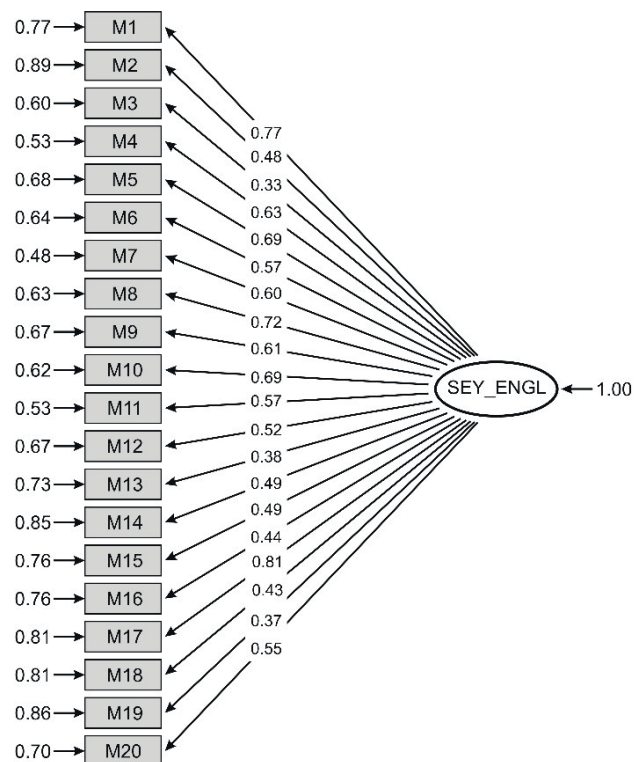

Figure 1. Path diagram of the travel disability scale
Note: chi-square = 527.04, *df* = 167, *p* value = 0.00000, RMSEA = 0.084
Source: authors

Table 1. Statistics on CFA findings for the travel disability scale

Items	Factor loadings	R^2	Error	t
1. My health condition when travelling affects my trips	0.48	0.23	0.77	8.49
2. I'm not interested in going on trips	0.33	0.11	0.89	5.61
3. A security concern for the country affects my travel	0.63	0.40	0.60	11.72
4. Bad experiences I have had travelling in the past affect my trip	0.69	0.48	0.53	13.18
5. The possibility of experiencing a lack of friends (loneliness) during travelling affects my trip	0.57	0.32	0.68	10.30
6. The disagreement I have with family members in my travel decisions affects my trip	0.60	0.36	0.64	11.05
7. Transportation problems affect my trip	0.72	0.52	0.48	14.05
8. Anxiety about travel itineraries affects my trip	0.61	0.37	0.63	11.27
9. Unsuitable weather conditions in the country I will travel to affects my trip	0.57	0.32	0.67	10.38
10. The lack of supply resources in the country I will travel to affects my trip	0.61	0.37	0.62	11.39
11. The fact that the accommodation facility in the country I will travel to is poorly equipped affects my trip	0.69	0.48	0.53	13.18
12. Not having enough time for travelling affects my trip	0.57	0.32	0.67	10.35
13. The high costs of travel affect my trip	0.52	0.27	0.73	9.34
14. The fact that I do not have enough information about the country I will travel to affects my trip	0.39	0.15	0.85	6.63
15. Having a negative worldview in terms of travel affects my trip	0.49	0.24	0.76	8.78
16. Political events (conflict, revolution, etc.) in the country I will travel to affects my trip	0.48	0.23	0.76	8.68
17. Ethnic and religious conflicts in the country I will travel to affects my trip	0.44	0.19	0.81	7.71
18. Visa problems encountered during travelling affects my trip	0.43	0.18	0.81	7.58
19. My lack of self-worth in terms of travelling affects my trip	0.37	0.14	0.86	6.32
20. The language difference problem that I will encounter in the country I will travel to affects my trip	0.55	0.30	0.70	9.87

Source: authors.

After the fit index of a model is found to be at the desired level in the path diagram, the other fit index results of the model should be checked. While *t*-test or χ^2 analyses are made by looking at the p value, which will indicate whether the model is acceptable and complies with perfect fit criteria by looking at the results of the various fit indexes for CFA. These fit indices take names such as χ^2, χ^2/SD, RMSEA, RMR, SRMR, NFI, NNFI, CFI, GFI, AGFI (Çapık, 2014, p. 199). The ratios of good fit and acceptable fit criteria for a model are given in Table 2 below (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, 2003).

The fit index criteria obtained as a result of the CFA meet the acceptable fit index criteria. In Table 3 the values obtained are within acceptable fit indices. It has been determined that the most important fit index value, χ^2/SD, falls within the acceptable fit range at 3.155, and the RMSEA value falls within the acceptable range at 0.084, while the other fit indices are acceptable.

These results show that the explained factor structure is confirmed.

The results of the one-way ANOVA analysis are shown in Table 4. According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis conducted to determine the difference between travel restrictions and individual income levels, the difference between travel restrictions and income was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 9.509$, $p < 0.01$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. It was determined that the travel disability level of those with an income of less than 2000 TL ($\overline{X} = 3.58$) is higher than those with an income of 2001–4000 TL ($\overline{X} = 3.03$), 4001–6000 TL ($\overline{X} = 2.4$), 6001–8000 TL ($\overline{X} = 2.94$), more than 8001 ($\overline{X} = 2.87$). With increase in income, the perception of travel disability decreases and this shows that income is an important factor for travelling. Thus, H_1 was supported.

Table 2. Values of fit index criteria

Goodness of fit indices	Good fit value	Acceptable fit value
χ^2/SD	≤ 3	≤ 5
RMSEA	0 < RMSEA < 0.05	0.05 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.10
RMR	0 ≤ SRMR < 0.05	0.05 ≤ SRMR ≤ 0.10
SRMR	0 ≤ SRMR < 0.05	0.05 ≤ SRMR ≤ 0.10
NFI	0.95 ≤ NFI ≤ 1	0.90 ≤ NFI ≤ 0.95
NNFI	0.95 ≤ NNFI ≤ 1	0.90 ≤ NNFI ≤ 0.95
CFI	0.95 ≤ CFI ≤ 1	0.90 ≤ CFI ≤ 0.95
GFI	0.95 ≤ GFI ≤ 1	0.90 ≤ GFI ≤ 0.95
AGFI	0.90 ≤ AGFI ≤ 1	0.85 ≤ AGFI ≤ 0.90

Source: authors.

Table 3. Travel disability scale goodness of fit values

χ^2/SD	p	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	AGFI	NNFI	NFI	RMR	SRMR
3.155	0.000	0.084	0.93	0.90	0.85	0.92	0.90	0.066	0.051

Source: authors.

Table 4. ANOVA results for levels of travel restrictions by individual income status

Factor	Income	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Scheffe
Travel restrictions	less than 2000 TL	54	3.58	0.78	4	9.509	0.000**	1–2
	2001–4000 TL	113	3.03	0.69	–	–	–	1–3
	4001–6000 TL	63	2.84	0.68	–	–	–	1–4
	6001–8000 TL	31	2.94	0.67	–	–	–	1–5
	more than 8001 TL	43	2.87	0.72	–	–	–	–

Note: ** $p < 0.01$; 1 = less than 2000 TL; 2 = 2001–4000 TL; 3 = 4001–6000 TL; 4 = 4001–6000 TL; 5 = more than 8001 TL.
Source: authors.

The results of ANOVA analysis related to the travel restrictions level of individuals and the regions travelled are shown in Table 5. According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis conducted to determine the differences between the travel restrictions level of individuals and the regions travelled, the difference between travel restrictions and the regions travelled was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 4.618$, $p < 0.01$). The travel restrictions level for those who prefer to travel in Türkiye ($\overline{X} = 3.19$) was higher than those who prefer to travel to Europe ($\overline{X} = 2.90$), Africa ($\overline{X} = 2.50$), America ($\overline{X} = 2.70$), Asia ($\overline{X} = 2.57$) or the Middle East ($\overline{X} = 2.65$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. In accordance with the data obtained, the participants prefer mostly to travel within Türkiye the while African countries are the least preferred. In this context, participants travel more in their own country due to reasons such as travel barriers, cost, security, difficulties in obtaining visas and terrorism. Thus, H_{2a} was supported.

The results of the one-way ANOVA analysis are shown in Table 6. According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis to determine the difference between travel purpose and travel restrictions level was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 10.896$, $p < 0.01$). The travel restrictions level for women who travel to see new places ($\overline{X} = 2.85$) was at a lower level than those who travel for leisure ($\overline{X} = 3.26$), as routine ($\overline{X} = 3.22$) and work ($\overline{X} = 3.16$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. In line with the data obtained, the participants travelled to see new places and meet new people against travel restrictions. Participants who travel for leisure or habit pay more attention to travel obstacles. Thus, H_{2b} was supported.

Table 5. ANOVA results for the travel restrictions levels of individuals according to travel area

Factor	Region travelled	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Scheffe
Travel restrictions	Europe	116	2.90	0.73	5	4.618	0.000[**]	3–1
	Africa	21	2.50	0.73	–	–	–	3–2
	Türkiye	197	3.19	0.73	–	–	–	3–4
	America	26	2.70	0.69	–	–	–	3–5
	Asia	36	2.68	0.57	–	–	–	3–6
	Middle East	13	2.65	0.66	–	–	–	–

Note: [**] $p < 0.01$; 1 = Europe; 2 = Africa; 3 = Türkiye; 4 = America; 5 = Asia; 6 = Middle East.
Source: authors.

Table 6. ANOVA results for travel restrictions of individuals according to travel purpose

Factor	Travel purpose	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Differences
Travel restrictions	relaxation	149	3.26	0.62	4	10.896	0.000[**]	1–4
	health	6	3.41	0.26	–	–	–	3–4
	routine	39	3.22	0.79	–	–	–	4–6
	seeing new places	180	2.85	0.74	–	–	–	–
	meeting new people	51	2.78	0.66	–	–	–	–
	work	35	3.16	0.72	–	–	–	–
	other	7	2.80	0.75	–	–	–	–

Note: [**] $p < 0.01$; 1 = relaxation; 2 = health; 3 = routine; 4 = seeing new places; 5 = meeting new people; 6 = business; 7 = other.
Source: authors.

Table 7 contains statistics obtained as a result of a confirmatory factor analysis of the five-factor personality scale. When Table 7 is examined, the factor structure of the five-factor personality scale obtained as a result of EFA was confirmed by CFA findings in terms of item statistics. Accordingly, the factor loading values of the items vary between 0.51 and 0.96. These values can be considered as acceptable factor loadings.

The fit index criteria obtained as a result of CFA met the acceptable fit index criteria (Figure 2 and Table 8). It is seen that the values obtained as a result of the CFA are perfect fit indexes and are in accordance

Table 7. Item statistics on CFA findings on the five-factor personality scale

Items	Factor loadings	R^2	Error	t
1. I see myself as an introvert	0.89	0.79	0.21	16.56
2. I see myself as an extravert, social person	0.96	0.92	0.08	19.10
3. I generally see myself as a reliable person	0.86	0.74	0.26	16.80
4. I see myself as someone who tends to find fault in others	0.54	0.29	0.71	12.45
5. I see myself as someone who tends to move slowly	0.51	0.26	0.74	11.22
6. I see myself as someone who can do a job well	0.84	0.71	0.30	14.20
7. I see myself as someone who is relaxed and able to deal with stress	0.84	0.71	0.30	14.23
8. I consider myself an easily angered person	0.60	0.36	0.64	13.01
9. I consider myself as someone with little artistic interest	0.58	0.34	0.67	12.78
10. I see myself as a creative person	0.63	0.40	0.61	14.10

Source: authors.

with the data on perfect and acceptable scales in the work of Schermelleh-Engel and Moosbrugger (2003). It was determined that the χ^2/df value, which is the most important fit index, was in the perfect fit range at 1.733, the RMSEA at 0.049, while other fit indices are within the perfect fit. These results show that the explained factor structure is confirmed.

The results of the one-way ANOVA analysis are shown in Table 9. According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis conducted to determine differences between the personality trait levels of individuals and age, the difference between agreeableness and age was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 4.353$, $SD = 3$, $p = 0.005$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. The significant difference was between the age group of 38–47 and older than 48, depending on the items "I generally see myself as a reliable person" and "I see myself as someone who tends to find the mistakes of others". It was observed that the level of agreeableness of the age group 38–47 ($\bar{X} = 3.92$) was higher than that of those older than 48 ($\bar{X} = 3.34$). Thus, H_{3a} was supported.

The results of the one-way ANOVA analysis are shown in Table 10. According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis made to determine
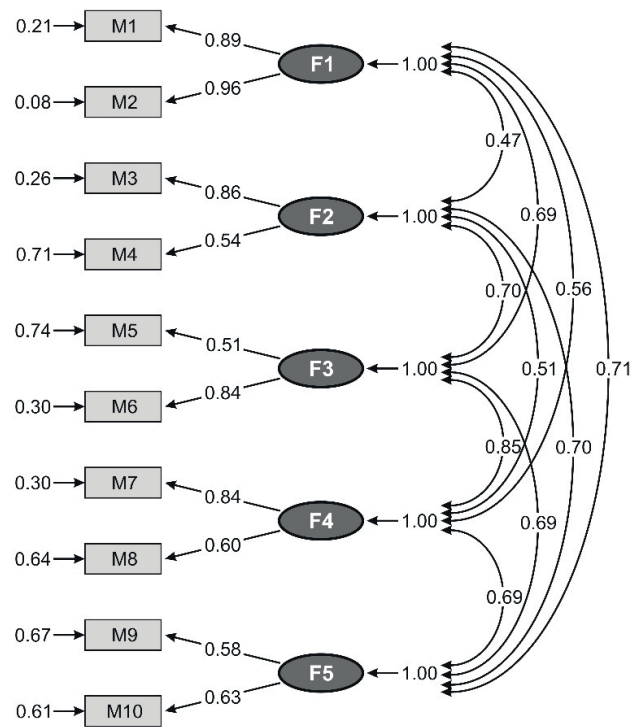

Figure 2. Path diagram of the five-factor personality scale
Note: chi-square = 39.87, df = 23, p value = 0.01588,
RMSEA = 0.049
Source: authors

Table 8. Five-factor personality scale's fit indices

χ^2/df	p	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	AGFI	NNFI	NFI	RMR	SRMR
1.733	0.0158	0.049	0.98	0.97	0.94	0.96	0.96	0.042	0.059

Source: authors.

Table 9. ANOVA results for the personality trait levels of individuals according to age

Personality traits	Age groups	n	$\bar{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Differences
Extraversion	18–27	58	4.34	0.72	3	0.398	0.755	–
	28–37	106	4.28	0.84	–	–	–	–
	38–47	78	4.22	0.94	–	–	–	–
	older than 48	62	4.19	0.79	–	–	–	–
Agreeableness	18–27	58	3.96	0.73	3	4.353	0.005**	3–4
	28–37	106	4.16	0.70	–	–	–	–
	38–47	78	3.92	0.96	–	–	–	–
	older than 48	62	3.34	0.64	–	–	–	–
Conscientiousness	18–27	58	4.21	0.82	3	0.902	0.441	–
	28–37	106	4.09	0.87	–	–	–	–
	38–47	78	4.03	1.08	–	–	–	–
	older than 48	62	3.94	0.92	–	–	–	–
Neuroticism	18–27	58	3.44	0.91	3	1.289	0.278	–
	28–37	106	3.41	0.90	–	–	–	–
	38–47	78	3.58	1.03	–	–	–	–
	older than 48	62	3.27	0.88	–	–	–	–

Table 9 (cont.)

Personality traits	Age groups	*n*	$\overline{X}$	*SS*	*SD*	*F*	*p*	Differences
Openness	18–27	58	3.65	0.69	3	1.861	0.136	–
	28–37	106	3.73	0.90	–	–	–	–
	38–47	78	3.87	0.81	–	–	–	–
	older than 48	62	3.95	0.78	–	–	–	–
General personality	18–27	58	3.92	0.51	3	0.013	0.998	–
	28–37	106	3.93	0.53	–	–	–	–
	38–47	78	3.92	0.67	–	–	–	–
	older than 48	62	3.94	0.47	–	–	–	–

Note: ** $p < 0.05$; 1 = 18–27; 2 = 28–37; 3 = 38–47; 4 = older than 48.
Source: authors.

Table 10. ANOVA results for the personality trait levels of individuals according to education

Personality traits	Educational status	*n*	$\overline{X}$	*SS*	*SD*	*F*	*p*	Differences
Extraversion	high school	49	3.90	0.95	3	5.637	0.001**	1–3
	higher education	64	4.11	0.89	–	–	–	1–4
	undergraduate	117	4.37	0.76	–	–	–	–
	graduate	74	4.44	0.73	–	–	–	–
Agreeableness	high school	49	4.16	0.85	3	1.195	0.312	–
	higher education	64	4.21	0.76	–	–	–	–
	undergraduate	117	4.00	0.76	–	–	–	–
	graduate	74	4.12	0.77	–	–	–	–
Conscientiousness	high school	49	3.82	1.02	3	4.396	0.005**	1–4
	higher education	64	3.87	0.96	–	–	–	2–4
	undergraduate	117	4.11	0.91	–	–	–	–
	graduate	74	4.34	0.79	–	–	–	–
Neuroticism	high school	49	3.20	0.95	3	3.292	0.021**	1–4
	higher education	64	3.32	0.79	–	–	–	–
	undergraduate	117	3.42	0.96	–	–	–	–
	graduate	74	3.69	0.95	–	–	–	–
Openness	high school	49	3.74	0.84	3	0.732	0.534	–
	higher education	64	3.71	0.75	–	–	–	–
	undergraduate	117	3.79	0.79	–	–	–	–
	graduate	74	3.91	0.91	–	–	–	–
General Personality	high school	49	3.76	0.51	3	4.381	0.005**	1–4
	higher education	64	3.85	0.51	–	–	–	–
	undergraduate	117	3.94	0.56	–	–	–	–
	graduate	74	4.10	0.55	–	–	–	–

Note: ** $p < 0.05$; 1 = high school; 2 = higher education; 3 = undergraduate; 4 = graduate.
Source: authors.

the difference between the educational status of individuals' personality traits; the difference between levels of extraversion and education was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 5.637$, $SD = 3$, $p = 0.001$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. The significant difference was between high school and undergraduate or graduate based on the items "I see myself as an introvert" and "I see myself as an extravert, social person". It was determined that the extraversion levels from high school ($\overline{X} = 3.90$) were lower than those who were undergraduates ($\overline{X} = 4.37$) or graduates ($\overline{X} = 4.44$).

The difference between the levels of conscientiousness and education was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 4.396$, $SD = 3$, $p = 0.005$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of differences. The significant difference was between graduates and high school or higher education based on the items "I see myself as someone who tends to move slowly" and "I see myself as a person who will do a complete job". It was determined that the conscientiousness levels of individuals with a master's degree ($\overline{X} = 4.34$) were higher than those who graduated from high school ($\overline{X} = 3.82$) or had an higher education ($\overline{X} = 3.87$).

The difference between neuroticism and education levels was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 3.292$, $SD = 3$, $p = 0.021$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. The significant difference was between graduate and high school based on the items "I see myself as a person who is comfortable and can cope with stress" and "I see myself as an easily angry person". The neuroticism levels of individuals with a master's degree ($\overline{X} = 3.69$) were higher than those who graduated from high school ($\overline{X} = 3.20$).

The difference between general personality traits and educational status was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 4.381$, $SD = 3$, $p = 0.005$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. A significant difference was found between graduate and high school. The general personality level of individuals with a master's degree ($\overline{X} = 4.10$) was higher than that of high school graduates ($\overline{X} = 3.76$) Accordingly, it is possible to say that there was a difference in personality traits with an increase in education. Thus, H_{3b} was supported.

According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis made to determine the difference between the personality traits of individuals and the time spent on travel. The result of the analysis is shown in Table 11.

The difference between neuroticism levels and time spent travelling was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 3.210$, $SD = 4$, $p = 0.013$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. The significant difference was between 1 night 2 days, 2 nights 3 days and more than 1 week, depending on the items "I see myself as a person who is comfortable and can cope with stress" and "I see myself as a person who gets angry easily". The neuroticism levels of individuals who stayed 1 night and 2 days ($\overline{X} = 3.17$) on their trips were

Table 11. ANOVA results for the personality traits levels of individuals by time spent travelling

Personality traits	Time spent travelling	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Differences
Extraversion	less than a full day	35	4.10	0.82	4	1.182	0.319	–
	1 night 2 days	44	4.11	0.90	–	–	–	–
	2 nights 3 days	56	4.35	0.69	–	–	–	–
	4–6 days	97	4.35	0.76	–	–	–	–
	more than 1 week	72	4.22	0.98	–	–	–	–
Agreeableness	less than a full day	35	3.81	0.76	4	1.669	0.157	–
	1 night 2 days	44	4.13	0.82	–	–	–	–
	2 nights 3 days	56	4.04	0.81	–	–	–	–
	4–6 days	97	4.15	0.67	–	–	–	–
	more than 1 week	72	4.19	0.86	–	–	–	–
Conscientiousness	less than a full day	35	4.02	1.02	4	1.799	0.129	–
	1 night 2 days	44	3.87	0.74	–	–	–	–
	2 nights 3 days	56	4.31	0.66	–	–	–	–
	4–6 days	97	4.12	0.98	–	–	–	–
	more than 1 week	72	3.95	1.06	–	–	–	–

Table 11 (cont.)

Personality traits	Time spent travelling	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Differences
Neuroticism	less than a full day	35	3.25	0.86	4	3.210	0.013**	2–3
	1 night 2 days	44	3.17	0.80	–	–	–	2–5
	2 nights 3 days	56	3.58	0.97	–	–	–	–
	4–6 days	97	3.34	0.91	–	–	–	–
	more than 1 week	72	3.68	0.98	–	–	–	–
Openness	less than a full day	35	3.32	0.69	4	4.035	0.003**	1–3
	1 night 2 days	44	3.82	0.93	–	–	–	1–4
	2 nights 3 days	56	3.97	0.76	–	–	–	–
	4–6 days	97	3.89	0.85	–	–	–	–
	more than 1 week	72	3.75	0.74	–	–	–	–
General personality	a full day or less	35	3.70	0.60	4	2.819	0.025**	1–3
	1 night 2 days	44	3.82	0.53	–	–	–	1–4
	2 nights 3 days	56	4.05	0.41	–	–	–	1–5
	4–6 days	97	3.97	0.53	–	–	–	–
	more than 1 week	72	3.96	0.61	–	–	–	–

Note: ** $p < 0.05$; 1 = a full day or less; 2 = 1 night 2 days; 3 = 2 nights 3 days; 4 = 4–6 days; 5 = more than 1 week.
Source: authors.

lower than those who stayed 2 nights and 3 days ($\overline{X} = 3.58$) and more than 1 week ($\overline{X} = 3.68$). Participants state that the neuroticism factor increases as the time they spend on their trips increases.

The difference between the levels of openness and the time spent on trips was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 4.035$, $SD = 4$, $p = 0.003$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. A meaningful difference was determined to be between the full day or six to 2 nights 3 days and 4–6 days depending on the items "I see myself as someone with little artistic interest" and "I consider myself as a creative person". The level of openness of individuals who stayed full day or less ($\overline{X} = 3.32$) on their travels was lower than those who stayed 2 nights 3 days ($\overline{X} = 3.97$) and 4–6 days ($\overline{X} = 3.89$).

The difference between general personality traits and time spent travelling was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 2.819$, $SD = 4$, $p = 0.025$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. A significant difference was between the time spent travelling less than a full day, 2 nights 3 days, 4–6 days and more than 1 week. General personality traits are lower than for those who visit less than a full day ($\overline{X} = 3.70$), stay 2 nights and 3 days ($\overline{X} = 4.05$), 4–6 nights ($\overline{X} = 3.97$) and more than 1 week ($\overline{X} = 3.96$). Thus, H$_{4a}$ was supported.

According to the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis conducted to determine the difference of between the general personality traits of individuals and the countries they travelled to. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 12.

The difference in extraversion levels between the travelled country was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 2.692$, $SD = 5$, $p = 0.021$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. A significant difference was determined to be between Türkiye and Africa depending on the items "I see myself as an introvert" and "I see myself as an extravert, social person". The extraversion levels of individuals who travel to Africa ($\overline{X} = 4.71$) were higher than those who travel within Türkiye ($\overline{X} = 4.16$).

The difference between the levels of openness and the countries visited was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 3.24$, $SD = 5$, $p = 0.003$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. A significant difference has been determined between Türkiye and America depending on the items "I see myself as someone with little artistic interest" and "I see myself as creative". The openness levels of individuals who travel to America ($\overline{X} = 4.54$) were higher than of those who travel to Türkiye ($\overline{X} = 3.74$).

The difference between the levels of general personality traits between the countries visited was

Table 12. ANOVA results for the personality trait levels of individuals according to travelled region

Personality traits	Travelled country	n	$\overline{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Differences
Extraversion	Europe	116	4.44	0.65	5	2.692	0.021**	2–3
	Africa	21	4.71	0.44	–	–	–	–
	Türkiye	197	4.16	0.93	–	–	–	–
	America	26	4.69	0.47	–	–	–	–
	Asia	36	4.54	0.61	–	–	–	–
	Middle East	13	4.50	0.46	–	–	–	–
Agreeableness	Europe	116	4.04	0.83	5	0.233	0.948	–
	Africa	21	3.93	1.12	–	–	–	–
	Türkiye	197	4.08	0.77	–	–	–	–
	America	26	4.15	0.99	–	–	–	–
	Asia	36	4.03	0.86	–	–	–	–
	Middle East	13	4.27	0.39	–	–	–	–
Conscientiousness	Europe	116	4.25	0.92	5	2.037	0.073	–
	Africa	21	4.12	0.96	–	–	–	–
	Türkiye	197	4.02	0.92	–	–	–	–
	America	26	4.37	0.83	–	–	–	–
	Asia	36	4.46	0.74	–	–	–	–
	Middle East	13	4.35	0.80	–	–	–	–
Neuroticism	Europe	116	3.53	0.83	5	1.398	0.225	–
	Africa	21	4.00	0.82	–	–	–	–
	Türkiye	197	3.42	0.97	–	–	–	–
	America	26	4.15	0.89	–	–	–	–
	Asia	36	3.69	1.03	–	–	–	–
	Middle East	13	3.54	0.78	–	–	–	–
Openness	Europe	116	3.92	0.85	5	3.624	0.003**	3–4
	Africa	21	4.19	0.68	–	–	–	–
	Türkiye	197	3.74	0.79	–	–	–	–
	America	26	4.54	0.47	–	–	–	–
	Asia	36	4.21	0.69	–	–	–	–
	Middle East	13	3.96	0.75	–	–	–	–
General personality	Europe	116	4.04	0.55	5	3.001	0.012**	3–4
	Africa	21	4.19	0.35	–	–	–	–
	Türkiye	197	3.88	0.55	–	–	–	–
	America	26	4.38	0.47	–	–	–	–
	Asia	36	4.19	0.50	–	–	–	–
	Middle East	13	4.12	0.33	–	–	–	–

Note: ** $p < 0.05$; 1 = Europe; 2 = Africa; 3 = Türkiye; 4 = America; 5 = Asia; 6 = Middle East.
Source: authors.

statistically significant at the 95% confidence level ($F = 3.001$, $SD = 5$, $p = 0.012$, $p < 0.05$). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences and a significant difference was found between Türkiye and America. It was determined that the overall personality levels of individuals who travel to America ($\bar{X} = 4.38$) is higher than those who travel within Türkiye ($\bar{X} = 3.88$). According to the statistical results, it is concluded that there is a difference between people who travel to developed countries and those who travel to developing countries. Thus, H_{4b} was supported.

According to the results of one-way ANOVA analysis to determine the differences between the factors that affect the individual's personality traits in the choice of destination. The result of the analysis is shown in Table 13.

Table 13. ANOVA results for the personality trait levels of individuals according to the factors influencing destination choice

Personality traits	Factors influencing destination choice	n	$\bar{X}$	SS	SD	F	p	Differences
Extraversion	price	210	4.25	0.89	5	2.137	0.061	–
	security	114	4.25	0.83	–	–	–	–
	attractiveness	108	4.31	0.87	–	–	–	–
	advertising	16	4.53	0.83	–	–	–	–
	proximity	46	4.17	0.93	–	–	–	–
	other	6	4.50	0.55	–	–	–	–
Agreeableness	price	210	3.99	0.82	5	4.168	0.001**	1–6
	security	114	4.04	0.80	–	–	–	4–6
	attractiveness	108	4.12	0.78	–	–	–	–
	advertising	16	4.28	0.55	–	–	–	–
	proximity	46	4.16	0.72	–	–	–	–
	other	6	4.83	0.41	–	–	–	–
Conscientiousness	price	210	4.08	0.99	5	3.077	0.010**	4–5
	security	114	4.13	0.84	–	–	–	–
	attractiveness	108	4.07	0.93	–	–	–	–
	advertising	16	4.53	0.87	–	–	–	–
	proximity	46	3.87	0.95	–	–	–	–
	other	6	4.25	0.69	–	–	–	–
Neuroticism	price	210	3.44	0.93	5	2.489	0.031**	5–6
	security	114	3.57	0.89	–	–	–	–
	attractiveness	108	3.46	0.93	–	–	–	–
	advertising	16	3.34	0.98	–	–	–	–
	proximity	46	3.17	1.00	–	–	–	–
	other	6	4.17	0.26	–	–	–	–
Openness	price	210	3.77	0.82	5	0.701	0.623	–
	security	114	3.85	0.79	–	–	–	–
	attractiveness	108	3.89	0.83	–	–	–	–
	advertising	16	3.56	0.77	–	–	–	–
	proximity	46	3.85	0.93	–	–	–	–
	other	6	4.00	0.84	–	–	–	–
General personality	price	210	3.90	0.59	5	2.373	0.039**	5–6
	security	114	3.97	0.55	–	–	–	–
	attractiveness	108	3.97	0.53	–	–	–	–
	advertising	16	4.05	0.63	–	–	–	–
	proximity	46	3.85	0.55	–	–	–	–
	other	6	4.35	0.14	–	–	–	–

Note: ** $p < 0.05$; 1 = price; 2 = security; 3 = attractiveness; 4 = advertising; 5 = proximity; 6 = other.
Source: authors.

Table 14. The results of hypotheses

Hypotheses	Acceptance/rejection
H$_1$. There is a significant difference in the women's perception of travel constraints due to personal income	accepted
H$_2$. There is a significant difference in the women's perception of travel constraints due to the travelled destination (Hypothesis 2a) and the purpose of travelling (Hypothesis 2b)	accepted
H$_3$. There is a significant difference in the women's personality traits due to age (Hypothesis 3a) and educational level (Hypothesis 3b)	accepted
H$_4$. There is a significant difference in women's personality traits due to the time spent travelling (Hypothesis 4a), the region travelled (Hypothesis 4b) and the factors that affect the choice of destination (Hypothesis 4c)	accepted

Source: authors.

The difference between levels of agreeableness between the factors influencing destination choice was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (F = 4.168, SD = 5, p = 0.001, p < 0.05). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. There was significant difference between the price and advertising and other, depending on the items "I generally see myself as a reliable person" and "I see myself as someone who tends to find fault in others". Other ($\overline{X}$ = 4.83) individuals had higher levels of agreeableness than those with price ($\overline{X}$ = 3.99) and advertising ($\overline{X}$ = 4.28).

The difference between the levels of conscientiousness among the factors influencing the choice of destination was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (F = 3.077, SD = 5, p = 0.010, p < 0.05). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. There was significant difference between advertising and proximity based on the items "I see myself as someone who tends to move slowly" and "I see myself as someone who will do a complete job". Individuals with advertising ($\overline{X}$ = 4.53) had a higher level of conscientiousness than those with proximity ($\overline{X}$ = 3.87).

The difference between neuroticism levels among the factors influencing the choice of destination was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (F = 2.489, SD = 5, p = 0.010, p < 0.05). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. There was significant difference between other and Proximity based on the items "I see myself as a person who is comfortable and can cope with stress" and "I see myself as someone who gets angry easily". The neuroticism levels of these ($\overline{X}$ = 4.17) individuals were higher than those with proximity ($\overline{X}$ = 3.17).

The difference between general personality traits and the factors influencing the choice of destination was statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (F = 2.373, SD = 5, p = 0.010, p < 0.05). Scheffe analysis was performed to determine the source of the differences. The H$_{4c}$ hypothesis was accepted because

there was a significant relationship between proximity ($\overline{X}$ = 3.85) and other ($\overline{X}$ = 4.35).

According to the results of the analyses, the results of the hypotheses developed are given in Table 14.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This article has arisen from the need for research to determine the relationship between some travel behaviors and the socio-demographic characteristics of travel restrictors to women's travel, and whether some travel behaviors differ according to five-factor personality traits. Our findings show that there is a significant relationship between travel barriers to women travellers and their income, destination and purpose of travel. In addition, the findings revealed that there is a positive relationship between the personality traits of women travellers and age, education level, time spent travelling, destination region and destination choice.

According to the findings obtained, with an increase in the income status of the participants, the perception of travel disability decreases, which indicates that income status is an important factor in travelling. This finding is reported by Jang et al. (2004), Li (2007), Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) and Lai, Li and Harrill (2013) in line with the results of their studies on tourists.

According to the findings, participants prefer Türkiye the most and African countries the least. In this context, it can be claimed that women travellers travel more in their own countries due to many reasons such as the cost of travel barriers, difficulties in obtaining visas, security and terrorism. For example, if the process is prolonged due to the difficulties experienced during visa procedures and the journey is delayed to another time or the plan is completely changed, the trip may be cancelled. Cesur (2014) stated in his work that travel obstacles such as fear, suspicion and security make a difference in the duration of travel, the choice

of destination and the purpose of travel. In the work of Kozak, Crotts and Law (2007) and Ay and Özel (2019), women travellers are likely to change their travel plans when they encounter travel barriers. However, contrary to these results Yang, Khoo-Lattimore and Arcodia (2018) stated in their study that women travellers are aware of the travel risks and continue to travel by taking risks voluntarily.

This study has shown that participants travel to see new places and to meet new people, despite the travel obstacles they perceived. It is among the findings that participants who travel for leisure or routine paid more attention to travel obstacles. The results of the other studies cited are in parallel. As a result of the research conducted by Ay and Özel (2019) on female motorcyclists, it was revealed that women travellers were aware of the travel obstacles, but they travelled for purposes such as motorcycling, seeking freedom and escaping the routine of daily life. Kaba and Emekli (2018) stated in their study on lone women travellers that they travelled for reasons such as learning, experience and getting to know new people and cultures. In his work on women travelling alone, McArthur (1999) concluded that they travelled to explore other people and cultures. People who travelled for leisure, routine and getting to know new people emerged as a result of those who had a broad imagination, were open to learning, had a love of travel and an assertive nature. The nature and culture tourist type was at a higher level compared to the 3S type with gastronomy as a factor in the agreeableness of individuals for travel purposes.

Our study revealed that there was a significant relationship between the five-factor personality traits and age groups. We determined that agreeableness in female travellers aged 38–47 is less than those in the age group 48 and over. This result supports the result that the features of extraversion, neuroticism and openness, in the study of Lucas and Donnellan (2009) decrease with age, and agreeableness and conscientiousness increase with age.

The study findings showed that the level of extraversion for women travellers who were from high school was lower, that conscientiousness levels of graduates were higher than for high school and higher education, and the neuroticism levels of graduates were higher than those of high school. In this direction, it is possible to say that there is a difference in personality traits with an increase in education. In other words, when looking at the relationship between the educational status of the women travelling and their personality traits, it increases with the increase in education level. In this case, it is possible to say that an educated person is more conscientious about travelling. A high level of education also causes an increase in the income status of the individual. Good economic status is linked to personality traits. It enables an individual with a good income to act comfortably by avoiding travel obstacles and cost problems.

In some cases, individuals have a travel barrier due to their good education and income. Since public employees have a routine life, they cannot take time off from their jobs and have to postpone the journeys they want to realize. The factor in which public employees appear at a low level compared to other occupational groups is the factor of openness. In line with this factor, it is possible to conclude that public employees accept the standard, prefer to continue their life monotonously and are not open to experience. In line with the purpose of travelling, people discover new places, learn different cultures and get away from their environment. These goals are directly proportional to their education level. As the education level of an individual increases, there is something that can improve the person, teach them new things and open horizons.

According to the data obtained, it was revealed that the neuroticism levels of women who stayed 1 night and 2 days in their trips were lower than those who stayed 2 nights 3 days or more than 1 week. Participants state that the neuroticism factor increases as the time they spend on their trips increases. The level of openness of women travellers who stay a full day or less on their trips was lower than those who stayed 2 nights 3 days or 4–6 days. In addition, the general personality traits of women travellers were lower than those with 2 nights 3 days, 4–6 days or more than 1 week. As a result, the time spent by women travellers on their trips is related to their personality traits of neuroticism and openness. The determination of the neuroticism factor reveals that the individual has psychological problems and wants to get away from the environment she is in. The factor of openness shows that the individual prefers a new life and seeks difference.

The study results concerning extraversion revealed that participants who went to Africa were on a higher level than those who did not. In addition to the level of experience of the participants who travelled to America from Türkiye, openness was determined to be at a higher level. In line with these results, Qui, Masiero and Li (2018) stated in their study that there is a relationship between different personality traits and the final choice of the destination to be travelled to. The result is that individuals with a high extraversion rate are more fun loving, like to travel and are sociable. Concerning openness, the high rate of travel to the United States, where the individual is open to new information, results in the fact that they develop themselves in such countries and gain a different perspective on life.

According to the findings, there is a significant difference between personality traits and the factors that affect the choice of destination. For people with agreeable personality trait levels, price and proximity

were higher than for other options. This situation allows us to reach the conclusion that such people are social and reliable. For people whose personality traits are conscientious, advertising is more important than proximity. This shows that people can make an appropriate and meticulous plan and reach their goals with more solid steps thanks to the advertising and videos about the region. Personality trait was found to be higher than intimacy for people with neuroticism. For this reason, proximity is not an important factor in choosing a destination region. Heung, Qu and Chu (2001) stated in their study that information sources affect the choice of destination and emphasized that word-of-mouth advertising is as important as the mass media in destination choice. Tan (2020), on the other hand, stated that tourists with agreeableness characteristics rely on TV or film information sources.

5.1. Theoretical contributions

As a result of the findings obtained from hypothesis testing and quantitative data analysis, the contribution of the study to theory is that it will constitute a basis for studies on the relationship between travel constraints, personality traits and female travellers. This study can be used in new product development projects for women travellers in the service sector. Tourism marketers can prepare tailored tour packages to attract women travellers to their destinations, such as all-inclusive package tours and special themed tours. However, to encourage these tours, effective advertising and communication strategies must be developed that emphasize the benefits and value of travelling to that destination.

5.2. Practical contributions

Neglected in tourism research; the contribution of the study to practice is to raise awareness on women-related issues, to know the problems women might encounter before they travel, to benefit from solutions and to contribute to tourism literature. The results obtained can be used by researchers in this field in different studies. For example, the relationship between the five-factor personality traits of women travellers and behavioral intentions can be examined.

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